Atom-economic enantioselective photoenzymatic radical hydroalkylation via single-electron oxidation of carbanions

Jin Zhu[1,2,6], Qiaoyu Zhang[3,6], Tao Gu[2,6], Binbin Chen[2], Mingzhe Ma[2], Xiaoyu Wang[3], Xiao Liu[2], Mingjie Ma[2], Binju Wang[3*], and Yajie Wang[2,4,5*]

[1]School of Materials Science and Engineering, Zhejiang University, Hangzhou, Zhejiang 310058, China.

[2]School of Engineering, Westlake University, Hangzhou 310030, China.

[3]Key Laboratory of Theoretical and Computational Chemistry, College of Chemistry and Chemical Engineering, Xiamen University, Xiamen 361005, China.

[4]School of Life Science, Westlake University, Hangzhou 310030, China.

[5]Westlake Center of Synthetic Biology and Integrated Bioengineering, Westlake University, Hangzhou 310030, China.

[6]These authors contributed equally: Jin Zhu, Qiaoyu Zhang, and Tao Gu.

*Corresponding author Emails: wangbinju2018@xmu.edu.cn;

wangyajie@westlake.edu.cn

Abstract

Established strategies for enantioselective hydroalkylation for C(sp^3)–C(sp^3) bond formation usually require pre-functionalized substrates as radical precursors in both transition-metal and photoenzymatic catalysis. Based on a sequential proton transfer/electron transfer (PT/ET) strategy, here we show a cooperative photoenzymatic system consisting of a flavin-dependent 'ene'-reductase (ER) and an organophotoredox catalyst fluorescein (FI) to achieve atom-economic enantiodivergent hydroalkylation of electron-deficient C(sp^3)–H with olefins. Mechanistic studies revealed a pathway for radical intermediate formation via excited-state FI*-induced single-electron oxidation of carbanions under alkaline conditions. The overall catalytic efficiency is enhanced by the electron transfer (ET) between FMN_{ox} and FI$^{\bullet}$, while the stereoselectivity is controlled by ERs through enantioselective hydrogen atom transfer (HAT). We anticipate that this mode of photoenzymatic catalysis will inspire new pathways for generating free radical intermediates and foster innovative strategies for achieving photoenzymatic new-to-nature reactions.

- Single-electron oxidation of carbanions
- Synergistic action of FI and flavoprotein
- Atom-economical radical hydroalkylation
- Enantiodivergent synthesis

Introduction

The formation of C(sp^3)–C(sp^3) bonds presents a significant synthetic challenge but is crucial in synthetic chemistry due to their fundamental role in constructing the carbon backbone of organic molecules[1-3]. Traditional chemocatalytic approaches include S$_N$2-type substitution reactions of enolates with alkyl halides[4,5] and transition metal-catalyzed cross-couplings[6,7]. The former strategy often requires strong bases and lacks monoalkylation control, while the latter is limited by β-hydrogen elimination in alkyl-metal species[1,2]. In contrast, radical hydroalkylation of cost-effective, readily available olefins has become an important strategy[8,9]. Common methods include single-electron reduction of halides[10-13], proton-coupled electron transfer of diazo compounds[14], and redox decarboxylation of carboxylic acids[15-17] or esters[18-20]. However, these methods often require pre-functionalized substrates as radical precursors, impacting atom economy and necessitating pre-synthesis. While transition metal catalysis typically achieves enantioselectivity through metal hydride migratory insertion into olefins or radical trapping[12,21], it struggles with remote stereocontrol at sites distant from the chiral environment[22,23]. State-of-the-art catalysis prioritizes maximum efficiency and sustainability through stringent adherence to step and atom economy, mild conditions, coupled with precise stereochemical control[24-26], thus posing challenges for enantioselective radical hydroalkylation.

Recent advancements in photoenzymatic catalysis have shown remarkable enantioselectivity in the asymmetric hydrogen atom transfer (HAT) of prochiral radicals[27-39], especially in remote stereocontrol[29,30]. Radicals are generated either

through the single-electron reduction of an electron-donor-acceptor (EDA) complex

(Fig. 1a and 1b)[27-34] or via the single-electron oxidation of electron-rich precursors[35-39].

These methods have been successfully developed for selective hydroalkylation of

halides[27-32], NHPI esters[33], diazo compounds[34], and carboxylic acids[35] with olefins, also

largely relying on pre-functionalized substrates. In contrast, generating radicals through

the homolytic cleavage of C–H bonds (Fig. 1c) in single-electron oxidation-initiated

photoenzymatic catalysis shows excellent atom economy[36,37]. However, this approach

has been restricted to the functionalization of electron-rich olefins and aromatics for

lactonization[36] and hydroarylation[37]. Therefore, developing atom-economic

enantioselective hydroalkylation is of great scientific importance in both fields of

transition metal catalysis and photoenzymatic catalysis.

Given the critical role of cyano, carbonyl, and ester groups in late-stage

functionalization[40], the hydroalkylation of olefins with precursors containing these

electron-withdrawing groups (EWG) is essential. Thus, electron-deficient $C(sp^3)$–H

bonds, activated by the adjacent EWGs, can serve as effective radical precursors for

atom-economic hydroalkylation process. Although highly electron-deficient alkanes

resist oxidation, they can be readily deprotonated to yield carbanions. Building on

advances in synthetic chemistry, protic $C(sp^3)$–H bonds can undergo radical activation

through multiple pathways, including proton-coupled electron transfer (PCET),

sequential PT/ET, and ET/PT[41]. This prompted our investigation of a PT/ET strategy,

where electron-deficient substrates form carbanions via deprotonation, followed by

single-electron oxidation to generate radical intermediates. Building on this hypothesis,

we developed a cooperative photoenzymatic system comprising an ene-reductase (ER)

and an organophotoredox fluorescein to achieve the enantioselective radical

hydroalkylation of electron-deficient C(sp^3)–H bonds with olefins. In this catalytic

process, carbanions are generated under alkaline conditions and oxidized to radicals

through an excited-state photocatalyst-induced single-electron transfer (SET).

Stereoselectivity is achieved via an enantioselective HAT step of prochiral

intermediates mediated by ER (Fig. 1d). This photoenzymatic system reveals a

mechanism for radical formation that is rarely reported in photoredox catalysis,

enabling an atom-economic and enantioselective radical hydroalkylation process.

Fig. 1| Different photoenzymatic modes for enantioselective hydrofunctionalization.

Results and Discussion

Reaction development and engineering

While photoredox catalysis has successfully generated radicals from carbanions via single-electron oxidation[41-43], this reactivity remains unexplored in biocatalysis systems. The key challenge lies in the high reactivity of carbanions, complicating control over single-electron oxidation versus competing pathways such as nucleophilic addition to electrophilic π-systems[44,45]. Highly electrophilic radicals can also quickly convert into carbanions through reductive radical polar crossover (RRPCO)[46,47]. To develop a photoenzymatic system for the enantioselective radical hydroalkylation of electron-deficient $C(sp^3)$–H bonds with olefins, suitable enzymes must remain active in alkaline conditions necessary for carbanion formation. The excited ER-FMN$_{ox}$* must effectively oxidize carbanions into free radicals while minimizing undesirable pathways, such as carbanion nucleophilic addition, reductive quenching of FMN$_{ox}$* by the reaction buffer or nearby amino acids, and RRPCO (Supplementary Fig. 9).

We investigated the proposed reactions using malononitrile **1a** and α-methylstyrene **2a** as model substrates with a library of ERs at 1 mol% under 455 nm blue LED illumination. Most ERs showed no catalytic activity (Table 1, entry 1 and Supplementary Table 3), but MorB, OYE2, SYE1, SYE2, SYE3, and GluER achieved yields of 1.2% to 3%. Notably, SYE2 and GluER exhibited the best and opposite enantioselectivity for **3a**. GluER had (*S*)-selectivity with a 4:96 enantiomeric ratio (er) (Table 1, entry 2), while SYE2 showed (*R*)-selectivity with a 93.3:6.6 er (Table 1, entry 3). Thus, SYE2 and GluER were chosen for further investigation.

To enhance the yield of **3a**, we tested various reaction conditions, including buffer

systems, pH levels, and co-solvents (Supplementary Tables 4-5). Although these

adjustments did not significantly improve the yield, we decided to proceed with Tris

buffer at pH 9 and ethanol as a co-solvent. Notably, the reaction only occurs at pH 9 or

above, indicating that strongly alkaline conditions are essential for initiating carbanion

formation in the catalytic cycle (Table 1, entries 4-6).

Unlike other photoenzymatic systems[37,38], adding extra FMN-Na did not enhance

the yield of **3a** (Table 1, entry 7). This suggests that FMN_{ox}^*-induced single-electron

oxidation of carbanions may be the rate-limiting step, indicating the need for

photocatalysts with higher oxidative potential. We screened 18 transition metal and

organic photocatalysts (Supplementary Tables 6-7) and identified fluorescein (Fl-PC7),

PC9, and PC12 as effective, increasing the yield of **3a** to 27%, 21%, and 19%,

respectively, in both SYE2 and GluER-catalyzed reactions. The combination of 5 mol%

Fl with 1 mol% SYE2 or GluER gave the highest yields of **3a**, at 47.8% and 45.5%,

respectively, without compromising enantioselectivity (Table 1, entries 8-9). Control

experiments without light or in the presence of air did not produce the target product

(Table 1, entries 10-11), supporting the visible-light-induced radical mechanism.

Although neither FMN nor Fl alone could catalyze the transformation (Table 1, entries

12-13), combining 10 mol% of both resulted in a 3% racemate of **3a** (Table 1, entry 14).

These findings indicate that Fl and FMN cooperate to catalyze the $C(sp^3)$-H

functionalization process, highlighting the essential role of photoenzymes in improving

efficiency and controlling the stereochemistry of radical processes.

Table 1 | Optimization of reaction conditions for photoenzymatic enantioselective

C(sp^3)-H functionalization.

Reaction scheme:

NC⌒CN + Ph (isopropenyl) → ER 1mol%, Fluorescein 5mol%, 455nm LEDs, Tris buffer (50 mM, pH 9), EtOH (7.5 v/v%), N$_2$, room temperature, 12h, Standard conditions → 3a (Me, CN, Ph, CN product)

1a, 2 equiv   **2a**, 0.004 mmol

Fluorescein FI structure shown with HO and OH groups

Entry	ER	Deviation from standard conditions[a]	Yield (%)[b]	er (%) (R:S)[c]
1	ERs[d]	w/o FI	n.r.	n.a.
2	GluER	w/o FI	1.3	4:96
3	SYE2	w/o FI	2.6	93.3:6.6
4	SYE2	Tris buffer pH 7.4, w/o FI	n.r.	n.a.
5	SYE2	Tris buffer pH 8, w/o FI	n.r.	n.a.
6	SYE2	Tris buffer pH 10, w/o FI	1.5	85:13
7	SYE2	w/o FI, 10 mol% FMN-Na	2.6	93.3:6.6
8	**SYE2**	**None**	**47.8**	**95.6:4.4**
9	**GluER**	**None**	**45.5**	**1.2:98.8**
10	SYE2	Dark	n.r.	n.a.
11	SYE2	Air	n.r.	n.a.
12	/	FMN-Na instead FI	n.r.	n.a.
13	/	None	n.r.	n.a.
14	/	10 mol% FMN-Na + FI	3	racemate

134 [a]Conditions: the total volume of standard reaction was 400 uL. [b]Yield was determined by gas
135 chromatography. c er was determined by HPLC analysis on a chiral stationary phase, and the
136 absolute configuration was established by theoretical calculations of electronic circular
137 dichroism (ECD); see Supplementary Fig. 31 and Fig. 32. [d]LacER, KYE1, OYE1, OYE3, OPR1,
138 SYE4, TOYE and YqjM were tested. n.r. No reaction; n.a. Not applicable.

Substrate scope investigations

We explored the substrate scope using SYE2 (ER1) and GluER to access both

enantiomers of the products. While both enzymes showed excellent enantioselectivity

for **3a**, this decreased significantly for most derivatives (Supplementary Fig. 33). To

address this, we engineered GluER using site-saturated mutagenesis. Molecular

docking of GluER's crystal structure with **1a** and **2a** identified key residues in the

substrate channel and FMN binding region, including T36, W66, H172, N175, Y177,

T231, Q232, P239, R261, F269, and Y343 (see Supplementary Fig. 2). Site-saturated

mutagenesis of these 11 sites led to GluER-Y343A (ER2), which showed improved

enantioselectivity for both **3a** (up to R:S = 99.5:0.5) and other derivatives (Fig. 2).

The photoenzymatic system enabled hydroalkylation of various substituted methyl

styrenes with functional groups at the para-/meta-/ortho positions of the phenyl group

(**3a-j**), producing stereodivergent products with moderate to good yields and up

to >1:99 er. Although 1-bromo-2-(prop-1-en-2-yl)benzene (**3k**) had a relatively low

yield, it exhibited good to excellent enantioselectivity. Additionally, 2-naphthyl (**3l**),

benzothiophene (**3m**), and biphenyl (**3n**) demonstrated the compatibility of

photoenzymatic catalysis with aromatic rings and heterocycle. Variations at the α

position of styrene had minimal impact on outcomes, as seen with **3p**. However,

replacing aromatic olefins with aliphatic olefins significantly reduced the yield of **3o**.

Although the mutant GluER-W66Q-Y343A (ER3) improved the yield of **3o**, the

enantioselectivity remained unsatisfactory. Beyond malononitrile **2a**, dimethyl

malonate **2b** could also alkylate with **3q** with excellent enantioselectivity. Moreover,

this photoenzymatic catalysis can be successfully scaled up to 1 mmol with minimal

changes in yield and enantioselectivity.

Fig. 2 | Substrate scope of enantioselective functionalization of electron-deficient C(sp³)-H bonds via hydroalkylation catalyzed by cooperative photoenzymatic system. Conditions: 1 (0.008 mmol), 2 (0.004 mmol), ER (1 mol%), FI (5 mol%), and EtOH (7.5 v/v%) in Tris buffer (50 mM, pH 9) were stirred at room temperature for 12 hours under N₂ with 455 nm LEDs. The total reaction volume was 400 μL. Yields were determined by gas chromatography, and the er by HPLC on a chiral stationary phase. # Isolated yield was obtained by scaling up the reaction.

Mechanistic investigations

Based on the experimental results, we proposed a synergistic photoredox and biocatalytic mechanism for new-to-nature photoenzymatic C(sp³)-H functionalization (Fig. 3a and detailed in Supplementary Fig. 22). In this catalytic cycle, malononitrile **1a** is first deprotonated in alkaline solutions to form carbanion intermediate **Int. A**. The

light-excited photocatalyst FI* then oxidizes **Int. A** via SET, producing malononitrile

free radical **Int. B** and fluorescein radical anion FI$^{-\bullet}$. **Int. B** subsequently attacks α-

methylstyrene **2a**, forming a C-C bond and generating prochiral radical intermediate

Int. C, alongside FMN_{sq} from FMN_{ox} capturing an electron from FI$^{-\bullet}$. Finally, **Int. C**

undergoes ER-mediated enantioselective HAT, yielding enantioenriched **3a**, while

FMNH$^{\bullet}$ is oxidized back to FMN_{ox}, completing the catalytic cycle.

Several experiments were performed to support the proposed mechanism. The

photophysical properties of SYE2 and FI were measured to identify visible-light-

excited species. UV-vis absorption spectra show that SYE2 and FI absorb in the ranges

of 400-520 nm and 420-530 nm, with maximum absorptions at 460 nm and 490 nm,

respectively (Fig. 3b). This confirms that FI can be effectively excited by 455nm LED

to initiate the catalytic cycle. Stern-Volmer luminescence quenching experiments also

support the initial reductive quenching of excited FI* by **1a** (**Int. A → Int. B**), as the

fluorescence intensity of FI decreased upon adding **1a**, unlike with **2a** (Supplementary

Fig. 10).

Several experiments were also performed to verify the generated radical

intermediates. Firstly, the radical trapping experiment was performed by adding 2

equivalents of 2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidine-1-oxyl (TEMPO) to the reaction mixture

under standard conditions. Only trace amounts of **3a** were detected, as the prochiral

radical intermediate **Int. C** was trapped by TEMPO, confirmed by high-resolution mass

spectrometry (HRMS) (Fig. 3c). Additionally, when α-cyclopropyl styrene **4** was

subjected to the photoenzymatic system, the ring-opening product **5** was observed as

the major product, supporting the involvement of **Int. C** (Fig. 3d). To further investigate

the photo-oxidation step and clarify the resulting radical intermediates, electron

paramagnetic resonance (EPR) experiments were conducted. With 5,5-dimethyl-1-

pyrroline *N*-oxide (DMPO) as a radical trapping agent, slight changes in EPR signals

were observed in the presence of **1a** compared to **2a** (Fig. 3b), indicating the formation

of a potential **1a**-derived radical (**Int. B**), consistent with quenching experiments. The

difference in EPR signals with and without **2a** suggests that the malononitrile radical

Int. B, generated from the single-electron oxidation of the unstable carbanion **Int. A**,

rapidly reacts with **2a** to form a more stable prochiral benzyl radical **Int. C** before being

captured.[45]

Since apo-SYE2 (SYE2 without FMN) and FI alone did not catalyze the product

formation, and adding extra FMN restored reactivity, we confirmed that the catalytic

cycle requires the cooperative action of ER_FMN and FI (Fig. 3e and detailed in

Supplementary Table 8 and Fig. 17). Finaly, deuterium-labelling experiments were

conducted to investigate the final termination step (Fig. 3f). Using a deuterated buffer,

the hydrogen at the stereogenic center was labelled at 76% D, suggesting that water

may be involved in HAT steps.

218 **Fig. 3 | Mechanistic experiments and proposed catalytic cycle. a**, Proposed catalytic

219 cycle. **b**, UV-vis absorption (abs) spectra and room-temperature EPR experiments. **c**,

220 TEMPO trapping experiment. **d**, Radical clock experiment. **e**, Photoenzymatic

221 reactions catalysed by apo-flavoprotein. **f**, Deuterium-labelling experiment.

Computational studies

Extensive computational studies were performed to rationalize the mechanism

proposed in Fig. 3a. Using hybrid cluster-continuum (HCC) model calculations, we

found that **1a** undergoes facile deprotonation by OH⁻ ions in aqueous solution, forming

the anionic species **Int. A.** with a low energy barrier of 0.3 kcal/mol (Supplementary

Figure 20). To ascertain that **Int. A**, rather than **1a**, serves as the reactant for the

generation of the carbanion intermediates **Int. B**, density functional theory (DFT)

calculations and time-dependent DFT (TD-DFT) calculations were conducted. The

Gibbs reaction energy (ΔG) for the excited FI*-mediated oxidation of **1a** and **Int. A**

were calculated to be +105.2 kcal/mol and -32.1 kcal/mol (Fig. 4a and Supplementary

Fig. 15), respectively, supporting that photoinduced single-electron oxidation process

occurs through carbanion intermediates **Int. A**.

Since EPR experiments with FI, **1a**, and **2a** revealed distinctive radical signals,

suggesting that the formation of **Int. C** might be independent on ER participation.

Quantum mechanics (QM) model calculations show that the radical addition between

Int. B and **2a** has an energy barrier of 3.0 kcal/mol and an exothermicity of 10.7

kcal/mol (Fig. 4b), suggesting that formation of **Int. C** is quite facile. In addition,

deuteration experiments and the pKa value of FMN_{sq} (~8.5) suggested that the

protonation of FMN_{sq} to form neutral FMNH$^\bullet$ is feasible at pH 9, with a Gibbs reaction

energy (ΔG) of ~0.7 kcal/mol. Starting from FMNH$^\bullet$, HAT from FMNH$^\bullet$ to **Int. C** is

expected to yield the final product **3a**.

To elucidate the opposing enantioselectivity of GluER and SYE2, **Int. C** and FI

were docked into the enzyme active sites. Molecular dynamics (MD) simulations

indicate that FI was stabilized by Arg261 in GluER (Supplementary Fig. 23). **Int. C**

adopts two distinct conformations (CH_3-left and CH_3-right) in GluER, corresponding

to the *R* and *S* configurations, respectively. Moreover, the quantum mechanics

/molecular mechanics (QM/MM)-calculated HAT barriers are 16.2 kcal/mol for the

CH_3-right and 23.2 kcal/mol for the CH_3-left, aligning with the observed dominant

product (*S*)-**3a** (Fig. 4c and Fig. 4d). This is likely due to steric repulsion between the

bulky-CN substituent of **Int. C** and FMNH$^\bullet$ in the CH$_3$-left conformation, which tends

to enlarge the distance between the C3 atom of **Int. C** and the N5-H of FMNH$^\bullet$ (4.10 Å

in CH$_3$-left vs. 3.44 Å in CH$_3$-right), thereby increasing the energy barrier for HAT in

CH$_3$-left conformation.

Unlike GluER, MD simulations reveal that the bulky-CN substituents in the CH$_3$-

left conformation of **Int. C** forms a stable hydrogen bond with Tyr180 in SYE2, which

positions bulky-CN away from FMNH$^\bullet$ and facilitates the subsequent HAT process, that

is favor of generating (*R*)-**3a** (Supplementary Fig. 26). Indeed, our calculations suggest

that the HAT process in SYE2 involves a barrier of 17.2 kcal/mol in the CH$_3$-left

conformation and 22.0 kcal/mol in the CH$_3$-right conformation, leading to the dominant

formation of (*R*)-**3a** that agrees with experiments (Supplementary Fig. 26 and Fig. 27).

Furthermore, the newly formed FI$^{-\bullet}$ could reduce FMN$_{ox}$ to FMN$_{sq}$ and release the

initial ground state FI. DFT calculations show that FI$^{-\bullet}$ has the lowest redox potential

among all functional photocatalysts (PC1, PC2, PC5, FI, PC10, and PC12), making it

highly prone to transfer an electron to FMN$_{ox}$ to form FMN$_{sq}$ (Supplementary Fig. 16).

This suggests that ET between FMN$_{ox}$ and FI$^{-\bullet}$ enhances the whole catalytic process,

explaining why FI is the most effective among all tested photocatalysts.

Fig. 4 | Mechanistic studies. a. SET from the excited FI* to **Int. A**. **b**, The radical addition reaction between **Int. B** and **2a**. **c**, QM/MM-calculated energy of the HAT process from FMNH• to the **Int. C** (CH$_3$-right) result in the production of S-(**3a**). **d**, QM/MM-calculated energy of the HAT process from FMNH• to the **Int. C** (CH$_3$-left) result in the production of R-(**3a**).

Conclusions

In summary, we have developed a synergistic photoenzymatic system for the enantioselective functionalization of electron-deficient C(sp^3)-H bonds through radical intermediates generated by photoinduced single-electron oxidation of carbanions. This

enantiodivergent strategy, demonstrated in 17 cases with enantiomeric ratios up to >1:99 and yields of up to 83%, offers potential for the one-step construction of dicyano and diester compounds with remote stereocenters. Detailed mechanistic experiments confirmed that the excited-state photocatalyst FI^* performs single-electron oxidation of carbanion rather than directly oxidizing the electron-deficient malononitrile **1a** to generate free radical intermediates. Unlike previous photoenzymatic systems, the ET between the additional photocatalyst FI and FMN_{ox} ensures catalytic cycle's smooth operation. This novel mode of photoenzymatic catalysis is expected to inspire new strategies for forming free radical intermediates and enabling new-to-nature biotransformation.

Methods

General procedure for photoenzymatic reactions

Taking **1a** + **2a** → **3a** as an example, in a glovebox (O_2 concentration <5 ppm), , solutions of ene-reductase (1 mol%), FI (10 μL, 2 mM stock in EtOH, 5 mol%), and substrates mix (20 μL, 400 mM **1a** and 200 mM **2a** in EtOH) were added to a 4 mL vial containing a magnetic stir bar and Tris buffer (50 mM, pH 9). The total volume of the reaction mixture was 400 μL and the final concentrations for EtOH was 7.5%. The vial was sealed with a screw cap, removed from the glove box, illuminated with blue LEDs, and stirred for 12 h with a cooling fan (see Supplementary Fig. 3 for reaction setup). For the reaction where the yield was determined by gas chromatography (GC), EtOAc (1.0 mL) and 10.0 μL of an internal standard stock (20 mg/mL of n-dodecane in EtOAc)

were added to the reaction mixture and mixed thoroughly. For the reaction where the

yield was determined by reverse phase HPLC, MeCN (1.0 mL) and 10.0 μL of an

internal standard stock (16.8 mg/mL of 1,3,5-trimethoxybenzene in MeCN) were added

to the reaction mixture and mixed thoroughly. The organic phase was separated and

then analyzed by GC (or reverse phase HPLC), GC-MS and chiral HPLC. Product

formation was confirmed by comparing retention times in GC/HPLC, as well as mass

spectra and ^{1}H-NMR spectra of the crude material with those of the reference. Yield

determined by GC was relative to the n-dodecane internal standard, while yield

determined by reverse phase HPLC was relative to the 1,3,5-trimethoxybenzene

internal standard. Enantioselectivity was determined by chiral HPLC.

System setup and MD simulations

The initial wild-type structure of GluER, was constructed based on the crystal structure

(PDB code: 6O08). The SYE2 enzyme structure was modeled using AlphaFold2, and

the position of FMN was confirmed by superimposing it with the GluER enzyme. Then,

the **Int. C** and FI were docked into the active sites using AutoDock Vina tool. 100 ns

MD simulations under the NPT ensemble. All MD simulations were performed with

GPU version of Amber 18 package.

QM/MM calculations for enzymatic reactions

A representative snapshot extracted from the clustering results in the MD trajectory was

used for subsequent QM/MM calculations. All QM/MM calculations were performed

using ChemShell combining Turbomole for the QM region and DL_POLY for the MM

region. The electronic embedding scheme was used to account for the polarizing effect

of the enzyme environment on the QM region.In all QM/MM geometry optimizations,

the QM region was treated with the B3LYP functional using the double-zeta basis set

def2-SVP for all atoms (labeled as B1). The energies were further corrected with the

larger basis set def2-TZVP for all atoms (labeled as B2). Grimme's D3BJ empirical

dispersion was included in all calculations.

DFT Calculations

All DFT calculations were performed with the Gaussian 16, Revision A.03 software.

The initial structures were first optimized in conjunction with the SMD continuum

solvation model at the B3LYP-D3/6-31G(d) level of theory. The solvation energies

were further calculated at the M052X/6-31G* for all atoms. In particular, the solvent of

water was used to simulate the reaction system.

TDDFT Calculations

The initial structures were first optimized at B3LYP/6-31G(d) level. Then, the single-

point TDDFT calculations at wB97XD/6-311+G(d,p) levels were performed to

compute the three low-lying singlet excited states. All TDDFT calculations were

performed with Gaussian 16, Revision A.03.

Reporting summary

Further information on research design is available in the Nature Portfolio Reporting

Summary linked to this article.

Data availability

Data relating to the materials and methods, experimental procedures, mechanistic

studies and computational calculations, HPLC spectra, and NMR spectra are available

in the Supplementary Information or from the authors on reasonable request. The

atomic coordinates of the optimized computational models are available in the

Supplementary Data.

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Author contributions

J.Z. and Y.W. conceived and designed the overall project. J.Z. performed all synthetic

experiments and wet mechanism experiments. T.G., X.L., and M.-Z.M. created

mutations. Q.Z., and X.W. carried out the computational studies and the calculation of

absolute configuration (ECD) under the supervision of B.W. B.C. completed the

calculation of redox potentials and Gibbs reaction energy (ΔG) for SET of Int. A. M.-

J.M. performed the purification of some GluER variants. J.Z., B.W., and Y.W. wrote the

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Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.