

## Binding of NO and CO to the $d_1$ Heme of $cd_1$ Nitrite Reductase from *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*<sup>†</sup>

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**ABSTRACT:** The  $cd_1$  nitrite reductase, a key enzyme in bacterial denitrification, catalyzes the one-electron reduction of nitrite to nitric oxide. The enzyme contains two redox centers, a  $c$ -type heme and a unique  $d_1$  heme, which is a dioxoisobacteriochlorin. Nitric oxide, generated by this enzymatic pathway, if not removed from the medium, can bind to the ferrous  $d_1$  cofactor with extremely high affinity and inhibit enzyme activity. In this paper, we report the resonance Raman investigation of the properties of nitric oxide and carbon monoxide binding to the  $d_1$  site of the reduced enzyme. The Fe–ligand (Fe–NO and Fe–CO) stretching vibrational frequencies are unusually high in comparison to those of other ferrous heme complexes. The frequencies of the Fe–NO and N–O stretching modes appear at 585 and 1626  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , respectively, in the NO complex, while the frequencies of the Fe–CO and C–O stretching modes are at 563 and 1972  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , respectively, for the CO complex. Also, the widths (fwhm) of the Fe–CO and C–O stretching modes are smaller than those observed in the corresponding complexes of other heme proteins. The unusual spectroscopic characteristics of the  $d_1$  cofactor are discussed in terms of both its unique electronic properties and the strongly polar distal environment around the iron-bound ligand. It is likely that the influence of a highly ruffled structure of heme  $d_1$  on its electronic properties is the major factor causing anomalous Fe–ligand vibrational frequencies.

In the absence of oxygen, denitrifying bacteria are able to generate energy from phosphorylation processes that involve the reduction of nitrogen oxides. This metabolic pathway, dissimilatory denitrification, involves both membrane-bound and soluble redox proteins (for recent reviews, see refs 1–3). Nitrite reductase (NiR) is a key enzyme in the denitrifying chain where it catalyzes the one-electron reduction of nitrite to form nitric oxide (NO). It has been shown that NiRs fall into two distinct classes depending on the specific redox centers that are present. One class contains copper, and the other contains two heme cofactors ( $cd_1$  NiR) (for reviews, see refs 2–4).

The homodimeric  $cd_1$  NiR (subunit molecular mass of 60 kDa) from the Gram-negative bacterium *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* contains a  $c$ -type heme, which accepts electrons from external donors such as cytochrome  $c_{551}$  (5–7), and a  $d_1$  heme, which is the site of substrate binding and catalysis (6, 8). To date, the  $d_1$  heme has only been found in  $cd_1$  NiR.

This unusual heme is a dioxoisobacteriochlorin with partial saturation in two of its carbonyl-containing pyrrole rings (Figure 1) (9). The  $c$  heme is always low-spin and hexacoordinated with histidine and methionine as its axial ligands (10–12), whereas the ferric  $d_1$  heme is low-spin and hexacoordinate with a proximal histidine and a distal hydroxide as its axial ligands. However, upon reduction it becomes high-spin and pentacoordinate, allowing facile substrate binding (10–13). In line with many other heme proteins, a variety of ligands are able to bind to the  $d_1$  heme in both the ferric and ferrous oxidation states. Ligands such as nitric oxide and carbon monoxide bind to the reduced  $d_1$  heme and form stable complexes (6, 8, 14–16).

The catalytic pathway for the conversion of nitrite to NO has not yet been established. It is postulated that following substrate binding, the ferrous  $d_1$  heme donates an electron to nitrite and one oxygen atom is removed by a protonation reaction followed by dehydration (13, 17). This results in the formation of a ferric  $d_1$ –NO complex; the dissociation of NO before re-reduction of the  $d_1$  heme (via the  $c$  heme) is a critical step in catalysis. It has been suggested that the ferric–NO species is an on-pathway intermediate as this derivative is less stable than the ferrous derivative and can release NO more readily; moreover, such a ferric–NO species can be generated in vitro by reacting NO with oxidized  $cd_1$  nitrite reductase (17, 18). Recently, George et al. (19) reported the detection of a ferric heme  $d_1$ –NO complex by time-resolved infrared spectroscopy in the reaction of the fully reduced enzyme with nitrite. If the

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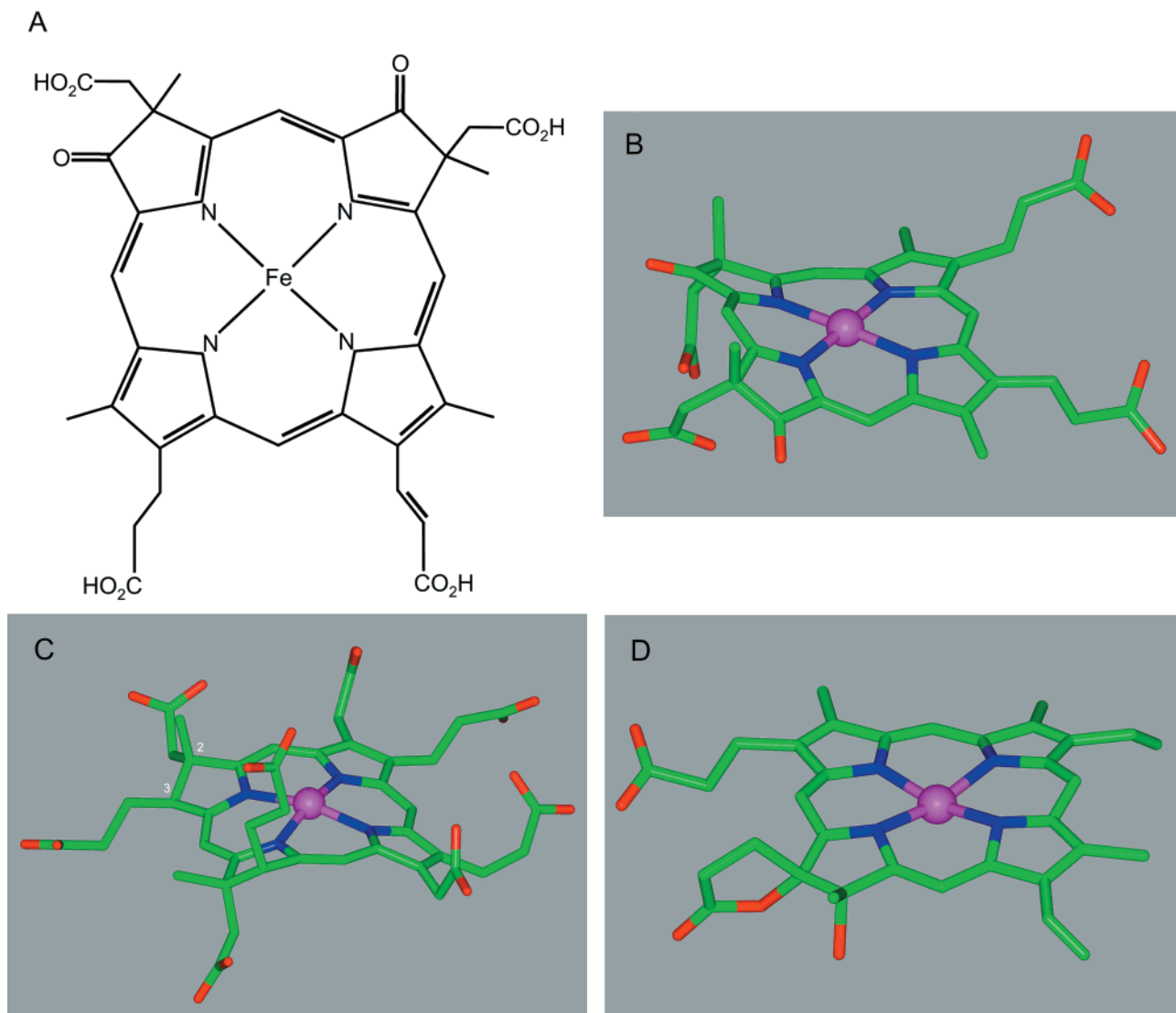


FIGURE 1: (A) Chemical structure of heme  $d_1$ . (B) Stereochemical structure of heme  $d_1$  (PDB entry 1nno), showing the severe nonplanarity of the dioxoisobacteriochlorin ring. For comparison, structures of siroheme of sulfite reductase (C) (PDB entry 1aop) and heme  $d$  of catalase HP11 (D) (PDB entry 1gge) are also shown. Heme  $d_1$  and siroheme (both are isobacteriochlorins) are more strongly ruffled than heme  $d$ . It may be noted that in heme  $d_1$  (B), siroheme (C), and heme  $d$  (D), the proximal ligands are histidine, cysteine, and tyrosine, respectively (not shown).

ferrous  $d_1$ –NO complex is formed, the enzyme becomes locked into a “dead-end” species, due to the very slow dissociation of NO from this adduct (2, 6, 8). Thus, under certain conditions, nitrite reductase is prone to undergoing severe product inhibition. Although the ferrous–NO species should not be significantly populated in the productive enzymatic cycle, this derivative has been identified in many spectroscopic studies when nitrite is added to nitrite reductase (6, 8, 20, 21). The ferrous–NO species has also been observed by stopped-flow kinetic studies, and although this adduct is not catalytically competent, the characterization of its formation is important in establishing the conditions under which the “kinetic trap” is populated (8).

The NO and CO adducts of ferrous  $d_1$  bear a strong resemblance to the corresponding derivatives in other heme proteins, such as hemoglobin and myoglobin. As in nitrosyl-hemoglobin, the  $d_1$ –NO species has a  $S = 1/2$  ground state and is readily detected by EPR spectroscopy. Resonance Raman spectroscopy has proven to be a very powerful technique for the study of CO and NO derivatives of heme

proteins. In particular, the frequencies of the Fe–ligand stretching modes are sensitive to the nature of the heme and the environment in the distal pocket as well as to the nature of the proximal ligand. Furthermore, in the CO complexes, an inverse correlation of the stretching frequencies (thus, the bond orders) between the Fe–CO and C–O stretching modes has been established. Although the ferrous  $d_1$ –NO complexes are frequently compared with those of hemoglobin and myoglobin, one has to keep in mind that the  $d_1$  cofactor is a dioxoisobacteriochlorin and therefore is expected to have electronic properties different from those of other hemes. In this study, we have shown that the stretching frequencies of the NO and CO adducts are unique and indeed very different from those of other heme proteins.

## EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

**Purification of Nitrite Reductase.** Nitrite reductase from *P. aeruginosa* was purified according to the method of Parr and co-workers (22). The preparation was judged to be pure when the oxidized enzyme had a 411 nm/280 nm absorbance

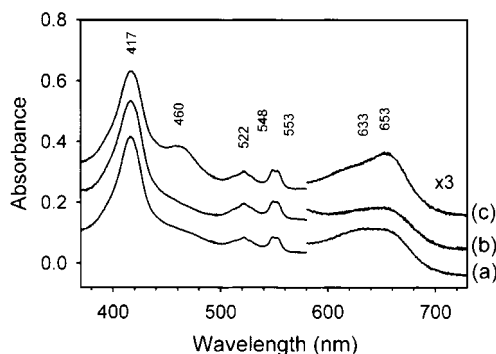


FIGURE 2: Optical spectra of the NO (a) and CO (b) complexes of reduced  $cd_1$  nitrite reductase. The spectrum of the ligand-free reduced enzyme (c) is also shown for comparison. The optical spectra were measured on the same sample that was used for Raman experiments. Reduction was carried out under anaerobic conditions by addition of aliquots of either ascorbate or dithionite in 100 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.4).

ratio of 1.1. The protein concentration (referenced to the concentration of the active sites) was determined using either an  $\epsilon_{411}$  of  $141 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$  or an  $\epsilon_{640}$  of  $20.5 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for the oxidized protein.

**Resonance Raman Spectroscopy.** The excitation source for the Raman experiments was the 441.6 nm beam from a CW He–Cd laser (Liconix, Santa Clara, CA). The sample cell (quartz, 2 mm path length, sample volume of  $\sim 150 \mu\text{L}$ ) into which a laser beam was focused was spun at 3000–6000 rpm to minimize local heating. The sample cells are custom designed for strict anaerobic measurements and also for recording the optical spectra (UV-2100U spectrophotometer, Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan) of the same sample for which the Raman spectra are obtained. The Raman scattered light was focused onto the entrance slit ( $100 \mu\text{m}$ ) of a polychromator (Spex, Metuchen, NJ) and was dispersed by a 1200 grooves/mm grating prior to its detection by a liquid nitrogen-cooled charge-coupled device (CCD) (Princeton Instruments, Trenton, NJ). A Holographic notch filter (Kaiser, Ann Arbor, MI) was used to eliminate Rayleigh scattering. Typically, several 30 s spectra were recorded and averaged. Frequency shifts in the Raman spectra were calibrated using acetone/ $\text{CCl}_4$  (for the 100–1000  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  region), indene (for the 100–1700  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  region), or acetone/potassium ferrocyanide (for the 1700–2400  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  region) as a reference. The accuracy of the Raman shifts is approximately  $\pm 2 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for absolute shifts and approximately  $\pm 0.50 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for relative shifts.

The concentration of the protein samples used for the Raman measurements was  $\sim 50 \mu\text{M}$  in 100 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.4). Reduction of nitrite reductase was carried out using either buffered ascorbate or dithionite under anaerobic conditions. The nitric oxide derivatives were prepared by injecting either  $^{14}\text{N}^{16}\text{O}$  or  $^{15}\text{N}^{16}\text{O}$  ( $\sim 99.4\%$  from ICON, Mt. Marion, NY) gas into the solution of reduced nitrite reductase. Similarly, the carbon monoxide complexes were prepared by the addition of either  $^{12}\text{C}^{16}\text{O}$  or  $^{13}\text{C}^{18}\text{O}$  ( $\sim 99.9\%$  from ICON) gas to the solution of reduced nitrite reductase.

## RESULTS

The reduced form of the heme  $d_1$  in nitrite reductase binds diatomic  $\pi$ -acid ligands such as CO and NO and forms very stable complexes (6, 8, 14–16). Figure 2 shows the optical

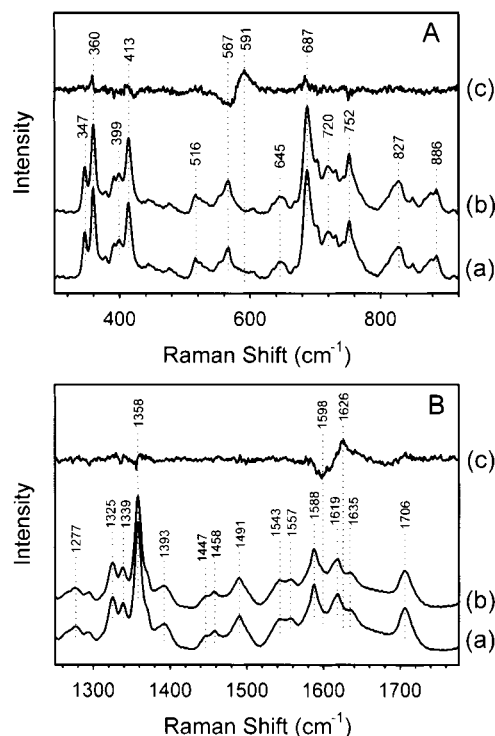


FIGURE 3: Resonance Raman spectra of the NO complex of reduced  $cd_1$ . Under the experimental conditions used here [100 mM phosphate (pH 7.4)], NO binds to the  $d_1$  heme only. The spectra shown are for the nitrite reductase adducts of  $^{14}\text{N}^{16}\text{O}$  (a) and  $^{15}\text{N}^{16}\text{O}$  (b) and the difference ( $^{14}\text{N}^{16}\text{O} - ^{15}\text{N}^{16}\text{O}$ ) (c) in the low-frequency region (A) and in the high-frequency region (B).

spectra of the NO and CO complexes in the Soret and visible region in comparison to that of the ligand-free form. The reduced heme  $c$  in the enzyme has bands at 417 and 522 nm and a doublet at 548/553 nm, which correspond to the transitions in reduced cytochrome  $c$ . Neither NO nor CO binds to heme  $c$  under the experimental conditions that were used; however, at pH  $< 6$ , heme  $c$  is known to bind NO (6). The optical spectrum of the NO-bound  $d_1$  heme consists of a very weak shoulder at  $\sim 457 \text{ nm}$ , and two broad bands at  $\sim 633$  and  $\sim 653 \text{ nm}$ . The CO-bound complex has a very weak shoulder at  $\sim 452 \text{ nm}$  and a broad band at  $\sim 653 \text{ nm}$ . The ligand-free reduced form exhibits a relatively more intense Soret band at 460 nm and a visible region band at 654 nm.

The low-frequency region of the resonance Raman spectra of heme proteins is comprised of several in-plane and out-of-plane vibrational modes of the heme, including the ligand vibrational modes. The vibrational modes due to the metal-bound axial ligands are enhanced by electronic coupling of the orbitals of the ligand to the metalloporphyrin electronic orbitals. Assignment of a ligand vibrational mode is extremely useful as it directly identifies a particular ligand and the nature of its interactions with amino acid residues in the heme pocket.

The resonance Raman measurements of  $cd_1$ , using a 413.1 nm excitation source, predominantly resulted in the enhancement of the heme  $c$  vibrational modes. However, when the 441.6 nm excitation source was used, the vibrational modes due to heme  $d_1$  could be observed. Figure 3 shows the spectra of the NO complex of reduced nitrite reductase. To identify the modes involving NO, the  $^{14}\text{N}^{16}\text{O}$  minus  $^{15}\text{N}^{16}\text{O}$  difference spectrum was obtained. Although, the lines could not be

identified in the absolute low-frequency spectra, in the difference spectrum broad features displaying a maximum at  $\sim 591\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and a minimum at  $\sim 567\text{ cm}^{-1}$  were observed (Figure 3A). A similar isotope frequency shift of  $\sim 25\text{ cm}^{-1}$  was observed for the Fe–NO stretching mode ( $\nu_{\text{Fe-NO}}$ ) in MbNO by Tomita et al. (23). It was noted by them (23) and by others (24) in the past that for small shifts of broad lines, the peak and the trough in the difference spectra have a larger frequency separation than the authentic separation of the modes in the absolute spectra. It then becomes necessary to either calculate the true frequency shift from the line widths, if available, or carry out simulations. In this case, because the line is so weak and overlapped with porphyrin modes, we are unable to determine precisely the absolute position. For an Fe–NO diatomic model, a  $6\text{ cm}^{-1}$  frequency shift is predicted for the  $^{14}\text{N}^{16}\text{O}$  to  $^{15}\text{N}^{16}\text{O}$  comparison for a linear structure, whereas for a highly bent moiety, a  $16\text{ cm}^{-1}$  shift is predicted. In MbNO, a large shift was detected (23), consistent with a bent structure. We assume that this is also the case here on the basis of the structure (21) of nitrite reductase from *P. aeruginosa* (vide infra) and assign the frequency of  $\nu_{\text{Fe-NO}}$  to  $\sim 585\text{ cm}^{-1}$  for  $^{14}\text{N}^{16}\text{O}$ . Our assignment of this line as  $\nu_{\text{Fe-NO}}$  in nitrite reductase is consistent with that in other heme proteins (23, 25–28), although the  $\nu_{\text{Fe-NO}}$  in the present case appears at a higher frequency than that in other heme proteins. We do not detect a line that we can assign as the bending mode. The N–O stretching frequency ( $\nu_{\text{N-O}}$ ) was detected at  $1626\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , and it shifted to  $1598\text{ cm}^{-1}$  upon isotope replacement (Figure 3B). A similar magnitude of the isotope ( $^{14}\text{N}/^{15}\text{N}$ ) shift was observed for the N–O stretching mode of the ferrous NO complex of myoglobin (23). The isotope shift ( $28\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) in the N–O stretching line at  $1626\text{ cm}^{-1}$  is very close to the predicted diatomic (N–O) value of  $29\text{ cm}^{-1}$ .

The resonance Raman spectra of the CO complex are shown in Figure 4. The line at  $563\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (spectrum a, Figure 4A) with  $^{12}\text{C}^{16}\text{O}$  shifts to  $555\text{ cm}^{-1}$  with the  $^{13}\text{C}^{18}\text{O}$  isotope (spectrum b). The  $563\text{ cm}^{-1}$  line apparently overlaps with another vibrational mode, probably arising from heme  $d_1$ , resulting in residual intensity at this frequency with the isotope. In the difference spectrum, the CO-sensitive lines can be clearly seen by the  $563/552\text{ cm}^{-1}$  difference feature. Thus, the Fe–CO stretching frequency is assigned at  $563\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . The magnitude of the isotope shift ( $<11\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) of the  $563\text{ cm}^{-1}$  line is consistent with its assignment as a stretching mode, and not a bending mode. Were it a bending mode, the expected isotope shift would be much larger (typically  $\sim 20\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ). It is to be noted that the Fe–CO stretching mode appears as a very sharp line (fwhm  $\sim 11.7\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ), judged from spectra b and c of Figure 4A, in comparison to that in the CO complex of most other heme proteins (fwhm  $\sim 20\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ). The C–O stretching frequency is identified by the  $1972/1881\text{ cm}^{-1}$  feature in the difference spectrum in the  $1700\text{--}2200\text{ cm}^{-1}$  region as shown in Figure 4B. The line at  $1972\text{ cm}^{-1}$  that we assign as the C–O stretching mode is narrower (fwhm  $\sim 6\text{--}7\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) than the C–O stretching frequencies in most hemoglobins and myoglobins (typically, fwhm  $\sim 10\text{--}12\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ).

## DISCUSSION

Nitrite reductase can reduce nitrite to NO in the presence of electron donors, which can be either macromolecules (such

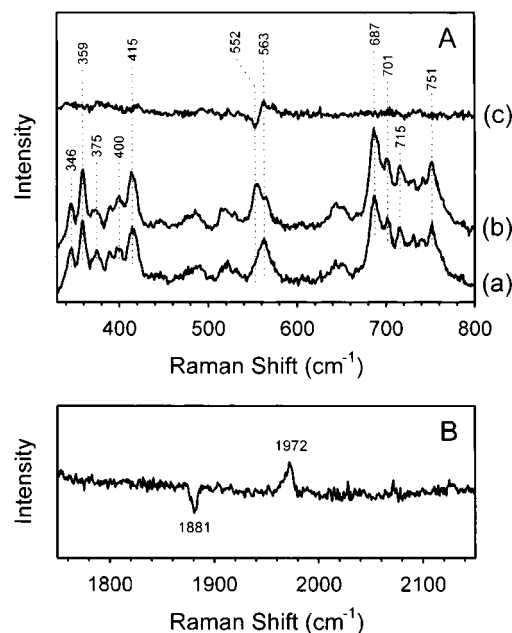


FIGURE 4: Resonance Raman spectra of the CO complex of reduced  $cd_1$ . CO is bound to heme  $d_1$  only. (A) The spectra shown in the low-frequency region are for nitrite reductase with  $^{12}\text{C}^{16}\text{O}$  (a) and with  $^{13}\text{C}^{18}\text{O}$  (b) and the difference ( $^{12}\text{C}^{16}\text{O} - ^{13}\text{C}^{18}\text{O}$ ) (c). (B) The difference spectra ( $^{12}\text{C}^{16}\text{O} - ^{13}\text{C}^{18}\text{O}$ ) in the  $1700\text{--}2200\text{ cm}^{-1}$  region.

as cytochrome  $c_{551}$ ) or nonphysiological donors, such as ascorbate (6, 8). The electron is first transferred to heme  $c$  and subsequently to heme  $d_1$  in a slow reaction (8, 29). Finally, nitrite is reduced to NO by the  $d_1$  heme, and the NO is released. However, under certain conditions, the enzyme produces a reduced NO-bound heme  $d_1$  that is a dead-end product (6, 8, 20, 21). Thus, it is important to characterize the reduced ligand-bound states. While a large number of CO-bound heme protein complexes have been studied by resonance Raman spectroscopy, the study of NO-bound heme proteins has been limited. In this work, we found that the spectroscopic characteristics of the NO and CO complexes of ferrous  $cd_1$  nitrite reductase are distinct from the analogous complexes of other heme proteins and consistent with the formation of very tightly bound ligands in the ferrous derivatives. The anomalous vibrational properties of the FeXY (XY = CO or NO) group in  $cd_1$  nitrite reductase will be discussed below in relation to the unique electronic nature of heme  $d_1$ .

**Structure of Heme  $d_1$ .** The  $d_1$  heme in  $cd_1$  nitrite reductase differs from other iron porphyrins and iron chlorins. Moreover, although the  $d_1$  heme is an isobacteriochlorin, it is different from the isobacteriochlorin of sulfite reductase. In the latter, the macrocycle is a siroheme that has two adjacent partially saturated pyrrole rings (pyrroline) just as in  $cd_1$ , but its peripheral groups are very different from those of  $d_1$  heme. Siroheme contains two unsaturated pyrrole rings each with an acetate and propionate at positions 2 and 3, and two partially saturated pyrrole rings each also having an acetate and propionate group and with an additional methyl group at the acetate-carrying carbon (30). Heme  $d_1$ , on the other hand, contains an oxo group (ketone) at position 3 of each of the two partially saturated pyrrole rings. Additionally, in each of the two unsaturated pyrrole rings, position 2 is occupied by a methyl group, and position 3 contains a



propionate in one and an acrylate in the other. The presence of two partially saturated pyrroles in isobacteriochlorins is likely to account for the origin of the significant distortion of the macrocycle that is evident from the crystal structures of the  $d_1$  heme. See Figure 1 for a comparison between heme  $d_1$ , siroheme, and heme  $d$  from catalase. The macrocycle distortion is most severe in heme  $d_1$ . Additional contributions to the distortion may come from perturbations of the  $\pi$ -electron density due to conjugation of the two keto groups and the acrylate moiety.

Chlorins contain only one partially saturated pyrrole ring. For example, the heme  $d$  in catalase HPII from *Escherichia coli* has a *cis*-hydroxychlorin  $\gamma$ -spirolactone structure (31), and it is less ruffled than either siroheme or heme  $d_1$  (Figure 1). In comparison to a planar metalloporphyrin with  $D_{4h}$  symmetry, the metallochlorin core has reduced symmetry,  $C_2$ . As a result, metallochlorins exhibit additional vibrational modes; however, many of its skeletal modes closely correspond to those of metalloporphyrins (32–34). Furthermore, the interactions between the iron and the axial ligands have been proposed (33) to be similar in iron porphyrins and iron chlorins; thus, the Fe–axial ligand frequencies tend to be in the same frequency range, but they are modulated by the specific properties of the macrocycle.

**CO Adducts.** CO binds to heme proteins only in their ferrous oxidation state and generally assumes a nearly linear Fe–C–O structure. The general factors that influence the frequencies of the Fe–XY and X–Y stretching modes (XY = CO or NO) are reasonably well understood, but the subtle features remain to be resolved. While the extent to which the steric properties of the Fe–XY moiety can influence the stretching vibrations has not been established, the polarity around the Fe–XY moiety plays a very significant role in determining the Fe–XY and X–Y stretching frequencies. The Fe–CO stretching frequency ( $\nu_{\text{Fe–CO}}$ ) in sperm whale myoglobin appears at 509  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ; when the distal histidine is replaced with noninteracting groups, the frequency drops to  $\sim 495 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (see, for example, refs 35–40). On the other hand, one distal pocket mutant of sperm whale myoglobin, Val68Asn, exhibits a significant increase in the frequency of  $\nu_{\text{Fe–CO}}$ , to 526  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  due to an increase in polarity from the asparagine substitution (39, 40). It has been shown that a positively charged or polar environment around CO increases the frequency of  $\nu_{\text{Fe–CO}}$  while a negatively charged or nonpolar environment decreases it (35–43). Accordingly, a low  $\nu_{\text{Fe–CO}}$  frequency (472  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) in the CO complex of one preparation of guanylate cyclase has been proposed to be due to the presence of a negatively charged group near the CO (44). Studies of the CO complexes of several heme proteins have established that there is an inverse correlation between the frequencies of  $\nu_{\text{Fe–CO}}$  and  $\nu_{\text{C–O}}$  (Figure 5). The inverse correlation holds because of the  $\pi$ -acceptor ability of CO, resulting in back-donation of  $d_{\pi}$  electrons from  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  to the empty  $\pi^*$  orbital of CO. Thus, a positive change in the Fe–CO stretching frequency results in a negative change in the frequency of the C–O stretching. The correlation holds for heme proteins containing either histidine or cysteine as proximal ligands with a wide range (472–543  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) of  $\nu_{\text{Fe–CO}}$  values. The difference between the histidine and the cysteine correlation curves is due to greater electron density on the thiolate anion, as compared to histidine, weakening the Fe–C  $\sigma$  bond by competing for the  $\text{Fe}^{2+} dz^2$  orbital. The

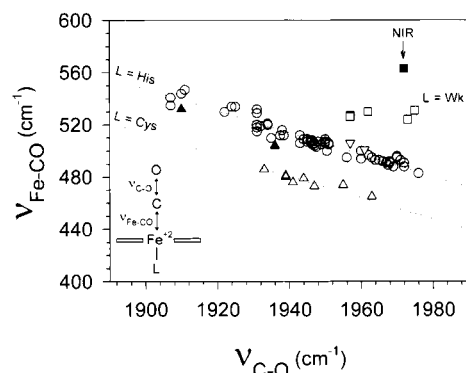


FIGURE 5: Inverse correlation plot of the Fe–CO ( $\nu_{\text{Fe–CO}}$ ) and C–O ( $\nu_{\text{C–O}}$ ) stretching frequencies. The points denoted with circles are for various hemoglobins, myoglobins, and peroxidases that contain histidine as their proximal ligand (L). It also includes a few points that represent model heme  $d$  (chlorin) complexes ( $\nabla$ ). The black square denotes  $cd_1$  nitrite reductase. The upward triangles ( $\Delta$ ) are for different cytochrome P450s that have cysteine as a proximal ligand. The black upward triangles ( $\blacktriangle$ ) are for siroheme of sulfite reductase that also has a cysteine as a proximal ligand. In the case of a weak proximal ligand or the absence of a proximal ligand ( $\square$ ), no correlation is observed. The dotted lines represent a linear regression analysis through each set of points.

back-bonding phenomenon is not observed when the proximal ligand is either weak or absent; however, the Fe–C  $\sigma$  bond strength is increased in those cases. Additionally, in the case of cytochrome  $c$  oxidase, the inverse correlation is not observed because of steric interactions with  $\text{Cu}_B$ , which have been postulated to compress both the Fe–C and C–O bonds, resulting in an increase in  $\nu_{\text{Fe–CO}}$  as well as  $\nu_{\text{C–O}}$  (45).

The Fe–CO stretching mode of nitrite reductase appears at a frequency (563  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) higher than that of any known  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$ –CO heme complex. It is well established that a strong polar environment around the CO increases the frequency of the Fe–CO stretching mode. The distal pocket of the  $d_1$  heme in fact contains three polar residues, His369, His327, and Tyr10 (13, 21). Hydrogen bonding between the heme  $d_1$ -bound ligands and the two histidines and the tyrosine has been proposed to be critical in various steps of the catalytic cycle of nitrite reductase (17). It should also be noted that the widths (fwhm) of the Fe–CO and C–O bands are smaller than those of the corresponding bands in CO complexes of many heme proteins. One possible reason is that the CO is held in a very structured distal pocket due to interactions with the distal pocket residues that are organized by an extensive H-bonding network (13, 46). This is consistent with the observation of a slow rate of CO dissociation (0.03–0.041  $\text{s}^{-1}$ ) from the CO complex of this enzyme (14, 15).<sup>1</sup> The strong positive polarity in the distal pocket (Figure 6) is expected to enhance the back-bonding, resulting in an increased frequency of the Fe–CO bond and a concomitant decrease in the C–O stretching mode. However, the C–O stretching mode is located at 1972  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , a very high frequency. Consequently, the CO adduct of nitrite reductase does not lie on the inverse correlation curve relating the Fe–

<sup>1</sup> Parr and co-workers measured the dissociation rate constant for CO by using NO and  $\text{O}_2$  to displace CO from the ascorbate-reduced CO complex, and observed biphasic kinetics with rate constants of 0.03 and 0.15  $\text{s}^{-1}$  (14). However, Wharton and Gibson (15) estimated a dissociation rate of 0.041  $\text{s}^{-1}$  with the dithionite-reduced enzyme, whereas the model used by Wilson et al. (16) yielded a rate of 0.12  $\text{s}^{-1}$ .

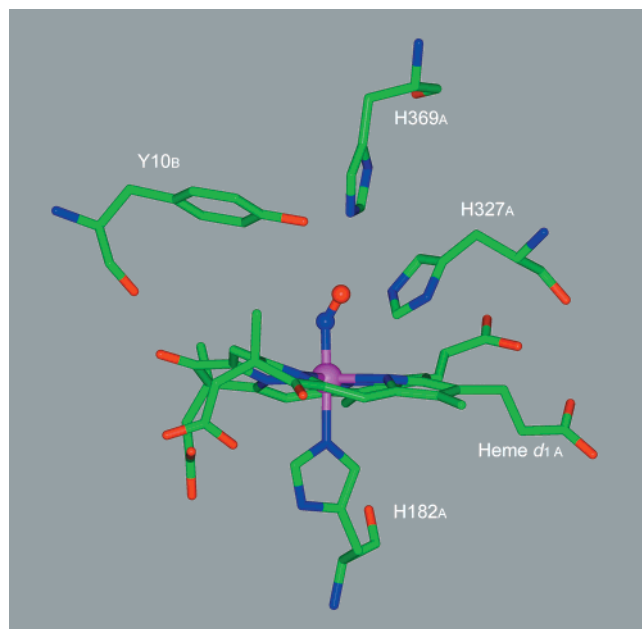


FIGURE 6: Structure of the NO-bound  $d_1$  heme of  $cd_1$  nitrite reductase from *P. aeruginosa* (PDB entry 1nno). Only selective residues around the  $d_1$  heme of one monomer (designated as A) are shown. His182 is the proximal histidine. The distal pocket contains two histidine residues (His369 and His327 which are 2.6 and 3.4 Å, respectively, from the oxygen of NO) of the same monomer and one tyrosine residue (4.2 Å from the oxygen of NO) of the second monomer (B).

CO and C–O stretching frequencies (Figure 5). Instead, it falls at a much higher position in the diagram, far from the correlation line for proximal histidine-containing heme proteins, although the proximal ligand of heme  $d_1$  is a histidine (His182). Steric factors, distorting the CO, do not appear to play a role in significantly affecting the frequency since in the closely related nitrite reductase from *Paracoccus denitrificans*, the Fe–C–O moiety was only slightly bent away from normal to the heme (46).

We propose that the displacement of the CO adduct from the Fe–CO versus C–O correlation curve is due to the difference in the electronic properties of heme  $d_1$  compared to other hemes. The ruffled structure of *isobacteriochlorins* affects the overlap between the orbitals of the metal and the macrocycle. Thus, the balance between equatorial and axial  $\pi$  back-bonding in the CO complex is very different from that in iron porphyrins. As a result, the Fe–C–O frequencies of  $cd_1$  do not fall on the  $\nu_{\text{Fe–CO}}$  versus  $\nu_{\text{C–O}}$  correlation line. On the other hand, the balance between equatorial and axial  $\pi$  back-bonding in iron *chlorins* appears to be similar to that in iron porphyrins; thus, most *chlorins* lie on the inverse correlation curve (Figure 5) relating the Fe–CO and C–O stretching frequencies (32), consistent with the suggestions of Kitagawa and Ozaki (33). It may be noted that the Fe–CO and C–O frequencies (47) of the CO complex of the siroheme (also an *isobacteriochlorin* with a strongly ruffled structure as shown in Figure 1, but in which the proximal ligand is cysteine) in sulfite reductase also do not fall on the correlation line of cysteine-containing heme proteins (Figure 5), although CO binds in a nearly linear fashion (30).

**NO Adducts.** In contrast to the well-established back-bonding correlation in CO derivatives of heme proteins, it has not been established yet if a back-bonding correlation

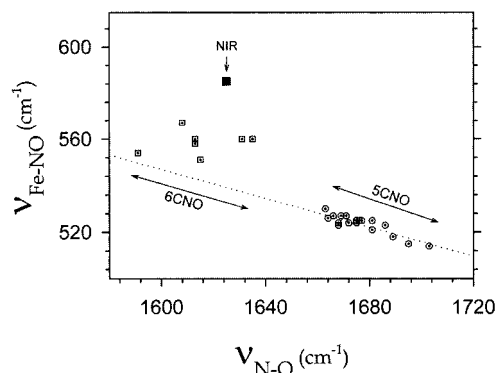


FIGURE 7: Plot relating the Fe–NO ( $\nu_{\text{Fe–NO}}$ ) and N–O ( $\nu_{\text{N–O}}$ ) stretching frequencies. The circles are for five-coordinate heme–NO complexes, and the squares are for six-coordinate NO complexes of heme proteins. The black square denotes the ferrous NO complex of  $cd_1$  nitrite reductase.

between Fe–NO and N–O stretching frequencies exists in *hexacoordinated* NO complexes of heme proteins. An inverse relationship between the Fe–NO and N–O frequencies was reported recently (48) in *pentacoordinate* NO ferrous complexes of model hemes (48–50) containing different peripheral substituents (see Figure 7). Although neither the effect of the distal residues nor the proximal factor on Fe–NO or N–O frequencies was determined in that study (48), it is clear that a change in the electron density in the porphyrin ring that affects the bond order of the Fe–NO species concomitantly alters the N–O bond order in the pentacoordinate NO complexes and yields a reasonable inverse correlation. The scattered nature of the limited number of data points that are available for the hexacoordinate NO ferrous complexes (Figure 7) makes the back-bonding correlation between Fe–NO and N–O bond orders in hexacoordinate complexes uncertain.

The NO complex of reduced nitrite reductase shows unusual vibrational frequencies just as the CO derivative displayed unusual frequencies. The  $\nu_{\text{Fe–NO}}$  mode appears at a higher frequency (585  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) than those in the ferrous NO complexes of other heme proteins (23, 25–28, 44, 51–56). Although the frequency of  $\nu_{\text{Fe–NO}}$  for the His–Fe–NO structure is known only for a limited number of heme proteins (23, 25–28, 51–54), they are all clustered at  $\sim 560 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (Figure 7). The  $\nu_{\text{N–O}}$  values in these complexes ( $\sim 1590$ – $1640 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) (23, 25–28, 51–54, 57), however, are spread out, and that of nitrite reductase (1626  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) falls in the middle of the distribution. The pentacoordinate ferrous heme–NO complexes show distinct frequencies from the hexacoordinate complexes as shown in Figure 7. Surprisingly, the frequency of  $\nu_{\text{Fe–NO}}$  in *ferrous* nitrite reductase is very similar to that in the *ferric* heme–NO moieties of myoglobin (595  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) and other heme proteins (26) and model heme complexes ( $\sim 600 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) (49), although the frequency of  $\nu_{\text{N–O}}$  in globins and other heme proteins is observed at a much higher frequency ( $\sim 1927 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) (58, 59). The crystal structure of the NO complex of reduced nitrite reductase shows that NO is surrounded by three polar residues (His369, His327, and Tyr10) and is strongly hydrogen bonded to His369 at a distance of 2.6 Å (21). Such an arrangement in the distal pocket would be expected to exert a strong polar effect on the Fe-bound NO, and could increase the Fe–NO bond order just as in Fe–CO com-

plexes. A possible steric effect must also be considered. However, the crystal structure of the ferrous NO form of nitrite reductase from *P. aeruginosa* shows that the Fe–N–O angle is 135° (21). This is similar to that observed in NO derivatives in heme proteins (60, 61) and model complexes (62), and consequently, no large change in the geometry expected from electronic structure considerations occurs in the complex. Thus, the observation that the nitrite reductase NO complex is positioned at a much higher value in the  $\nu_{\text{Fe-NO}}$  versus  $\nu_{\text{N-O}}$  plot (Figure 7) suggests that the distinct structure of heme  $d_1$  causes unusual frequencies of Fe–NO stretching just as in the case of Fe–CO stretching discussed in the preceding section. A strong Fe–NO bond identified in this study is highly consistent with the formation of a dead-end NO complex of the enzyme observed in several studies.

## CONCLUSIONS

The anomalously high frequencies of Fe–CO and Fe–NO stretching in the  $cd_1$  nitrite reductase of *P. aeruginosa* suggest that the unique electronic nature of heme  $d_1$  in comparison to other hemes plays a significant role in determining the vibrational properties. The unique electronic nature of heme  $d_1$  is reflected in its strongly ruffled structure. The high frequencies for the Fe–CO and Fe–NO stretching modes indicating strong bonding of the exogenous ligands to the heme  $d_1$  provide a clue as to why the ferrous–NO complex is formed under a variety of in vitro experimental conditions and the enzyme is strongly inhibited. Thus, a delicate balance between electron transfer and ligand channeling is extremely important in  $cd_1$  in maintaining continued enzymatic function. It is also possible that formation of the NO-inhibited complex could serve as an effective autoinhibitory control on the enzymatic activity just as that proposed for nitric oxide synthase (63).

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