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Real-time oxygen sensing as a powerful tool to investigate tyrosinase kinetics allows revising mechanism and activity of inhibition by glabridin

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- Real-time oxygen sensing as a powerful tool to investigate tyrosinase kinetics
 allows revising mechanism and activity of inhibition by glabridin
- 3 Yafang Guo,^a Alice Cariola,^a Riccardo Matera,^b Simone Gabbanini,^b & Luca Valgimigli^{*,a}
- 4 ^a University of Bologna, Department of Chemistry "G. Ciamician", Via S. Giacomo 1, 40126
- 5 Bologna, Italy
- 6 ^b BeC s.r.l., R&D Division, Via C. Monteverdi 49, 47122 Forlì, Italy
- 7 * to whom correspondence should be addressed. Tel. +390512095683
- 8 E-mail: <u>luca.valgimigli@unibo.it</u>
- 9 Y. G. <u>yafang.guo@unibo.it;</u> A.C. <u>alice.cariola2@unibo.it;</u> R.M. <u>ricerca@bec-natura.com;</u> S.G.
- 10 <u>laboratorio@bec-natura.com</u>

11 Abstract

A new method for studying tyrosinase kinetics and inhibition by oxygen sensing is described and 12 13 matched to the conventional spectrophotometric approach. The stoichiometric ratio of O₂ uptake to dopachrome formation was 1.5±0.2 for substrate L-tyrosine and 1.0±0.1 for L-DOPA. With both 14 methods, we reinvestigated mushroom tyrosinase inhibition by glabridin from *Glycyrrhiza glabra*. 15 The two methods agreed showing mixed-type inhibition for monophenolase and diphenolase 16 17 activities, at variance with previous literature. Average K_{I} (K_{SI}) values for glabridin were 13.6±3.5 (281±89) nM and 57±8 (1312±550) nM, for monophenolase and diphenolase inhibition, respectively, 18 with IC₅₀ of 80±8 nM and 294±25 nM, respectively, at 1 mM substrate. For reference kojic acid K_I 19 20 (K_{SI}) were 10.9±8 (217±55) μ M and 9.9±1.4 (21.0±5.2) μ M, for monophenolase and diphenolase, respectively, with respective IC₅₀ of 33 ± 8 µM and 17 ± 3 µM. Glabridin's activity is among the highest 21 in nature, being about three orders of magnitude higher than previously reported. 22 23

- 24 **Keywords:** glabridin, kojic acid, mushroom tyrosinase, inhibition kinetics, oximetry.
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- 28
- 29 Products investigated in this study:
- 30 Mushroom Tyrosinase (EC 1.14.18.1), CAS: 9002-10-2
- 31 Glabridin, CAS: 59870-68-7 (PubChem CID: 124052)
- 32 Kojic acid, CAS: 501-30-4; (PubChem CID: 3840)

1. Introduction

Melanin is a group of organic pigments widely distributed in different kingdoms, from bacteria 35 to fungi, to plants and animals, including humans (d'Ischia et al., 2015). It is biosynthesized from the 36 oxidation and polymerization of phenolic precursors, mainly by the action of tyrosinase (TY) enzyme. 37 Melanins, particularly Eumelanins, have important biological functions and properties, which are still 38 39 the object of extensive research, most notably: photo-protection, protection from ionizing radiations, neuroprotection and antioxidant (d'Ischia et al., 2015; Guo et al., 2021). Their multiple properties 40 41 justify the major interest melanins are receiving for the development of novel bioinspired materials 42 (d'Ischia, Napolitano, Pezzella, Meredith & Buehler, 2020; Manini et al. 2019), including applications 43 in food technology (Roy & Rhim, 2021).

Besides, inhibition of melanin biosynthesis also has distinct importance. Human skin
hyperpigmentation, melasma and photo-induced dyschromia are consequences of dysregulated
melanin biosynthesis (Nicolaidou & Katsambas, 2014). Therefore, inhibition of biosynthesis has been
a long-term goal in biomedical and cosmetic science (Panzella & Napolitano, 2019).

Although formed from different phenolic precursors as compared to skin melanin, production 48 of melanin-type pigments in food gives rise to a dark color (enzymatic browning), accompanied by 49 other deterioration processes such as changes of flavor, unpleasant odor and loss of nutritional value, 50 especially during postharvest processing and storage of vegetables and fruits (Moon, Kwon, Lee & 51 52 Kim, 2020). Since the level of melanin is mainly regulated by tyrosinase activity, its inhibition has become a prominent strategy in food preservation (Martínez-Alvarez Lopez-Caballero, Montero & 53 del Carmen Gomez-Guillen, 2020; Song, Ni, Zhang, Zhang, Pan & Gong, 2021; Yu & Fan, 2021; 54 55 Shao et al., 2018), paralleling the importance of inhibiting autoxidation and microbial spoilage (Moon, et al., 2020). 56

57 Tyrosinase (EC 1.14.18.1), a polyphenol oxidase (PPO), is ubiquitous (Nawaz et al., 2017) and 58 has a highly-conserved type III copper center in the active site (Olivares & Solano, 2009). It is 59 involved in two consecutive yet different oxidative catalytic cycles: the *ortho*-hydroxylation of

60 monophenols (e.g. L-tyrosine) by oxygen to o-diphenols (monophenolase reaction) and the oxidation of o-diphenols (e.g. L-DOPA) by oxygen to o-quinones (diphenolase activity) (Mondal, Thampi & 61 Puranik, 2018). Quinones then undergo further spontaneous reactions leading to melanin (Figure 1). 62 Tyrosinase inhibitors are most often assayed spectrophotometrically, using well established and 63 convenient mushroom tyrosinase (mTY) (Shao et al. 2018), which is incubated with L-tyrosine or L-64 DOPA as the natural substrates to selectively monitor, respectively, monophenolase or diphenolase 65 reaction. Both reactions are monitored from the growth in absorbance at 475 nm due to the subsequent 66 spontaneous formation of colored dopachrome (DC), as schematized in Figure 1. Although the 67 method is very well established and convenient, it is not free from errors. For instance, it relies on the 68 69 detection of a late product. Additionally, other molecules (e.g. when testing extracts as inhibitors) 70 could absorb at 475 nm or be transformed to afford colored intermediates that might interfere with the spectrophotometric reading (Mayr et al., 2019). Since oxygen is an obliged reactant in both 71 72 monophenolase and diphenolase cycles and its total consumption is stoichiometrically related to the 73 total formation of products (Naish-Byfield & Riley, 1992), we set to develop a method of real-time monitoring of the kinetics of oxygen consumption during tyrosinase reaction, by means of a 74 75 miniaturized sensor based on near infrared (NIR) fluorescence quenching. The approach steps from 76 the extensive experience of our group in monitoring the kinetics of oxygen uptake in oxidative radical 77 reactions (Guo, Baschieri, Amorati & Valgimigli, 2021; Haidasz et al., 2016). Our hypothesis was that it would well match with the conventional spectrophotometric monitoring of dopachrome 78 formation and afford a convenient and highly reliable combined method to investigate tyrosinase 79 80 kinetics and inhibition.

To date, a large number of compounds with tyrosinase inhibition activity, of synthetic or natural origin, have been discovered (Zolghadri, et al, 2019); among them, certainly glabridin stands out. Originally extracted from licorice roots (*Glycyrrhiza glabra*, L.) it was the first *G. glabra* phytochemical with confirmed anti-tyrosinase activity, and the most potent (Nerya, Vaya, Musa, Izrael, Ben-Arie, & Tamir, 2003). It was later found also in other botanical sources, and reported as

one of the most active natural mTY inhibitors, with 15-folds higher activity than kojic acid 86 87 (Yamauchi, Mitsunaga & Batubara, 2011), more effective than resveratrol and oxyresveratrol (Wang et al., 2018). Owing to its potency glabridin has been taken as drug lead to develop novel synthetic 88 inhibitors (Jirawattanapong, Saifah, & Patarapanich, 2009), while pharmaceutical/food-grade licorice 89 90 extracts standardized in glabridin (e.g. 40%) have become commercially available (Tamura, 2017). Nonetheless, the literature on its actual activity is quite confusing: IC_{50} values of 5.25, 2.93, 0.77 and 91 0.09 µM have been reported for inhibition of mTY with substrate L-tyrosine (Nerya et al, 2003; 92 Yamauchi et al., 2011; Kim, Seo, Lee, Lee, 2005; Li, Li, Zhu, Lai, & Wu, 2021), spanning about two 93 94 orders of magnitude. There is only one complete kinetic study addressing the mechanism of mTY inhibition, which was reported as noncompetitive both for monophenolase and diphenolase reactions, 95 with Michaelis-Menten (M-M) inhibition constants K_1 of 0.38 mM and 0.81 mM, respectively (Nerva 96 et al, 2003). These surprisingly high values are at odds with the reported IC₅₀ values, and with the 97 98 much lower K_{I} values available for reportedly less effective inhibitors like kojic acid (K_{I} in the range 99 18-23 µM for monophenolase activity) (Kim, Yun, Lee, Lee, Min & Kim, 2002) - it should be 100 recalled that lower values indicate higher activity. Therefore, our hypothesis was that glabridin's activity would require revision. 101

Given its importance, we re-investigated the activity of glabridin on mTY as a test-bench for our new oxygen uptake kinetic approach, using kojic acid as reference inhibitor. Hence, the scope of our study was first to set-up and validate our novel kinetic approach and, second, to afford revised mechanism and kinetics for glabridin, as a key reference for future studies and applications.

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<Figure 1 about here>

2. Materials and methods

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108 2.1 Materials
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Glabridin (≥98%), L-tyrosine (≥98%), L-DOPA (3,4-dihydroxy-L-phenylalanine; ≥98%), kojic acid
(5-Hydroxy-2-hydroxymethyl-4H-4-pyranone; ≥ 98.5%), water, acetonitrile and methanol (HPLC)

grade) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Milan, Italy). Commercial mushroom tyrosinase (EC 111 1.14.18.1, activity = 3130 units/mg) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and used without further 112 purification. Fresh solutions were prepared twice a week in potassium phosphate buffer solution (50 113 mM, pH 6.8) and stored in small aliquots at -20°C for daily use. Given the difficulty to maintain the 114 enzyme activity, tyrosinase activity was analysed spectrophotometrically every day during the 115 experimental period, in order to adjust solutions to fixed tyrosinase Sigma units for consistent results. 116 Briefly, one Sigma unit corresponds to the amount that will cause an increase in absorbance at 280 117 nm of 0.001 per minute at pH 6.8 in a 3 mL reaction mixture containing L-tyrosine. Sigma units were 118 used throughout this study. One Sigma unit corresponds to 1.65×10^{-4} international units (I.U.) for 119 monophenolase activity and to 2.24×10^{-2} I.U. for diphenolase activity, as defined by Fenoll et al. 120 121 (2002). All other reagents were analytical grade from Sigma-Aldrich-Fluka, Merck (Milan, Italy).

122 2.2 Kinetics studies by UV-vis spectrophotometry

Kinetic evaluation of monophenolase and diphenolase reaction of tyrosinase with or without 123 inhibitor was carried out using UV-Vis spectrophotometry similarly to previous methods (Song et al., 124 125 2021; Chang et al., 2007), with modifications. Measurements were performed at 30°C in a Thermo Scientific (Milan, Italy) Biomate 5, equipped with a multi-cell changer coupled with a Heto DBT 126 Hetotherm (Birkerød, Denmark) thermostatting water circulator for temperature control. The samples 127 were analyzed in polystyrene low-volume cuvettes (1.5 mL, l = 1 cm, $12.5 \times 12.5 \times 45$ mm). 128 Absorbance of dopachrome was measured at 475 nm for a time-period of 20 to 60 min (1 scan / 55s) 129 reading the solution against a reference cuvette containing all reaction components except the 130 substrate, which was replaced with potassium phosphate buffer (50 mM, pH 6.8). Absorbance 131 variation vs time at different substrate concentration allowed to obtain initial velocity (V = $\Delta A / \Delta min$) 132 which was converted in μ M/min according to Lambert-Beer law as follows: V (μ M/min) = V 133 $(\Delta A/\Delta min) \times 10^6 / \varepsilon_{\lambda max} \times l$. The molar extinction coefficient (ε) for dopachrome at $\lambda_{max} = 475$ nm is 134 3700 M^{-1} cm⁻¹. Michaelis-Menten parameters ($K_m e V_{max}$) were obtained by processing initial velocity 135

136 *vs* substrate concentration data by nonlinear fitting to M-M equation (1), using Sigmaplot 11.0 (Systat 137 Software Inc., San Jose, California). Linearized Lineweaver-Burk equation (2) was instead used to 138 help identify the inhibition mode (Copeland, 2000). In both equations, *V* indicates the measured initial 139 rate of reaction (*vide supra*), [*S*] is the initial substrate concentration, while V_{max} and K_m are 140 respectively the maximum reaction rate (at saturating substrate concentration) and the M-M constant 141 (the substrate concentration yielding half-maximum reaction rate).

142
$$V = \frac{V_{max}[S]}{\kappa_m + [S]}$$
 (1)

143
$$\frac{1}{V} = \frac{K_m}{V_{max} [S]} + \frac{1}{V_{max}}$$
 (2)

The effect of inhibitors on enzyme reaction was evaluated at fixed tyrosinase units (3.85 U/mL
for L-DOPA, 7.70 U/ml for L-tyrosine) and varying substrate concentrations (6-7 levels of L-DOPA
and L-tyrosine, from 0 to 1.2 mM and 0 to 1.0 mM respectively), testing reactions without and with
glabridin (0 to 300 nM for diphenolase; 0 to 50 nM for monophenolase) or kojic acid (0 to 100 μM).

148 2.3 Kinetics studies by oximetry

149 Evaluation of tyrosinase monophenolase and diphenolase kinetics and inhibition by glabridin or kojic acid was carried out by monitoring the oxygen consumption, at 30°C, by a NIR (760-790 nm) 150 fluorescence oxygen sensor contained in a stainless-steel needle, connected to a FireSting-O2 (2 151 channels, FSO2-2) meter via an optical fiber (Pyrosience GmbH, Bremen, Germany). The samples 152 were contained in 2.4 mL glass flasks, which were hand-made by a local scientific glass blower, 153 provided with a PTFE coated stirring bar, immersed in a water bath controlled by Heto DBT 154 155 Hetotherm (Birkerød, Denmark) thermosetting unit, and equipped with a submersed sealed magnetic stirrer MixDrive 1 XS + Mix Control (2mag AG, Munchen, Germany). The equipment set-up is 156 illustrated in the Appendix. The oxygen consumption was recorded every second, and all reaction 157 components, except the inhibitor concentration, were maintained identical to those set for UV-vis 158 spectrophotometry. The raw data collected directly from the oxygen sensor is a percentage (P) of the 159

saturating oxygen concentration in the sample, corresponding to 0.236 mM at 30°C which reflects in 160 161 the sensor reading as 20% (P₀). Thus, the oxygen concentration during the time course of the enzymatic oxidation of L-DOPA or L-tyrosine were converted into mM by the following equation: 162 $[O_2]$ (mM) = P × 0.236 (mM) / 20%. The initial rate of oxygen consumption was obtained by 163 regression of the initial data range of oxygen consumption (ΔP) vs time (in seconds), as illustrated in 164 representative Fig. S3 and Fig. S4 (see Appendix), and they were converted by equation: V (µM/min) 165 = V ($\Delta P/\Delta t$) × 0.236 × 10³ × 60 / P₀ (see Appendix, Table. S1), which were used for further analysis 166 by non-linear fitting to Michaelis-Menten kinetics (eq. 1). In order to match the kinetic of oxygen 167 consumption and that of dopachrome formation assessed spectrophotometrically (see paragraph 2.2), 168 169 the uninhibited reaction was monitored at different activity of the enzyme (1-25 U/mL) and fixed concentration of substrate (1.6 mM for both L-DOPA and L-tyrosine), or at fixed activity of the 170 enzyme (7.70 U/mL or 3.85 U/mL) and variable concentration of substrate, in matched experiments, 171 172 comparing the initial rates of dopachrome formation and oxygen consumption at 30°C.

173 *2.4 Analysis of glabridin as a substrate of mushroom tyrosinase*

To verify whether glabridin is a substrate of mTY, beside being an inhibitor, we performed a variant of the assay described by Mayr et al. (2019). Mushroom tyrosinase (mTY, 7.70 U/mL) was incubated in phosphate buffer (pH 6.8) at 30°C with glabridin 200 nM and 1 mM in the absence of other substrates, and the reaction was monitored either spectrophotometrically (full scan 200-600 nm) or by the oxygen sensor over 1 hour, to record any sign of reaction.

179 *2.5 Statistical analysis*

Each measurement was performed in triplicate. Values of V_{max} and V_{max}^{app} , and of K_m and K_m^{app} in the absence and presence of inhibitors were determined from non-linear regression of M-M plots based on 5 to 7 concentrations of the substrate, which were analysed by Shapiro-Wilk Test with significance set at P \leq 0.05. Results are expressed as regression value \pm standard error.

3. Results and Discussion

185

3.1 Parallel monitoring of the tyrosinase reaction by oximetry and spectrophotometry

186 In order to study monophenolase and diphenolase activities of mTY, L-tyrosine or L-DOPA were used as substrate, respectively, following the o-hydroxylation of L-tyrosine to L-DOPA and its further 187 oxidation to o-dopaquinone, or just the second step, taking advantage of the higher rate of the 188 189 diphenolase reaction, which renders L-tyrosine hydroxylation rate-limiting when using it as the 190 substrate. The reaction was first monitored spectrophotometrically following the formation of dopachrome (DC) at 475 nm at 30°C, according to the most established practice (Song et al, 2021; 191 192 Shao et al., 2018). Measurements performed at fixed concentration of mTY and variable concentration of substrate afforded the typical sigmoidal kinetic profile, with an initial lag time when 193 the substrate was L-tyrosine. Plotting the initial rate of DC formation versus the substrate 194 concentration showed good M-M behavior (Figure 2A, C). Since tyrosinase activity is essentially an 195 oxidation process operated by oxygen, where oxygen is directly involved into the production of late 196 197 product DC, we set to improve the reliability of spectrophotometric measurements by parallel oximetry studies. In matched experiments performed in closed vials, we monitored the oxygen 198 199 concentration as a function of time during the reaction progress, using a miniaturized oxygen sensor 200 based on NIR fluorescence quenching (see Appendix for instrumental settings). Results are compared to those obtained by spectrophotometry in Figure 2 (plots B and D). It can be noted that the kinetic 201 profile of oxygen consumption also follows the typical M-M behavior, being complementary to the 202 203 formation of dopachrome and suggesting that both methods are suited to monitor the reaction kinetics.

204

<Figure 2 about here>

This result was expected, since oxygen is the obliged oxidant in both cycles and it can be kinetically regarded as a substrate of tyrosinase (Fenoll et al., 2001). Our result also well matches the pioneering work by Naish-Byfield & Riley (1992) showing Michaelis-Menten kinetic profiles of oxygen consumption (monitored electrochemically) during the oxidation of 4-hydroxyanisol by mTY, and by Rodriguez-López et al. (Rodriguez-López, Ros-Martínez, Varón & García-Cánovas,
1992) who showed complementarity between oxygen consumption (monitored electrochemically)
and product accumulation during the mTY oxidation of *tert*-butylcatechol.

212

213 *3.2 Correlation of the stoichiometry of oxygen consumption to dopachrome formation*

The stoichiometric ratios of oxygen consumption to dopachrome accumulation during mTY reaction for substrates L-tyrosine and L-DOPA were previously investigated, respectively, by Naish-Byfield & Riley (1992) and by Rodriguez-López et al. (1992) by electrochemical analysis (Clark electrode) of oxygen in the reaction mixture.

In our study, the stoichiometric ratio was determined from comparison of the initial rates of O₂ 218 219 consumption to that of DC formation, for both substrates L-tyrosine and L-DOPA, in matched kinetic experiments with the two methods (Figure 3). We judged this approach more accurate than measuring 220 the total oxygen consumption and product formation at the end of the reaction, since the further 221 222 spontaneous transformation of DC (on the way to melanin) might influence the apparent DC absorbance at the later stages of enzyme reaction. Our results were in full agreement with previous 223 findings that the stoichiometry of oxygen consumption depends on the substrate, being 1 mol O_2 : 1 224 225 mol of DC when the substrate is L-DOPA, and 1.5 mol of O₂ : 1 mol of DC when the substrate of Ltyrosine (Naish-Byfield & Riley, 1992; Rodriguez-López et al., 1992). 226

This result agrees with the notation that 0.5 mol of O_2 is consumed to hydroxylate L-tyrosine to L-DOPA and another 0.5 mol of O_2 is needed to oxidize L-DOPA to dopaquinone. However, subsequent spontaneous cyclization forms cyclodopa (leukodopachrome) that is oxidized to dopachrome by rapid redox reaction with dopaquinone (Mondal et al., 2018), which is reduced back to L-DOPA. This last consumes another 0.5 mol of O_2 to be oxidized again to DOPAquinone (Naish-Byfield & Riley,1992; Rodriguez-López et al.,1992), as depicted in Figure 1.

Since it was reported that (for other substrates) the stoichiometry of oxygen consumption can 233 vary with the experimental conditions, particularly with the concentration of enzyme and substrate 234 (Peñalver, Hiner, Rodriguez-López, Garcia-Canovas, & Tudela, 2002), we extended our correlation 235 of the initial rates of reaction to a broad range of enzyme and substrate concentrations, by performing 236 series of experiments at fixed substrate and variable enzyme activity and at fixed enzyme activity and 237 variable substrate concertation, using both L-DOPA alone and L-tyrosine alone as the substrate. 238 239 Results are summarized in Figure 3(C-F), and confirm that the stoichiometric ratio of oxygen consumption / dopachrome formation was 1.0 ± 0.1 and 1.5 ± 0.2 (O₂ to DC) for substrate L-DOPA and 240 L-tyrosine, respectively, over the whole range of experimental settings. 241

242

<Figure 3 about here>

This result agrees with previous studies with L-tyrosine and L-DOPA (Naish-Byfield & Riley,1992; Rodriguez-López et al.,1992), but is at variance with a study in which *tert*-butylphenol (TBP) and *tert*-butylcatechol (TBC) where used, respectively, to assess oxygen consumption during monophenolase and diphenolase reaction, showing a variation of O₂/product stoichiometric ratio for very low substrate/enzyme concentration ratio (Peñalver et al., 2002). The different outcome is possibly due to the higher stability in solution of the products formed from TBP/TBC, as previously discussed in detail (Peñalver et al., 2002).

250

251 *3.3 Validation of oxygen consumption kinetics on uninhibited activity of mTY*

Upon establishing the actual stoichiometric ratio of oxygen consumption and dopachrome formation, the kinetic measurements performed by the two approaches could be compared on quantitative grounds. The initial rates of the reaction were analysed according to Michaelis-Menten equation and the K_m and V_{max} values for the monophenolase and diphenolase activity were obtained by non-linear regressions. For reaction with substrate L-tyrosine (monophenolase) K_m measured by 257 spectrophotometry and by O_2 sensing was 0.18 ± 0.01 mM and 0.17 ± 0.02 mM, respectively, while V_{max} was 9.01±0.12 µM/min and 8.45±0.62 µM/min, respectively. Instead, for substrate L-DOPA 258 (diphenolase) $K_{\rm m}$ from spectrophotometry and O₂ sensing was 0.26±0.02 mM and 0.24±0.02 mM, 259 respectively, while V_{max} was 25.80±0.53 µM/min and 24.18±0.96 µM/min, respectively (results are 260 collected in Table S2 in Appendix). It can be noted that the two kinetic approaches afford results in 261 excellent agreement, being identical within experimental error. Our data also match well with 262 previous literature, e.g. Ros et al. (Ros, Rodríguez-López, García-Cánovas, 1994) reported $K_{\rm m}$ of 263 0.168 mM and 0.272 mM respectively for monophenolase and diphenolase reaction, while Fenoll et 264 al. (2001), in a very detailed study, reported K_m as 0.25 mM and 0.28 mM for the two reactions. This 265 provides good validation of our real-time oxygen consumption approach to investigate tyrosinase 266 267 kinetics.

268

269 *3.4 Inhibition kinetics by Glabridin and Kojic Acid*

Glabridin is claimed one of the most effective natural inhibitors of tyrosinase, but there is major 270 271 uncertainty on its actual activity on quantitative grounds, in spite of its role as reference compound, 272 as previously illustrated. Given its importance, we investigated its kinetic of inhibition addressing 273 both monophenolase and diphenolase activities, by both methods (spectrophotometry and oxygen uptake) in matched studies. Results are summarized in Figure 4, in which non-linear fittings of M-M 274 275 plots were used for quantitative analysis, while linear Lineweaver-Burk plots helped identify the mechanism. This choice aimed at increasing the accuracy, since obtaining V_{max} (and K_m) directly from 276 277 the intercept in Lineweaver-Burk plots is subject to higher intrinsic error (Copeland, 2000).

278

<Figure 4 about here>

Literature on the activity profile of this molecule indicates a noncompetitive inhibitory mechanism (Nerya et al., 2003; Chen, Yu & Huang, 2016).), which implies that glabridin is capable of binding with the same affinity both the free enzyme (E) and the complex enzyme-substrate (ES). A kinetic consequence of this type of inhibition is that the apparent maximum reaction rate V_{max}

should decrease with the concentration of the inhibitor, while the apparent M-M constant $K_{\rm m}$ should 283 remain unchanged (Copeland, 2000). However, both spectrophotometry and oximetry did not show 284 noncompetitive but nearly competitive inhibition, as it can be judged from Lineweaver-Burk plots 285 (eq. 2) in Figure 4 (C, D, G, H). In such plots the intercept on the Y-axis (= $1/V_{max}$) is nearly constant 286 in the absence of the inhibitor or with different concentrations of glabridin, which implies that V_{max} 287 does not depend on the concentration of glabridin, as it is expected for a competitive inhibitor. On 288 the contrary, noncompetitive inhibitors should show an intercept on the Y-axis which increases with 289 the concentration of the inhibitor. Additionally, the intercept on the X-axis (= $-1/K_m$) becomes less 290 negative on increasing the concentration of glabridin, meaning that $K_{\rm m}$ is increasing, which is typical 291 292 of competitive inhibitors.

293 The activity of a competitive inhibitor is best quantified by the M-M derived inhibition constant $K_{\rm I}$, which represents the dissociation constant of the Enzyme-Inhibitor (EI) complex (eq 1), hence the 294 smaller the value the higher the inhibition. Since a closer inspection of Lineweaver-Burk plots shows 295 some minor variation of V_{max} particularly in oxygen uptake plots (Figure 4 G, H), to a first judgment, 296 inhibition by glabridin was considered of mixed-type. Mixed-type inhibitors interfere with both the 297 free enzyme and enzyme-substrate (ES) complex, with two (different) dissociation constants K_{I} and 298 $K_{\rm SI}$ (eqs 3, 4), the first relating to the inhibitor bonded to the free enzyme and the other indicating the 299 300 inhibitor bonded to the ES complex. Noncompetitive inhibitors would show $K_{I} = K_{SI}$.

$$K_I = \frac{[E][I]}{[EI]}$$
(3)

303 To determine K_{I} and K_{SI} for a mixed-type inhibition from M-M kinetic treatment, it is useful to 304 introduce the parameters α and an α' , which are given as follows:

$$305 \qquad \alpha = \frac{\kappa_m^{app}}{\kappa_m} \alpha' \tag{5}$$

$$306 \qquad \alpha' = \frac{V_{max}}{V_{max}^{app}} \tag{6}$$

Here $K_{\rm m}$ and $K_{\rm m}^{\rm app}$ are respectively the M-M constant (substrate concentration giving halfmaximum rate) in the absence and in the presence of the inhibitor, and $V_{\rm max}$ and $V_{\rm max}^{\rm app}$ are respectively the maximum rate measured in the absence and in the presence of the inhibitor. $K_{\rm I}$ and $K_{\rm SI}$ values were then obtained from eqs. 7 and 8 at each concentration of the inhibitor [I].

311
$$\alpha = 1 + \left(\frac{[I]}{K_I}\right) \tag{7}$$

312
$$\alpha' = 1 + \left(\frac{[I]}{K_{SI}}\right)$$
(8)

The kinetics parameters determined for inhibition by glabridin (from data in figure 4), both with L-tyrosine and L-DOPA, by monitoring both DC formation and O₂ uptake, are listed in Table 1.

Table 1. Kinetic parameters of tyrosinase activity inhibition by glabridin at 30° C (pH = 6.8).

316 Kinetic data were obtained by non-linear fitting of M-M plots at different glabridin concentrations.^a

	Dopa	chrome (DC) formation	Oxyg	average					
[Glabrindin] (nM)	0	90	180	300	0	80	200			
$V_{\rm max}$ or $V_{\rm max}$ app	25.80	24.81	22.74	20.04	24.18	22.50	19.66			
(µM/min)	±1.53	±1.14	±2.52	± 4.32	±0.96	± 1.32	±1.26			
$K_{\rm m}$ or $K_{\rm m}^{\rm app}$ (mM)	0.26	0.67	1.08	1.31	0.21	0.47	0.66			
	±0.02	± 0.06	±0.02	±0.46	±0.02	± 0.08	±0.05			
$\alpha = (K_{\rm m}^{\rm app} \times \alpha') / K_{\rm m}$		2.63	4.79	6.65		2.34	3.87			
$\alpha' = V_{\rm max} / V_{\rm max}{}^{\rm app}$		1.04	1.13	1.29		1.08	1.23			
$K_{\rm I} = [{\rm I}]/(\alpha - 1)$		55.21	47.54	53.10		59.86	69.68	57.08		
(nM)								±8.32		
$K_{SI'}=[I]/(\alpha'-1)$		2250.40	1337.72	1034.48		1071.42	869.57	1312.72		
(nM)								±550.43		

A. Kinetic parameters of tyrosinase diphenolase activity inhibition	by glabridin.
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	Dopa	chrome (DC) formation	Oxyg	average			
[Glabrindin] (nM)	0	15	37	50	0	20	40	
$V_{\rm max}$ or $V_{\rm max}{}^{\rm app}$	9.00	8.26	7.80	7.56	8.4	7.92	7.62	
$(\mu M/min)$	±0.12	±0.60	±0.24	±1.20	±0.06	±1.20	±1.38	
$K_{\rm m}$ or $K_{\rm m}^{\rm app}$ (mM)	0.18	0.29	0.61	0.97	0.17	0.39	0.65	
	±0.01	±0.04	±0.03	±0.20	±0.02	±0.06	± 0.08	
$\alpha = (K_{\rm m}^{\rm app} \times \alpha')/K_{\rm m}$	-	1.78	3.86	6.25		2.43	4.21	
$\alpha' = V_{\max} / V_{\max}^{app}$		1.09	1.15	1.19		1.06	1.10	
$K_{\rm I}$ = [I]/(α -1)		19.23	12.95	9.53		13.99	12.46	13.63
(nM)								±3.54
$K_{SI'} = [I]/(\alpha'-1)$		166.67	239.81	267.42		333.34	400.30	281.51
(nM)								±89.34

B. Kinetic parameters of tyrosinase monophenolase activity inhibition by glabridin.

^a V_{max} or $V_{\text{max}}^{\text{app}}$ refer to not inhibited and inhibited assays, respectively, and K_{m} or $K_{\text{m}}^{\text{app}}$ refer to not inhibited and inhibited assays, respectively. Data were obtained both by UV-vis 318 spectrophotometry and by oximetry. V_{max} or V_{max}^{app} were calibrated by using the stoichiometry ratio 319 of 1.5 for O₂/DC with substrate L-tyrosine and of 1.0 for O₂/DC with substrate L-DOPA. 320

321

Glabridin shows very potent activity in inhibiting both monophenolase and diphenolase reactions 322 already at nanomolar concentration. Notably, spectrophotometry and oximetry afford results in 323 excellent agreement, despite the major difference between the techniques. Both show only minor 324 variation of V_{max} in the presence of the inhibitor, which becomes noticeable only at the highest 325 326 concentrations, while K_m grows significantly with glabridin's concentration. This provides confirmation of the proposed mechanism (vide supra). Given the excellent agreement between results 327 from spectrophotometry and oximetry, the two sets of data were combined. Concerning the 328 329 mechanism of inhibition, it is also interesting to note that K_{SI} , quantifying the inhibition based on

interaction of glabridin (I) with the ES complex, is on average over 20-folds larger than K_I, describing 330 the competitive inhibition (interaction of I with E), both for monophenolase and diphenolase activity. 331 This roughly indicates that less than 5% the inhibition by glabridin is due to binding to ES *i.e.* to 332 uncompetitive behavior. For most of its activity glabridin competes with substrate (L-tyrosine or L-333 DOPA) for the enzyme's active site in a classical competitive mode with $K_{\rm I}$ values of 13.63±3.54 nM 334 and 57.08±8.32 nM, respectively. This is at variance with the previously reported mechanism. Most 335 notably, the absolute values of K_{I} are four orders of magnitude lower than previously reported (!) for 336 inhibition of mTY monophenolase and diphenolase reactions (Nerva et al, 2003), indicating much 337 higher activity and supporting the reputation of glabridin as one of the most potent natural mTY 338 339 inhibitors.

To validate our kinetic measurements, particularly in the light of the major difference with 340 previous literature, we extended the study to kojic acid, which is often used as reference inhibitor. 341 As expected, kojic acid afforded good inhibition at micromolar concentration, with excellent 342 agreement between the kinetics of DC formation and O₂ consumption. Both methods converged 343 344 showing mixed type inhibition when the substrate was L-dopa with K_{I} and K_{SI} values of 9.91±1.42 345 μ M and 20.97±5.23 μ M, respectively, while inhibition is nearly competitive with L-tyrosine, with K_I = $10.91\pm0.99 \mu$ M (see Figure S5 S6 and Table S3 in Appendix for full details) in good agreement 346 with previous literature (Chen, Wei, Rolle, Otwell, Balaban, & Marshall, 1991; Kim et al, 2002; Deri 347 et al., 2016). 348

Values measured here support the reportedly much higher activity of glabridin, which outperforms kojic acid by 3 orders of magnitude for monophenolase inhibition and by 2 orders of magnitude for diphenolase inhibition.

352

354 *3.5 Determination of IC*₅₀ (*half-maximal inhibitory concentration*)

In enzymology, inhibitors are usually described in terms of inhibition type and inhibition 355 constant, as we have discussed in the foregoing. This is the most valuable approach since it has a 356 clear connection with the inhibitory mechanism and offers quantitative kinetic bases, allowing full 357 comparison among different inhibitors and lab-to-lab transferability. However, enzyme inhibition is 358 of crucial importance also in pharmacology and in other disciplines, where focus is more on the 359 consequences of inhibition than on its mechanism. Therefore, it is most common to see the inhibition 360 performance being reported in the literature as IC₅₀ values. The IC₅₀ indicates the concentration of an 361 inhibitor that is able reduce the rate of enzyme reaction to 50% the value observed in the absence of 362 363 the inhibitor, under the same conditions. A dose-response diagram is used to track the effect of 364 inhibitors on the initial rate of enzymatic reaction at a fixed concentration of substrate, according to Langmuir isotherm equation (eq. 9) (Copeland, 2000). 365

366
$$\frac{V_I}{V_0} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{[1]}{IC_{50}}}$$
 (9)

367 The IC₅₀ values of glabridin mTY inhibition against substrates L-tyrosine and L-DOPA at 368 different substrate concentration are reported in Table S4 (Appendix). It is clearly possible to see the positive correlation between the IC₅₀ value and the concentration of substrates (see Figure 5), as it is 369 expected for inhibitors which are not purely noncompetitive (Copeland, 2000). Once again, the 370 agreement between values obtained by spectrophotometric monitoring of DC and those from oxygen 371 uptake kinetics was excellent, therefore they were averaged to afford more robust reference data 372 (Table S4 and Figures S7 and S8 in Appendix). A similar behaviour was recorded for kojic acid (see 373 Table S5 and Figures S9 and S10 in Appendix). The dependence on experimental settings somewhat 374 limits the usefulness of IC₅₀ in quantifying inhibitors' performance; thus, they were determined here 375 mainly as a reference to compare with current literature. IC₅₀ values measured for kojic acid, were in 376 good agreement with previous literature *e.g.* they were respectively $32.8\pm6.5 \mu$ M and $17.0\pm3.4 \mu$ M 377 378 for monophenolase and diphenolase activity with 1 mM substrate (see Table S5 for full data set) vs reference 54 and 58 μ M, respectively, with 1.8 mM substrate (Chang, Ding, Tai & Wu, 2007) or 12.24 μ M against 0.7 mM L-tyrosine (Shao et al, 2018), and 19.2 against 0.5 mM L-DOPA (Song et al. 2021). Instead, for glabridin, the IC₅₀ measured with both substrates (L-tyrosine and L-DOPA) are significantly smaller, compared to most literature data, which already contradict each-other spanning over orders of magnitude: *e.g.* 2.93 μ M against 1 mM tyrosine and 25.5 μ M against 6 mM DOPA (Yamauchi et al. 2011) to 0.09 μ M against 1.2 mM tyrosine and 3.9 μ M against 7 mM DOPA (Nerya et al. 2003).

386

<Figure 5 about here>

At 1 mM substrate the IC₅₀ values for glabridin, averaged between O₂ sensing and 387 388 spectrophotometry, were 79.5±6.9 nM and 257.0±12.7 nM, respectively, for monophenolase and diphenolase activities. Hence, they agree with Nerya et al. (2003) only for inhibition of 389 monophenolase activity. For competitive inhibitors (or nearly competitive, like glabridin) the Cheng 390 391 and Prusoff's linear correlation described by eq. 10 is expected between the IC₅₀ and the concentration of substrate (Copeland, 2000), therefore a plot of IC_{50} vs [S] should have intercept on the Y-axis 392 corresponding to K_I. Plots of Figure 5 have intercepts at 12 nM and 60 nM (spectrophotometry), and 393 14 nM and 65 nM (O₂ uptake), while the plots from averaged data (Figures S7 and S8) intercept the 394 395 Y-axis at 13 nM and 62 nM for monophenolase and diphenolase inhibition, hence they are fully 396 consistent with the K_I values for glabridin (independently determined from non-linear M-M fittings) 397 reported in Table 1, standing for the reliability of our current measurements.

398
$$IC_{50} = K_{I} + \frac{K_{I}[S]}{K_{m}}$$
 (10)

Interestingly, our IC_{50} values for glabridin are two-three orders of magnitude lower than values recorded for kojic acid, for monophenolase-diphenolase inhibition, again supporting the reputation of glabridin as one of the most effective natural tyrosinase inhibitors.

402

403 *3.6 Is glabridin a substrate for mTY?*

Several molecules with reported anti-tyrosinase activity have also been found to act as alternative 404 substrates for mTY. This is because mTY is a polyphenol oxidase (PPO) enzyme with no strict 405 specificity for only one substrate. Particularly, inhibitors with a relevant ability to access the enzyme's 406 active site (e.g. competitive inhibitors), with a non-hindered phenolic or polyphenolic structure, might 407 act as alternative substrates. For instance, this is the case for catechins (Seo, Sharma, & Sharma, 408 2003) caffeic acid, ferulic acid, neohesperidin and other phenolic compounds (Mayr et al. 2019). 409 Transformation of the inhibitor could form species with a UV-Vis spectrum able to interfere with the 410 detection of dopachrome, and it would cause a decrease of the effective inhibitor's concentration, 411 hence it could cause artefacts in the kinetic analysis of tyrosinase inhibition (Mayr et al. 2019). Since 412 413 glabridin is a phenolic compound, it cannot be excluded that it also acts as alternative substrate and, 414 to the best of our knowledge, this has never been assessed before. Incubation of mTY with glabridin in the absence of other substrates showed no development of absorbance at 475 nm or in the UV-Vis 415 region when monitored spectrophotometrically (see Figure S11 in Appendix). This standard method 416 (Mayr et al. 2019) rules out interference in the spectrophotometrically measured enzyme kinetics (see 417 section 3.3), but it does not provide a conclusive proof of the absence of reaction, as it relies on the 418 formation of persistent, intensely absorbing products. To this end, we repeated the incubation of mTY 419 with glabridin 200 nM or 1 mM, under identical conditions used in the assays, in the absence of L-420 421 tyrosine or L-DOPA, and monitored the reaction by our oxygen sensing method, recording no oxygen uptake over 60 min (see Figure S12 in Appendix). Since the two tested concentrations of glabridin 422 correspond, respectively, to the highest level it was employed as inhibitor and the highest 423 424 concentration used for the natural substrate tyrosine, the absence of any detectable reaction allows to exclude that glabridin acts as alternative substrate under our testing conditions. This study also 425 illustrates the distinctive usefulness of our real-time oxygen sensing approach. 426

427

428 **4.** Conclusions and perspective

A new method to investigate kinetics and inhibition of tyrosinase activity was described. It is 429 based on real-time sensing of oxygen via miniaturized NIR fluorescence probes, and showed to be 430 practical and reliable to investigate tyrosinase inhibition. When it was matched to the conventional 431 spectrophotometric approach, it proved to afford identical results. On the other hand, it offers higher 432 versatility, as it does not rely on the formation of specific products with characteristic UV-Vis 433 absorption. Therefore, it might prove of great value also to investigate the formation of allomelanins. 434 Its setup and operation is much simpler than other methods to analyse oxygen consumption in 435 solution, such as differential pressure transduction or electrochemical detection (Matera et al., 2015), 436 which makes it an ideal complement of conventional spectrophotometric approaches to improve 437 438 robustness and reliability in the study of tyrosinase inhibition, thereby favouring investigation in food 439 science.

With the help of this method, accurate quantitative analysis on the anti-tyrosinase activity of 440 glabridin were enabled, which prompted a revision of previously reported mechanism and kinetics. 441 Current results indicate that mTY inhibition by glabridin is of mixed type, with prevailing competitive 442 behavior both against substrate L-tyrosine and L-DOPA, affording, revised K_I values as 13.6 nM and 443 57.1 nM, for monophenolase and diphenolase inhibition, *i.e.* four orders of magnitude lower than 444 previously reported. These results, along with revised IC_{50} values in the nanomolar range (80 nM and 445 446 294 nM, respectively, at 1 mM substrate) allow settling the long-standing controversy on the actual potency of this reference inhibitor, landing full support to the reputation of glabridin as one of the 447 most potent natural tyrosinase inhibitors, and offering a solid reference for future investigations in 448 449 food science.

450

451 **Declaration of interest**

452 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

453

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

460 Detailed description of instrument set-up and operation, tables and graphs of mTY inhibition by 461 Kojic acid, tables and plots of IC_{50} values for glabridin and kojic acid, UV-Vis spectra and O₂ uptake 462 plots of glabridin incubated with mTY. Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, 463 in the online version, at ...

464

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Figures captions

608	Figure 1. (A) Oxidation of L-tyrosine and L-DOPA by oxygen catalysed by tyrosinase (TY),
609	and (B) tyrosinase inhibitors investigated in this study.
610	Figure 2. Time-course of dopachrome (DC) production (A, C) and O ₂ consumption (B, D) during
611	the oxidation of L-dopa (A, B) and L-tyrosine (C, D) catalyzed by tyrosinase (3.85 U/ml for L-DOPA
612	and 7.70 U/ml for L-tyrosine). The inserts are the initial rates of O_2 consumption and DC formation
613	during the reaction fitted with Michaelis-Menten equation (solid lines).
614	Figure 3. (A, B) Representative traces of O ₂ consumption (solid lines) and dopachrome (DC)
615	formation (dashed lines) during the oxidation of L-DOPA 1.6 mM (A: tyrosinase 3.85 U/mL); and
616	L-tyrosine 1.6 mM (B: tyrosinase 7.70 U/ml) at 30°C, pH 6.8. Regression lines were drawn using the
617	indicated (red) time-range. (C-F) Correlation of the stoichiometry of O ₂ consumption to dopachrome
618	(DC) production during oxidation of L-tyrosine (A, B) and L-DOPA (C, D), as a function of: (A, C)
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620	Figure 4. Kinetics of mTY inhibition by glabridin at 30° C (pH = 6.8): non-linear Michaelis-
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623	the Lineweaver-Burk plots corresponding to A, B, C and D, respectively. Glabridin (Gla)
624	concentrations are indicated by the corresponding symbols in the plots. Enzyme concentration for
625	substrate L-dopa and L-tyrosine were 3.85 U/mL and 7.7U/mL respectively.
626	Figure 5. Dependency of IC_{50} for glabridin inhibition of mTY on substrate concentration, both
627	for monophenolase (A) and diphenolase (B) reactions. Data (Table S4 in Appendix) were obtained
628	both by spectrophotometry and by oxygen sensing at 30° C (pH= 6.8).
629	



Figure 1. (A) Oxidation of L-tyrosine and L-DOPA by oxygen catalysed by tyrosinase (TY),

- and (B) tyrosinase inhibitors investigated in this study.



Figure 2. Time-course of dopachrome (DC) production (A, C) and O₂ consumption (B, D) during
the oxidation of L-dopa (A, B) and L-tyrosine (C, D) catalyzed by tyrosinase (3.85 U/ml for L-DOPA
and 7.70 U/ml for L-tyrosine). The inserts are the initial rates of O₂ consumption and DC formation
during the reaction fitted with Michaelis-Menten equation (solid lines).



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Figure 3. (A, B) Representative traces of O₂ consumption (solid lines) and dopachrome (DC) formation (dashed lines) during the oxidation of L-DOPA 1.6 mM (A: tyrosinase 3.85 U/mL); and L-tyrosine 1.6 mM (B: tyrosinase 7.70 U/ml) at 30°C, pH 6.8. Regression lines were drawn using the indicated (red) time-range. (C-F) Correlation of the stoichiometry of O₂ consumption to dopachrome (DC) production during oxidation of L-tyrosine (A, B) and L-DOPA (C, D), as a function of: (A, C) tyrosinase concentration at fixed substrate, and (B, D) substrate concentration at fixed enzyme.





Figure 4. Kinetics of mTY inhibition by glabridin at 30° C (pH = 6.8): non-linear Michaelis-Menten fittings of diphenolase activity on L-DOPA (A, E) and of monophenolase activity on L-tyrosine (B, F), studied by UV-Vis spectrophotometry (A, B) and oximetry (E, F). C, D, G and H are the Lineweaver-Burk plots corresponding to A, B, C and D, respectively. Glabridin (Gla) concentrations are indicated by the corresponding symbols in the plots. Enzyme concentration for substrate L-DOPA and L-tyrosine were 3.85 U/mL and 7.7U/mL respectively.



Figure 5. Dependency of IC₅₀ for glabridin inhibition of mTY on substrate concentration, both for monophenolase (A) and diphenolase (B) reactions. Data (Table S4 in Appendix) were obtained both by spectrophotometry and by oxygen sensing at 30° C (pH= 6.8).

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Real-time oxygen sensing as a powerful tool to investigate tyrosinase kinetics allows revising mechanism and activity of inhibition by glabridin

Yafang Guo,^a Alice Cariola,^a Riccardo Matera,^b Simone Gabbanini,^b & Luca Valgimigli^{*,a}

^a University of Bologna, Department of Chemistry "G. Ciamician", Via S. Giacomo 1, 40126 Bologna, Italy; ^b BeC s.r.l., R&D Division, Via C. Monteverdi 49, 47122 Forlì, Italy

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Setup of the real-time oxygen sensing equipment

The equipment setup is illustrated in Figure S1.





Figure S1. Scheme of the real-time oxygen sensing equipment (top) and images of the assembly of sample vials (int. volume 2.4 mL) with the oxygen probe sealed through the cap (bottom).

The equipment was set up using a commercial two channels Optical Oxygen Meter FireSting-O2 (model FSO2-2) connected via optical fibers to two IR fluorescence oxygen sensor probes (Robust type) contained in a 3 mm o.d. stainless-steel needle (Pyrosience GmbH, Bremen, Germany). The samples were contained in 2.4 mL glass flasks hand-made by a local scientific glass blower, sealed with a conical PP cap though which the O₂ sensor is inserted (after drilling the cap along the main axis) so that the sensor tip is protruding for about 3-4 mm inside the flask and is air-tight sealed. On closing the flask, care is taken to leave no air bubble, so that the entire volume is occupied by the (air-saturated) aqueous reaction mixture. The sample flask is provided with a PTFE-coated stirring bar and is completely submersed in a water bath controlled by Heto DBT Hetotherm (Birkerød, Denmark) thermosetting unit. Mixing is provided by submersed sealed magnetic stirrers MixDrive 1XS controlled by an external Mix Control (2mag AG, Munchen, Germany). The oxygen meter is connected to a temperature sensor (immersed in the water bath) for automatic correction of the sensor response, and to a PC via USB port for data collection.

Protection of the oxygen sensing probe form organic components

The O_2 sensor probes are designed and indicated by the manufacturer for use in aqueous solution, in the bare form, i.e. without any protection. Since the content in organic material in our samples was very limited, in principle the probes could be used, as indicated, without protection. However, on performing multiple measurements with the same probes, we noted a progressive loss in sensitivity with time, which we attributed to the deposition of thin layers of insoluble melanin on the surface of the polymeric matrix containing the fluorescent dye, in the sensor tip (only the lower surface is exposed to the solution, while the rest of the matrix is protected by the stainless-steel structure of the probe). Such loss of performance could not be overcome by accurate cleaning of the surface without causing damage to the probe itself. Therefore, we decided to protect the tip of the probe by coating with a polymeric membrane, which would allow sufficient permeability to oxygen to produce no interference with the kinetic measurements.

In order to protect the oxygen probe, several polymeric membranes were comparatively tested in reference kinetic assays for oxygen consumption, namely: 1) the time-course of oxygen concentration in a freshly prepared solution of 8 mM Na₂SO₃ in distilled water; 2) the autoxidation

of 10% (v/v) tetrahydrofurane (THF) in aqueous phosphate buffer (pH 7.4) initiated by the thermal decomposition of 50 mM azobisamidinopropane dihydrochloride (AAPH) at 30°C; 3) the autoxidation of 0.15% (w/v) soy lecithin in aqueous phosphate buffer (pH 7.4) initiated by 75 mM AAPH at 30°C. Tested membranes were: a) silicon 500 μ m; b) LDPE 100 μ m; c) LDPE 25 μ m; d) LDPE/HDPE 12 μ m; e) Teflon[®] (PTFE) 100 μ m; f) Teflon[®] (PTFE) 76 μ m. Among them, d) and f) offered the best compromise between oxygen permeability and mechanical properties: both offered no significant barrier to the consumption of oxygen at rates of ca. 0.1 mM/s, with measured rates of oxygen consumption differing less than ± 5% with respect to the bare (uncoated) probe. Teflon[®] (PTFE) 76 μ m was selected for our kinetic measurements with tyrosinase for its inertness.



Figure S2. Stepwise procedure for coating the O_2 probe tip with a protective PTFE film (76 μ M) held in place by an O-ring.

To guarantee reproducible measurements with no interference of the membrane, we found it is important to have both sides of the membrane "hydrated" *i.e.* in contact with water so that the diffusion of O_2 through the membrane follows the path water-membrane-water. To this end, we always took care of leaving a thin layer of buffered water (the same medium used for kinetic measurements) between the membrane and the lower (sensitive) surface of the oxygen probe. To do so, we applied a drop of buffer solution on the membrane and used it to obtain intimate adhesion of the membrane itself to the tip of the probe, then we fixed the membrane tightly in place with an O-ring, applied with the help of a micropipette tip (*e.g.* Gilson type), taking care of leaving no air bubble between the membrane and the tip of the probe, as illustrated in Figure S2. The membrane could be (gently) washed externally after every use and was replaced every day or every second day of experiments.

Measurements of mTY kinetics and inhibition

Oximetric evaluation of tyrosinase monophenolase and diphenolase kinetics was carried at 30°C by the real-time oxygen sensing equipment previously described. L-Tyrosine (0.05 – 1.0 mM) and L-DOPA (0.1 – 1.2 mM) were used, respectively as the substrate. Mushroom tyrosinase (3130 Units/mg; Sigma-Aldrich, Milan, Italy) solutions were prepared twice a week, stored at -20°C and checked on daily basis for activity, according to the manufacturer method (UV-Vis spectrophotometry), so to adjust dilution to the desired final activity. All activities were expressed in Sigma Units. The uninhibited reaction was monitored at different activity of the enzyme (1-25 U/mL). The raw data collected directly from the oxygen sensor is a percentage (P) of the oxygen saturation in the flask, corresponding to 0.236 mM at 30°C which reflects in the computer reading as 20%. Thus, the initial rate of the oxygen consumption (Table S1) was obtained by regression of the initial data range of oxygen consumption *vs* time using Sigmaplot software (Figure S3), upon converting the P value by the equation: V (μ M/s) = V (Δ P / Δ s) × 0.236 × 10³ × 60 / P₀, as needed, to obtain the velocity in the desired units. In both equations P₀ is the oximetry reading value of the starting point, which usually is 20 after calibration of the oxygen sensor.



Figure S3. Example of time progresses of O_2 consumption during the oxidation of L-dopa at different initial concentration from 0.1 mM (purple line) to 1.2 mM (red line), inhibited by glabridin (80 nM). The black lines are the linear regression (*V*) for every L-dopa concentration, taken in the highlighted time range (40s to 160s).

Table S1. Example of rates obtained from the linear fitting by Sigamplot software of initial portions of oxygen consumption plots for different L-dopa concentrations (data from Figure S3).

[L-dopa] (mM)	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.8	1.2
V = slope of	3.429	6.812	10.186	14.227	15.755
O_2 uptake (μ M/min)					

Initial velocity was plotted against the corresponding concentration of the substrate (*e.g.* L-dopa for diphenolase reaction) to obtain the Michaelis-Menten plot (Figure S4), which was analysed by non-linear regression. The non-linear analysis was conducted by fitting of experimental data point with the hyperbola equation $y = \frac{ax}{b+x}$ using sigmaplot software, where y, x, a and b represent V_0 , [S], V_{max} and K_{m} respectively, for uninhibited kinetics, thereby representing M-M equation. An example of fitting results is shown in Figure S4.



Figure S4. Example of plot of Initial rates of oxygen consumption during tyrosinase catalyzed oxidation of L-dopa and the corresponding non-linear fitting to Michaelis-Menten kinetics (data from Table S1).

Identical kinetic data collection and treatment was applied when using L-tyrosine as the substrate.

In this case the measured rate of O_2 consumption was divided by 1.5 to match with the rate of dopachrome (DC) formation, to account for the stoichiometric ratio of 1:1.5 of DC to O_2 for monophenolase reaction, as determined in matched kinetic measurements via the oxygen sensor and UV-Vis spectrophotometry (see main manuscript). No conversion was necessary for diphenolase reaction since the stoichiometric ratio DC to O_2 is 1:1.

For kinetic measurements in the presence of an inhibitor (Glabridin or Kojic acid), identical procedure was followed both for monophenolase and diphenolase reactions, using different concentrations of the inhibitor, for each set of measurements at different substrate concentration. In data treatment with equation $y = \frac{ax}{b+x}$, y, x, a and b represent V, [S], $V_{\text{max}}^{\text{app}}$ and $K_{\text{m}}^{\text{app}}$ respectively, where the last two are, respectively, the apparent V_{max} and K_{m} at each concentration of the inhibitor.

Table S2. Michaelis-Menten kinetics parameters measured both by UV-Vis spectrophotometry and by oximetry during uninhibited mushroom tyrosinase reaction at 30°C, pH=6.8.

		dopachr	ome formation	oxygen consumption			
activity	substrate	$K_{\rm m}({ m mM})$	V _{max} (µM/min)	$K_{\rm m}({\rm mM})$	V _{max} (µM/min)		
monophenolase	L-tyrosine	0.18±0.01	9.01±0.12	0.17±0.02	8.45±0.62		
diphenolase	L-DOPA	0.26 ± 0.02	25.80±0.53	0.24±0.02	24.18±0.96		

Given the higher rate of the diphenolase reaction, the V_{max} of this process was calculated at the beginning of the process (between t=0 and t=3 min), while monophenolase activity was evaluated between 3 and 15 min, to skip the initial lag phase.



Figure S5. Non-linear fittings (A and B) of Michaelis-Menten kinetics for kojic acid inhibition of diphenolase tyrosinase activity and (C and D) the corresponding Lineweaver–Burk linear fittings. Data were obtained both by oximetry (A, C) and UV-Vis spectrophotometry (B, D): (A, C) kojic acid concentrations: •-0 μ M, •-20 μ M, \blacktriangle -50 μ M; (B, D) kojic acid concentrations: •-0 μ M, -20 μ M, \bigstar -50 μ M; (B, D) kojic acid concentrations: •-0 μ M, -20 μ M. Enzyme concentration for substrate L-dopa was 3.85 U/ml, all experiments were conducted at pH 6.8 and 30°C. The rate of reaction *V* was evaluated from the initial portion (between t=0 and t=2 min) of the plot in each experiment.



Figure S6. Non-linear fittings (A and B) of Michaelis-Menten kinetics for kojic acid inhibition of monophenolase tyrosinase activity and (C and D) the corresponding Lineweaver–Burk linear fittings. Data were obtained both by oximetry (A, C) and UV-Vis spectrophotometry (B, D): (A, C) kojic acid concentrations: •-0 nM, \blacksquare - 16 μ M, \blacktriangle -25 μ M; (B,D) kojic acid concentrations: •-0 μ M, \blacksquare - 10 μ M, \bigstar - 30 μ M. Enzyme concentration for substrate L-Tyrosine was 7.7 U/ml, all experiments were conducted at pH 6.8 and 30°C. The *V* of monophenolase activity was evaluated between 5 and 15 min.

Table S3. Kinetic parameters of tyrosinase activity inhibition by kojic acid at 30° C (pH= 6.8). Kinetics data were obtained by spectrophotometric monitoring of dopachrome (DC) or by real-time oxygen sensing (using the same procedure as for glabridin).

	Dopachron	me (DC) for	mation		Oxygen (O	Average					
[kojic acid] (µM)	0	20	50	100	0	20	50				
$V_{\rm max}$ or $V_{\rm max}{}^{\rm app}$	30.66	13.2	7.38	5.07	23.82	13.62	8.28				
(µM/min)	± 1.74	± 2.76	± 1.8	± 0.12	± 3.6	± 0.96	± 1.34				
$K_{\rm m}$ or $K_{\rm m}^{\rm app}$ (mM)	0.26	0.34	0.47	0.53	0.28	0.45	0.52				
	±0.05	±0.02	±0.04	±0.03	±0.01	±0.07	± 0.02				
$\alpha = (K_{\rm m}^{\rm app} \times \alpha') / K_{\rm m}$		2.98	7.42	12.26		2.77	5.35				
$\alpha' = V_{\max} / V_{\max}^{app}$		2.32	4.17	6.04		1.73	2.88				
$K_{\rm I} = [{\rm I}]/(\alpha - 1)$		10.08	7.79	8.89		11.30	11.50	9.91			
(µM)								±1.42			
$K_{I'} = [I]/(\alpha'-1)$		15.12	15.79	19.85		27.48	26.62	20.97			
(µM)								±5.23			

Α.	Kinetic	parameters	of tv	rosinase	din	henolase	activity	7 inh	ibition 1	ov k	oiic	acid.
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B. Kinetic parameters of tyrosinase monophenolase activity inhibition by kojic acid.

	Dopachrome	e (DC) formatio	n	Oxygen (Oz	Average		
[kojic acid] (µM)	0	16	25	0	10	30	
$V_{\rm max}$ or $V_{\rm max}$ ^{app}	8.94	8.4	7.98	8.04	7.5	7.2	
(µM/min)	± 0.42	± 0.66	± 0.66	± 0.96	± 0.78	± 0.48	
$K_{\rm m}$ or $K_{\rm m}^{\rm app}$ (mM)	0.18	0.36	0.75	0.26	0.48	1.07	
	± 0.02	± 0.06	± 0.12	± 0.01	± 0.09	± 0.09	
$\alpha = (K_{\rm m}^{\rm app} \times \alpha')/K_{\rm m}$		2.31	3.56		1.98	3.62	
$\alpha' = V_{\max} / V_{\max}^{app}$		1.06	1.12		1.07	1.12	
$K_{\rm I}=[{\rm I}]/(\alpha-1)$		12.25	9.78		10.17	11.45	10.91
(µM)							± 0.99
$K_{I'} = [I]/(\alpha'-1)$		266.67	208.33		142.85	250.00	216.96
(µM)							± 55.16

Note: V_{max} or $V_{\text{max}}^{\text{app}}$ refer to not inhibited and inhibited assays, respectively, and K_{m} or $K_{\text{m}}^{\text{app}}$ refer to not inhibited and inhibited assays, respectively. Data were obtained both by UV-vis spectrophotometry and by oximetry method. V_{max} or $V_{\text{max}}^{\text{app}}$ were calibrated by using the stoichiometry ratios 1.5 for O₂/DC for monophenolase reaction and 1.0 O₂/DC for diphenolase.

From UV-Vis. monitoring at 475 nm (diphenolase)											
[L-dopa] (mM)	0.05	0.10	0.20	0.40	0.80	1.00	1.20				
IC ₅₀ (nM)	80.9	81.6	96.4	114.0	229.7	255.1	292.6				
Error (±std.dev.)	±0.5	±3.5	± 8.9	±10.1	± 9.9	±8.4	±12.6				
From real-time O ₂ sensing (diphenolase)											
[L-dopa] (mM)	0.05	0.10	0.20	0.40	0.80	1.00	1.20				
$IC_{50}(nM)$	69.8	78.4	108.3	152.4	201.1	259.0	295.7				
Error (±std.dev.)	±0.6	±4.1	±10.5	±3.7	±3.3	±15.7	±33.4				
	Averaged	between O	2 sensing an	d UV-Vis (a	liphenolase	e)					
[L-dopa] (mM)	0.05	0.10	0.20	0.40	0.80	1.00	1.20				
$IC_{50}(nM)$	75.4	80.0	102.3	133.2	220.9	257.0	294.2				
Error (±std.dev.)	±5.6	±4.1	±11.4	±20.6	±11.5	±12.7	±25.3				
	From UV	-Vis. moni	toring at 47	5 nm (mono	ophenolase)						
[L-tyrosine] (mM)	0.05	0.10	0.16	0.25	0.32	0.40	1.00				
IC ₅₀ (nM)	16.50	21.0	22.8	29.3	31.6	38.4	84.0				
Error (±std.dev.)	± 0.2	± 0.8	±2.4	±2.4	±4.1	±3.9	±6.9				
	Fro	m real-time	e O ₂ sensing	(monopher	iolase)						
[L-tyrosine] (mM)	0.05	0.10	0.16	0.25	0.32	0.40	1.00				
IC ₅₀ (nM)	17.4	20.0	23.0	25.9	35.2	38.5	75.0				
Error (±std.dev.)	±0.2	± 0.9	±4.9	±1.6	±4.3	± 2.8	±7.1				
	Averaged b	etween O ₂	sensing and	UV-Vis (mo	onophenola	ise)					
[L-tyrosine] (mM)	0.05	0.10	0.16	0.25	0.32	0.40	1.00				
IC ₅₀ (nM)	16.9	20.5	22.9	27.6	33.4	38.5	79.5				
Error (±std.dev.)	±0.5	± 1.0	±3.9	±2.7	±4.6	±3.4	±8.3				

Table S4. IC₅₀ values calculated for mushroom tyrosinase inhibition by glabridin (at 30° C) at different concentrations of L-tyrosine and L-dopa substrates, both by spectrophotometric monitoring of dopachrome (at 475 nm) and by real-time oxygen sensing.



Figure S7. Dependency on the concentration of substrate of IC₅₀ for glabridin in the inhibition of monophenolase activity of mushroom tyrosinase at 30° C (pH= 6.8), averaged between spectrophotometric monitoring of dopachrome and real-time O₂ sensing (data from Table S3).



Figure S8. Dependency on the concentration of substrate of IC_{50} for glabridin in the inhibition of diphenolase activities of mushroom tyrosinase at 30°C (pH= 6.8), averaged between spectrophotometric monitoring of dopachrome and real-time O₂ sensing (data from Table S3).

pri-0.8) at unreferit concentrations of L-tyrosine and L-dopa substrates.							
[L-dopa] (mM)	0.1	0.15	0.40	0.60	0.80	1.00	1.20
IC ₅₀ (µM)	9.4	8.3	12.1	12.5	15.8	17.0	19.9
Error (±std.dev.)	±2.1	± 1.0	±2.7	±1.9	±2.6	±3.4	±3.9
[L-tyrosine] (mM)	0.05	0.10	0.15	0.25	0.36	0.7	1.00
IC ₅₀ (µM)	15.5	17.9	19.4	20.2	23.0	27.9	32.8
Error (±std.dev.)	±3.5	±2.9	± 3.8	±2.4	±5.2	±4.4	±6.5

Table S5. IC₅₀ values calculated for mushroom tyrosinase inhibition by kojic acid (at 30° C; pH=6.8) at different concentrations of L-tyrosine and L-dopa substrates.

The IC₅₀ were determined from combined data by averaging UV-Vis and O₂ uptake experiments.



Figure S9. Plot of IC₅₀ *vs* the concentration of substrate (L-Tyrosine) for monophenolase inhibition of mushroom tyrosinase by Kojic acid at 30° C (data from Table S4).



Figure S10. Plot of IC₅₀ *vs* the concentration of substrate (L-DOPA) for diphenolase inhibition of mushroom tyrosinase by Kojic acid at 30° C (data from Table S4).



Figure S11. UV-Vis. difference spectrum obtained by subtracting from the spectrum of the reaction mixture composed by mushroom tyrosinase (7.7.U/mL) and 1 mM glabridin incubated at 30° for 1 hour (pH=6.8), the spectrum of glabridin at the same concentration in the same medium. No change or development of significant absorbtion suggests the absence of transformation of glabridin by the enzyme.



Figure S12. Oxygen consumption recorded by incubating mushroom tyrosinase (7.7.U/mL) with 200 nM glabridin (left panel) and 1 mM glabridin (right panel) at 30° for 1 hour (pH=6.8), in the absence of other substrates. No detectable oxygen consumption indicates no transformation of glabridin by the enzyme.