

From No-confidence to Nitric Oxide Acknowledgement: A Story of Bacterial Nitric-Oxide Reductase

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ABSTRACT. The review briefly summarizes current knowledge of the bacterial nitric-oxide reductase (NOR). This membrane enzyme consists of two subunits, the smaller one contains h em C and the larger one two h ems B and nonh em iron. The protein sequence and structure of metal centres demonstrate the relationship of NOR to the family of terminal oxidases. The binuclear Fe–Fe reaction centre, consisting of antiferromagnetically coupled h em B and nonh em iron, is analogous to Fe–Cu centre of terminal oxidases. The data on the structure and function of NOR and terminal oxidases suggest that all

these enzymes are closely evolutionally related. The catalytic properties are determined most of all by the relatively high toxicity of nitric oxide as a substrate and the resulting strong need to maintain its concentration at nanomolar levels. A kinetic model of the action of the enzyme comprises substrate inhibition. NOR does not conserve the free energy of nitric oxide reduction because it does not work as a proton pump and, moreover, the protons coming into the reaction are taken from periplasm, *i.e.* they do not cross the membrane.

Abbreviations

CCCP	3-chlorophenylhydrazono-malononitrile (‘carbonyl cyanide 3-chlorophenylhydrazone’)	NOR	nitric-oxide reductase
COX	aa ₃ -cytochrome- <i>c</i> oxidase	PMS	<i>N</i> -methylphenazonium methanesulfonate (‘phenazine methosulfate’)
NIR	nitrite reductase	TMPD	<i>N,N,N',N'</i> -tetramethyl-1,4-benzendiamine

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1 INTRODUCTION

During the last fifteen years nitric oxide has been a molecule of particular interest for animal and human physiologists. Simultaneously, bacterial physiologists have found it relevant to their field and have been trying to confirm its appearance and the pathways of its production and consumption, although the first reports on the NO occurrence in bacterial cells have been met with scepticism.

2 NITRIC OXIDE: DANGEROUS AGENT

Nitric oxide, ‘the ultra low molar mass hormone’ and at the same time one of the simplest and highly reactive nitrogen species (Sigler *et al.* 1999), is a small hydrophobic molecule which can easily permeate through biological membranes, and which contains an unpaired electron. Despite its high reactivity, it has a considerably long half-life in biological systems. Higher NO concentrations are toxic for living cells. This toxicity results from its reactivity with metalloproteins containing transition metals and with biological thiols and amines. The main sites of its toxic action are h em Fe, nonh em Fe and Cu containing enzymes (Packer 1996; Zumft 1997). NO is also mutagenic to bacterial DNA, obviously because of its deaminating and nitrosating activity (Wink *et al.* 1991). Because of this, there is a strong need for the denitrifying cell to maintain the concentration of NO produced by nitrite reductase at a very low level (nmol/L). Mutations leading to a lack of NOR activity and causing an abnormal increase of the steady-state NO concentration are lethal (Braun and Zumft 1991).

However, NO non-producing bacteria can also come in to contact with NO coming from their environment and can possess defense systems for its detoxification. Soil bacteria of the genus *Pseudomonas*,

closely related to *P. fluorescens*, can oxidize NO to nitrite (Koschorreck *et al.* 1996). Bacterial pathogens in animal bodies have to face nitric oxide produced by activated macrophages.

3 BRIEF HISTORY OF NITRIC OXIDE DISCOVERY IN BACTERIAL DENITRIFIERS

Originally, there was a deep distrust of NO existence as an obligatory intermediate. Before its role in animal organisms was known, some researches took the presence of NO in living cell to be pure nonsense. Experiments with isotopically labelled N-oxoanions have been interpreted as evidence for a direct reduction of NO_2^- to N_2O by a single enzyme – nitrite reductase (St. John and Hollocher 1977; Garber and Hollocher 1981). However, during subsequent years observations demonstrating role of NO as a free intermediate and NOR as a separate enzyme have accumulated.

Firstly it has been shown that all purified nitrite reductases with physiological electron donors reduce nitrite to nitric oxide and not to nitrous oxide (*e.g.*, LeGall *et al.* 1979; Liu *et al.* 1986). An experiment has proved that denitrifying bacteria can use NO as a terminal electron acceptor (Garber *et al.* 1982; Shapleigh and Payne 1985, 1986). NO reductase activity has been shown to be associated with the cytoplasmic membrane (Grant and Hochstein 1984). It has also been shown that, in the presence of the well-known uncoupler CCCP, nitrite is transformed to a potent inhibitor of terminal oxidases. Furthermore, the inhibitor has been identified as NO released due to the blocking of NOR activity by CCCP (Kučera *et al.* 1987). At appropriate CCCP concentrations, damped oscillations of NO concentration can even be observed (Kučera 1992). Cells lacking active NIR after insertion of *Tn5* transposon are still been able to reduce NO (Zumft *et al.* 1988). Although the steady-state concentration of NO in bacterial cell appears to be very low, a possibility has been found to trap the NO produced during denitrification by the added high-affinity scavenger deoxyhemoglobin (Goretski and Hollocher 1988), or mammalian cytochrome *c* (Kučera *et al.* 1987). Formation of the NO–hemoprotein complex has been confirmed by its characteristic spectral properties. Progress in analytical methodology has also made possible the direct detection of free NO by mass spectrometry (Zafiriou *et al.* 1989). Definitive evidence has been provided by the purification and characterization of NOR from *Pseudomonas stutzeri* (Heiss *et al.* 1989; Kastrau *et al.* 1994).

4 HOW TO OBTAIN NITRIC-OXIDE REDUCTASE

Bacterial NOR has hitherto been isolated from *Pseudomonas stutzeri* (Heiss *et al.* 1989), several strains of *Paracoccus denitrificans* (Carr and Ferguson 1990; Dermastia *et al.* 1991; Fujiwara and Fukumori 1996), *Paracoccus halodenitrificans* (Sakurai and Sakurai 1997) and *Achromobacter cycloclastes* (Jones and Hollocher 1993). It is expressed under microaerobic or anaerobic conditions.

The enzyme is membrane-bound, so the first step of purification must be the isolation of the membrane fraction and its solubilization. Suitable detergents are lauryl maltoside (Girsch and de Vries 1997), octyl glucoside (Dermastia *et al.* 1991) and sucrose monooctylate (Fujiwara and Fukumori 1996). On the other hand, nonionic detergents as Triton X-100 and Brij-35 have not proved to be suitable (Carr and Ferguson 1990), although in one case Triton X-100 has been also successfully used in the purification of the enzyme from *P. stutzeri* (Heiss *et al.* 1989). A substantial drop of activity is always observed after the addition of the detergent, caused probably by delipidation of the enzyme. Complete delipidation after treatment with a more aggressive detergent such as Triton X-100 leads to an almost complete loss of activity. An addition of phospholipids or some detergents, *e.g.*, octyl thioglucopyranoside, can then restore a significant part of the activity (Kastrau *et al.* 1994).

In the following purification step, a combination of ion-exchange chromatography and gel filtration (Heiss *et al.* 1989), immobilized-metal-ion affinity chromatography (Hendriks *et al.* 1998), or chromatography on hydroxyapatite (Fujiwara and Fukumori 1996) have been found to be applicable. NOR has been eluted at about 0.4 mol/L NaCl from the frequently used anion-exchanger Q-Sepharose under a NaCl gradient (Hendriks *et al.* 1998). The high purity of enzyme is necessary for reliable VIS and Molecular Circular Dichroism data and is critical for the reliability of EPR data (Hendriks *et al.* 1998; Sakurai 1998).

5 POLYPEPTIDE COMPOSITION; HÆM AND METAL CONTENT

Pure NOR consists of two polypeptides with molar mass 17 and 38 kDa (Heiss *et al.* 1989). The smaller subunit carries covalently bound hæg C and the larger one contains hæg B. Analysis of the hæg con-

tent by the pyridin h emachrome method has shown that h ems B and C are present at a ratio of 2.1 ± 0.1 . In both the detergent solution and the native cytoplasmic membrane, the enzyme probably occurs as a dimer of two NOR-BC monomers. Four iron atoms per NOR-BC monomer have been found (Hendriks *et al.* 1998). There are no indications of copper presence in the enzyme (Fujiwara and Fukumori 1996; Hendriks *et al.* 1998). Exceptions to the above pattern are enzymes recently isolated from *Alcaligenes eutrophus* H16 (Cramm *et al.* 1997) and *Synechocystis* sp. PCC6803 (Kaneko *et al.* 1996), where the N-terminal extension of the NOR-B sequence containing two more membrane-spanning helices provides a functional analogue for the NOR-C subunit.

6 SPECTRAL PROPERTIES

Visible spectra. The spectra of the reduced enzyme exhibit a maximum at 551 nm suggesting the presence of a low spin h em C and a shoulder at 558 nm suggesting a low spin h em B. A broad absorption peak at around 590 nm appears in the spectra of the oxidized enzyme and is disappearing during its reduction. Because of the similarity with the spectrum of the b_0 quinol oxidase, the signal (Moody and Rich 1994) has been taken to be high spin h em B. The CO-difference spectrum of the reduced enzyme also shows evidence of the occurrence of the high spin h em B (Girsch and de Vries 1996). The electronic spectra of NOR show considerable similarities with the spectra of *cb*-type cytochrome-*c* oxidases (Garcia-Horsman *et al.* 1994; Gray *et al.* 1984).

EPR spectra. The oxidized enzyme displays the signals of the low spin h em C and the low spin h em B. The signals are consistent with the assumed coordination of the h ems, *i.e.* His–Met in the case of the h em C and His–His in the case of the h em B (Girsch and de Vries 1996; Hendriks *et al.* 1998). The absence of any signal originating from high spin h em B indicates magnetic coupling between the h em and another paramagnet in its close vicinity (Cheesman *et al.* 1998). The most probable candidate is a nonh em iron ion. After reduction of the enzyme, both low spin signals disappear and, after the addition of NO to reduced NOR solution, new strong signals emerge documenting the disturbance of magnetic coupling between the two iron centers. The signal at $g = 4$ has been assigned to the Fe(II)–NO complex of nonh em iron (Hendriks *et al.* 1998). The previously observed signal at $g = 2.009$, which has been interpreted as manifestation of nonh em iron, is most likely due to contamination.

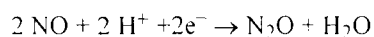
7 STRUCTURE MODEL

The NOR-B subunit is a highly hydrophobic membrane protein. After analysis of its sequence, 12 transmembrane helices have been predicted (Zumft *et al.* 1994). A comparison of the primary structures of NOR-B and subunit I of cytochrome-*c* oxidase from several organisms has displayed the sequence homology of the proteins. This enables us to use structural information obtained from the X-ray analysis of bacterial *aa_3*-cytochrome-*c* oxidase to derive a model representing the arrangement of the transmembrane helices in the cytoplasmic membrane. The resulting model shows a compact protein, where the transmembrane helices are arranged in three semicircles surrounding metal prosthetic centres (Zumft and K orner 1997). The NOR-B subunit contains low spin h em B and high spin h em B. The presence of a further metal center has for some time been the subject of speculation. Now we have sufficient evidences to confirm nonh em iron as the additional prosthetic group (Hendriks *et al.* 1998). Low spin h em B is probably coordinated by His⁶⁰ and His³⁴⁹, which are analogues of conserved h em coordinating histidines in COX I. High spin h em B and nonh em iron are located in close proximity to each other and form a binuclear reaction centre of NO-reductase analogous to the $a_3\text{Cu}_B$ center of COX. EPR data, predicting the existence of antiferromagnetic coupling between high spin h em B and another paramagnet in its close neighbourhood, provide strong support for this concept (Girsch and de Vries 1996; Cheesman *et al.* 1998). The data are also consistent with an assumed oxo or hydroxo bridge ligand between the two iron atoms (Cheesman *et al.* 1998). Some other ligands are again analogues of conserved histidines noted in COX, the others are still unknown (Zumft and K orner 1997).

The NOR-C subunit consists of a globular periplasmic domain with attached h em C and a transmembrane helix anchoring the whole polypeptide in the cytoplasmic membrane (Zumft and K orner 1997).

8 CATALYTIC PROPERTIES OF NITRIC-OXIDE REDUCTASE

NOR catalyses the reductive condensation of two NO molecules to form N₂O (cf. overall reaction):



In the particular case of *P. denitrificans* cytochrome *c*₅₅₀ (the physiological donor of electrons) appears to be the soluble periplasmic cytochrome *c*. However, its deletion does not cause a loss of activity, which suggests the possibility of an alternative electron supply, for example from the periplasmic blue-copper protein pseudoazurin (Ferguson 1994) also identified as an alternative electron donor in the case of nitrite reductase (Koutný *et al.* 1999). Because the isolated membrane fraction alone has a high succinate–nitric oxide oxidoreductase activity, we can deduce the existence of longitudinal electron flow along the cytoplasmic membrane, possibly mediated by a membrane-associated cytochrome *c* (*unpublished results*). The physiological activity has not yet been reconstituted *in vitro* (Goretski and Hollocher 1988).

Activity assay can make use of various artificial electron donors, PMS (Miyata 1971), TMPD–horse cytochrome *c* (Goretski and Hollocher 1988), or TMPD alone (Kučera 1992) being the most popular ones. The probable site of electron entrance into the enzyme is the h em C in the NOR-C subunit.

After adding ascorbate to the solution of the oxidized enzyme, the fast reduction of h em C and low spin h em B is followed by the slower reduction of high spin B (Sakurai *et al.* 1998). From these observations, the electron pathway in the enzyme can be deduced as going from h em C to low spin h em B and then to the binuclear reaction centre consisting of high spin h em B and a nonh em iron ion (Fig. 1).

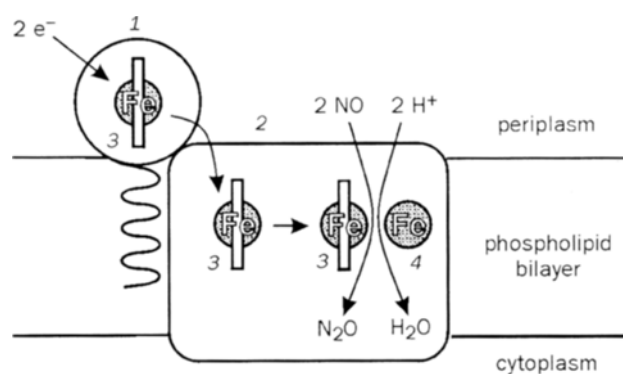


Fig. 1. Model of the structure and action of bacterial nitric-oxide reductase: the enzyme consists of two subunits, the smaller one (1) being a membrane anchored *c*-type cytochrome while the larger (2) one is an integral membrane protein; the positions of the h ems (3) and the nonh em Fe (4) are schematically shown; the arrows indicate the flow of electrons and the reactants to the binuclear reaction centre of the enzyme.

The mechanism of NO reduction and N–N bond formation is still not completely clear. Spectral data have not provided convincing evidence confirming the presence of the assumed intermediates in the reaction centre. A more detailed kinetic study is also lacking. The two most discussed concepts suggest that (i) the primary product of the enzyme is a nitroxyl anion (NO[−]) which dimerizes to form hyponitrite in an instant nonenzymic reaction; the hyponitrite is subsequently protonated and after the cleavage of water yields N₂O (Hendriks *et al.* 1998); or (ii) an N–N bond is established precisely in the reaction centre of the enzyme (Girsch and de Vries 1996). The arrangement and binding of the two NO molecules in the binuclear reaction centre also needs to be better understood (Zumf 1997). The above possible reaction mechanisms lends relevance also to our observation that hyponitrite does not affect NO reduction (*unpublished results*).

A typical feature of NO reductase kinetics is substrate inhibition (Kučera 1992). After addition of NO to the enzyme solution (100 μmol/L) we can observe an initially slow but gradually accelerating substrate consumption resulting in a sigmoidal shape of the [NO] time trace. The probable reason of the inhibition is the binding of NO to h em. A kinetic model of NOR action comprising substrate inhibition has been established (Girsch and de Vries 1996) and afterwards critically reviewed and revised (Koutný and Kučera 1999). The main features of the model can be summarized as follows: (i) the inhibition is acompetitive; (ii) an inactive complex is formed in the reaction of NO with the oxidized enzyme, and some spectroscopic

data show that NO really binds to the oxidized form of the enzyme (Fujiwara and Fukumori 1996); (iii) the extent of inhibition depends on the redox state of the enzyme which is influenced by the rate of electron supply. The latter finding might explain why some authors have observed a linear decrease of NO concentration with time (Carr *et al.* 1989 and 1990) while others have taken the sigmoidal shape of the curve as suggesting substrate inhibition (Goretski and Hollocher 1990; Dermastia *et al.* 1991; Kučera 1992). The discrepancy can result from differences in the electron donor systems used by the authors. The above described kinetic model has provided an inhibition constant $K_i = 3 \mu\text{mol/L}$ (Koutný and Kučera 1999). The substrate inhibition is obviously one of the causes of the observed oscillations of NO concentration (Kučera 1992).

Although NO can freely diffuse through biological membranes, its concentration in the interior of the membrane is elevated compared to the layer of polar phospholipid heads or surrounding aqueous phase (Subczynski 1996). This could be the reason why the binuclear reaction centre of NOR is localised inside the lipidic bilayer of the cytoplasmic membrane (Zumft 1997).

9 GENES FOR NITRIC OXIDE REDUCTION

The genes are located inside the *nor* cluster adjacent to the *nir* cluster which contains genes necessary for reduction of nitrite. Two structural genes, *norC* and *norB*, are followed by four other ORFs with less known function. The *norE* gene has been found to display sequence homology with subunit III of COX. Despite the relationship of the two enzymes, the product of the gene has not yet been purified as a component of NOR. Knockout of the gene causes a decrease in NO reductase activity (de Boer *et al.* 1996).

The expression of the *nor* genes is under the control of the transcription factor NNR (van Spanning *et al.* 1997). The signal, or one of the signals, for NNR activation could be NO itself (van Spanning *et al.* 1999).

10 EVOLUTIONARY RELATIONSHIP OF NO AND O₂ REDUCTIONS

After searching protein sequence databases, about 20 % homology has been found between NorB and the main catalytic subunit of *aa₃*-cytochrome-*c* oxidase (Zumft *et al.* 1994). Such a level of uniformity is not considered to be sufficient for confirmation of the relationship between the enzymes. However, further studies have provided evidence in favour of the relationship. The membrane spanning helix predictive algorithm has located twelve such segments in the NOR-B sequence in accordance with the known situation in COX I. Moreover, conserved histidine residues coordinating h em A and the $a_3\text{Cu}_B$ centre have their counterparts in the NOR-B sequence (van der Oost *et al.* 1994; Saraste and Castresana 1994; Zumft and K orner 1997). A remarkable analogy has been found between the structure and function of metal centers of the enzymes. The binuclear centre comprising the antiferromagnetically coupled h em iron of h em B and the non-h em iron ion appears to be closely related to the $a_3\text{Cu}_B$ centre of COX. The most notable difference is the presence of Fe instead of Cu. How the specificity of proper metal insertion is achieved, when both enzymes are present in one cell, continues to remain unclear. An analogue of the other h em B in NOR is the h em A in COX (van der Oost *et al.* 1994).

The cytochrome-*c* oxidase of *aa₃* type is a member of a larger enzyme family of terminal oxidases which exhibit a high level of sequential and structural homology. The relationship of NOR to these enzymes along with some later conceptions of young earth's atmosphere (Kasting 1990) has inspired a theory placing an ancestral NOR at the beginning of evolution leading to all terminal oxidases.

11 ENERGY CONSERVATION

The high positive midpoint potential for the NO/N₂O couple (1.18 V) gives the cell a theoretical opportunity to use the free energy from NO reduction for proton pumping across the cytoplasmic membrane similarly to cytochrome-*c* oxidases (Hendriks *et al.* 1997). However, the actual experimental results clearly show that NOR neither works as a proton pump nor actually produces a membrane potential because protons for reduction are taken from the periplasm (Shapleigh and Payne 1985; Carr *et al.* 1989; Bell *et al.* 1992).

The detoxification of nitric oxide produced by periplasmic nitrite reductase appears to be the primary and essential function of NOR. During evolution, any mutations leading to better energy conservation but negatively affecting the above mentioned basic role could be abandoned. Progenies of ancestral NOR,

terminal oxidases, metabolizing relatively harmless oxygen, then could fully direct their evolution to maximizing the energy gain.

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