

Biochimica et Biophysica Acta 1229 (1995) 334-346



# Bradhyrhizobium japonicum hydrogen-ubiquinone oxidoreductase activity: quinone specificity, inhibition by quinone analogs, and evidence for separate sites of electron acceptor reactivity

Daniel M. Ferber <sup>1</sup>, Beverly Moy <sup>2</sup>, Robert J. Maier \*

Department of Biology, The Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD 21218, USA Received 27 July 1994; revised 17 January 1995; accepted 24 January 1995

#### **Abstract**

The purified H<sub>2</sub>-uptake hydrogenase of Bradyrhizobium japonicum, containing no cytochrome b, catalyzed efficient H<sub>2</sub>-ubiquinone oxidoreductase activity. Hydrogen-oxidizing membranes also catalyzed H2-ubiquinone oxidoreductase activity, and the site of ubiquinone reduction was localized to the H2-quinone oxidoreductase complex based on comparative antimycin A and HQNO titrations of both H<sub>2</sub>-ubiquinone-1 oxidoreductase and ubiquinol-1 oxidase activities. A variety of quinones could function as electron acceptors of both pure or membrane-bound hydrogenase, including ubiquinone-0  $(Q_0)$ , ubiquinone-1  $(Q_1)$ , duroquinone and menadione, indicating relatively loose substrate specificity with regard to the quinone head group. Both the redox potential and the quinone structure determined the efficiency of hydrogenase turnover. Among short-chain ubiquinones, the isoprenoid chain length had a profound affect on  $K_{\rm m}$ , with each additional isoprenoid unit resulting in the  $K_{\rm m}$  of the membrane-bound enzyme to decrease more than an order of magnitude. For pure enzyme, the  $K_{\rm m}$  values for  $Q_0$ ,  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$  were 1.97 mM, 68.8  $\mu$ M and 3.1  $\mu$ M, respectively.  $V_{\rm max}$  was also influenced by the substrate isoprenoid chain length for the pure enzyme. The inhibition patterns of H2-dependent Q1 versus MB reduction by the quinone analogs (2-n-heptyl-4-hydroxyquinoline N-oxide and Antimycin A) were significantly different, and clear differences in pH optima for the two activities were observed. In addition, the two hydrogen-dependent electron acceptor activities (Q1 and MB) exhibited different time-dependent inactivation patterns by the chemical modification reagent diazobenzene sulfonate. Ubiquinone and MB therefore react by different mechanisms (perhaps at different sites) within the hydrogenase complex in situ. The inhibition pattern of hydrogen-ubiquinone oxidoreductase activity by antimycin A was clearly different than antimycin A inhibition of ubiquinol oxidation at the  $bc_1$  complex. This is, to our knowledge, the first report of antimycin A inhibition of a hydrogenase complex, and also of a quinone reducing site of a primary dehydrogenase. When pure hydrogenase is assayed in the absence of dithionite, a delay (lag phase) is observed prior to attainment of full activity. The length of this lag period (in minutes) was inversely dependent on ubiquinone concentration, and was greatly reduced (but not eliminated) at saturating ubiquinone levels. These effects were obtained with both Q<sub>1</sub> and MB as electron acceptor, and the lag phases with Q1 were significantly longer than with MB. Electron acceptor binding to hydrogenase is thus required for reductive activation of hydrogenase during turnover.

Keywords: Hydrogenase; Quinone; Methylene blue; Electron transport; (B. japonicum)

Abbreviations: BSA, bovine serum albumin; DABS, diazobenzene sulfonate; DBMIB, 2,5-dibromo-3-methyl-6-isopropyl-p-benzoquinone; DCMU, 3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea; DMN, 2,3-dimethyl-1,4-naphthoquinone; Duroquinone, 2,3,5,6-tetramethyl-1,4-benzoquinone; EMS, ethylmethane sulfonate; EPR, electron paramagnetic resonance spectroscopy; HQNO, 2-n-heptyl-4-hydroxyquinoline N-oxide; Menadione, 2-methyl-1,4-naphthoquinone (menaquinone-O); MK, menaquinone; MB, Methylene blue; PMSF, phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride; Q<sub>1</sub>, ubiquinone-1; Q, ubiquinone; For Q and MK, the number of prenyl units in the side chain is indicated by the subscript following the abbreviation.

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author. e-mail: Maier\_rj@jhuvms.hcf.jhu.edu; Fax: +1 (410) 5165213.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Present address: Department of Microbiology, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 407 S. Goodwin St., Urbana, IL 61801, USA.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Present address: Albert Einstein College of Medicine, Bronx, NY, USA.

#### 1. Introduction

Hydrogenases are a diverse group of H<sub>2</sub>-activating enzymes which occur in a variety of prokaryotic organisms [1-3]. A large subset of these enzymes, the NiFe-hydrogenases, contain two subunits, one each of approx. 65 and 33 kDa, and Ni and two or three Fe-S clusters as prosthetic groups. The NiFe-hydrogenases from diverse species of aerobic N<sub>2</sub>-fixing bacteria, aerobic H<sub>2</sub>-oxidizing bacteria, purple non-sulfur bacteria, green sulfur bacteria, methylotrophs, enteric bacteria, and sulfate-reducing bacteria have been shown to be immunologically related [4-7]. The structural genes encoding the membrane-bound hydrogenase from many of these bacteria have been sequenced and show a high degree of homology (see [8] and [9] for reviews). Membrane-bound NiFe-hydrogenases generally couple H<sub>2</sub>-oxidation to an energy-generating, membranebound electron transport chain. A lipophilic quinone functions in electron transport between hydrogenase and the terminal reductase in these electron transport chains; the specific quinones used (menaquinone, ubiquinone, or plastoquinone) varies with the particular system [10–13].

The identity of the specific redox components functioning between H<sub>2</sub> and quinone in these organisms remains controversial. In the aerobic, N<sub>2</sub>-fixing bacterium Bradyrhizobium japonicum we have recently demonstrated efficient H<sub>2</sub>-ubiquinone oxidoreductase activity by purified heterodimeric hydrogenase, containing no detectable cytochromes. The enzyme catalyzed  $H_2$ - $Q_1^1$  oxidoreductase activity at rates up to 47% of H<sub>2</sub>-linked MB reducing activity [14] and was the first direct demonstration of H<sub>2</sub>-ubiquinone oxidoreductase activity by a purified hydrogenase. However, H2-linked quinone reduction was demonstrated in a trimeric hydrogenase complex from the anaerobic rumen bacterium Wolinella succinogenes. In addition to a 60 kDa large subunit and a 30 kDa small subunit, this complex contained a b-type cytochrome. The cytochrome b of the complex was proposed to be the direct electron donor to menaquinone, since H2-dependent reduction of the cytochrome b and the menaquinone analog DMN was observed [15]. Previous proposals for the possible direct electron acceptor of membrane-bound hydrogenases include ubiquinone [11,13], cytochromes [16-18] and an unidentified electron carrier [19]. The proposed involvement of all of these carriers were based on experiments with membrane vesicles containing many redox-active components, rather than with purified or reconstituted systems, so the direct electron acceptor from hydrogenase has not been rigorously identified.

Many membrane-bound heterodimeric NiFe hydrogenases, including the B. japonicum enzyme, have been purified and extensively studied using artificial electron acceptors such as MB [1-3,20-22], the most commonly used electron acceptor for hydrogenase assays. Because of the lack of available information on the  $H_2$ -quinone oxidoreductase reaction and the likelihood that it represents a

more 'physiological' reaction as compared with the H<sub>2</sub>-MB oxidoreductase reaction, it is important to characterize and compare the two reactions by both membranes and purified hydrogenase. Here we present data which indicate that both the redox potential and structure of quinones play a role in determining the substrate specificity of different quinones with hydrogenase. In addition, H2-dependent reduction of ubiquinone and MB behave differently with respect to pH optima and inhibition by quinone analogs, and the two activities were differentially inactivated by chemical modification with DABS. These results indicate that MB and ubiquinone react by different mechanisms with the hydrogenase complex in situ. Finally, experiments on H<sub>2</sub>-dependent activation of purified hydrogenase during turnover demonstrated that the electron acceptor concentration dictates the delay period (lag phase) required to achieve maximal rates of both (H2-dependent) ubiquinone and MB reduction. The length of the lag phase is significantly decreased at saturating levels of electron acceptor, demonstrating that acceptor binding is a necessary step in hydrogenase activation during turnover.

#### 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Bacterial strains and culture conditions

B. japonicum strain SR473, an EMS-induced regulatory mutant which expresses hydrogenase constitutively [23], was grown aerobically and heterotrophically at 29° C. Cells were grown in 15-liter batches to a density of  $(6-8) \cdot 10^8$  cells/ml in modified Bergerson's medium [24] supplemented with 5  $\mu$ M NiCl<sub>2</sub> [25], and washed in 50 mM potassium phosphate, 2.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub> (pH 7.0). Cells were used immediately for membrane preparations and stored at  $-80^{\circ}$  C for hydrogenase preparations. The hydrogenase in these cells is indistinguishable from the enzyme in derepressed wild-type cells [25].

### 2.2. Preparation of membrane vesicles

Membrane vesicles were prepared from 15 L batches of freshly harvested and washed cells as previously described [26]: Membranes were aliquotted and rapidly frozen, and stored in liquid  $N_2$ . Membranes stored in this way retained over 95% of their  $H_2$  uptake activity to  $O_2$  over a period of months. Membranes were kept at  $0^{\circ}$  C under Ar during experiments.

### 2.3. Purification of hydrogenase

Hydrogenase was solubilized from extracts of 15-30 g of heterotrophically grown cells and purified aerobically as previously described [25]. All buffers contained 0.2-1.0 mM PMSF. The eluate of the Reactive Red 120-agarose column was concentrated by ultrafiltration using an Ami-

con concentrator with a YM-10 membrane, rapidly frozen and stored in liquid  $N_2$ . Hydrogenase stored this way was stable for 1 year. The apparent quality of the purified preparation affected the delay period (lag phase) required to reach full activity (Fig. 7); the lag phase for pure hydrogenase was somewhat variable from preparation to preparation, ranging from 5 to 12 min under identical assay conditions with 200  $\mu$ M  $Q_1$  as electron acceptor. It is noteworthy that preparations with higher specific activities showed short lag phases upon assay.

### 2.4. Measurement of $H_2$ and $O_2$ uptake

H<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> were measured simultaneously amperometrically. A model YSI-5331 Clark-type O<sub>2</sub> electrode (Yellow Springs Instruments, Yellow Springs, OH) was used for amperometric O2 measurement and modified for amperometric H<sub>2</sub> measurement [27,28]. The H<sub>2</sub> electrode preconditioning protocol and interfacing circuitry for both electrodes were modified from that previously devised for use with the YSI-4004 O<sub>2</sub> electrode [27], which was discontinued by the manufacturer. In order to precondition the probe for H<sub>2</sub> measurement, AgCl is deposited on the Ag electrode by immersing the tip in 0.1 M HCl and applying a voltage of +9 V from a battery for approx. 30 min. During this procedure, H2 bubbles rapidly from the tip of the Pt electrode. Electrode lifetime is adversely affected by prolonged periods of preconditioning. The electrode is then assembled as per manufacturer's instructions and inserted into the experimental chamber; baseline equilibration occurs over approx. 1 h. Unlike the previously described protocols for H2 measurement using the YSI-4004 electrode, no initial pretreatment with H<sub>2</sub> gas is necessary to increase electrode sensitivity or decrease response time; in fact, such treatment actually decreases the sensitivity of the electrode. 90% of full response is attained in 10 s; full response occurs over 60-90 s. The signal is quite stable except for slow leakage of H2 from the chamber (<5% over 10 min); this background rate was subtracted in order to normalize the H<sub>2</sub> consumption rates. The signal is linear with  $H_2$  concentrations from 0.4  $\mu$ M to 100  $\mu$ M in solution.

 $H_2$  uptake assays with quinones or MB as electron acceptors were conducted as previously described [14]. All activities were calculated from the linear phase on the  $H_2$  uptake progress curve [14]. One unit represents 1  $\mu$ mol/min/mg. Assays with  $O_2$  as electron acceptor ( $H_2$ - $O_2$  activity or  $Q_1H_2$ - $O_2$  activity) were done under microaerobic conditions (15–30  $\mu$ M  $O_2$ ); maximal levels of  $H_2$ - $O_2$  activity were observed under these conditions (data not shown). Buffer was sparged with Ar at a constant rate during the course of an experiment, then transferred (without introducing air bubbles) to the chamber, which was immediately sealed.  $O_2$  levels (monitored amperometrically) varied less than 5  $\mu$ M during the course of an individual experiment. For  $Q_1H_2$  oxidase assays 200  $\mu$ M

 $Q_1$  was reduced by 2.0 mM dithioerythritol during the assay.

### 2.5. Inhibition by quinone analogs

Components were added to the assay buffer [14] composed of 50 mM potassium phosphate, 2.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub> (pH 6.2) in the following order: sample, glucose oxidase and catalase, glucose, H<sub>2</sub> (10.8  $\mu$ M), NaCN (250  $\mu$ M) and inhibitor. Reactions were initiated immediately by addition of electron acceptor. Inhibitors were added as ethanolic aliquots, such that the total concentration of ethanol was less than 1%. This concentration of ethanol did not effect H<sub>2</sub> uptake rates by membranes or pure hydrogenase. HQNO was soluble in the assay buffer at all concentrations used; antimycin A was partially insoluble above 150  $\mu$ M. The antimycin A used in these experiments is a mixture of the A<sub>1</sub> and A<sub>3</sub> isomers.

#### 2.6. $H_2$ -ubiquinone kinetics

Various soluble and hydrophobic ubiquinone homologs were studied in steady-state kinetics experiments in order to determine their  $K_{\rm m}$  and  $V_{\rm max}$  values. A single preparation of enzyme or membranes was used for these experiments in order to avoid variation in specific activity among different preparations. All assays were done as previously described, using the glucose oxidase system to remove  $O_2$  [14]. NaCN (250  $\mu$ M) was present in all assay mixtures; and assay mixtures were identical for membranes and purified hydrogenase. NaCN inhibits > 98% of  $O_2$ -linked  $H_2$  uptake in membranes (data not shown), thus all  $H_2$  uptake measured was due to quinone reduction.  $H_2$  uptake rates were calculated from the linear phase of  $H_2$  uptake (following the non-linear lag period of reductive activation) and data were fit to the Michaelis-Menten equation

$$V = \frac{[Q]V_{\text{max}}}{(K_{\text{m}} + [Q])}$$

by non linear least-squares regression. Non-linear regression was done with the curve-fitting function of SigmaPlot (Jandel Scientific, Corte Madera, CA), which uses the Marquardt-Levenberg algorithm.

# 2.7. pH optima determination and chemical modification experiments

H<sub>2</sub>-Q<sub>1</sub> or H<sub>2</sub>-MB oxidoreductase activity was assayed in membranes or purified hydrogenase as described above (Section 2.4), except that the buffer was 25 mM Mes, 25 mM Hepes, 25 mM Tris and 25 mM glycine adjusted to the appropriate pH (4.5–9.0) with HCl or NaOH. All points represent averages of two or three determinations. The chemical modification experiments using DABS were performed exactly as described [29], except that samples

were incubated at  $0^{\circ}$  C for 10 min rather than 5 min prior to initiation of the modification reaction by the addition of DABS. DABS was synthesized as previously described [30] and stored in aliquots at  $-80^{\circ}$  C. DABS was used at a final concentration of 1.0 mM, in 50 mM potassium phosphate (pH 8.0). Membranes were diluted at least 1:3 from their storage buffer (Buffer B in Ref. [14]) and activities ( $H_2$ - $Q_1$  or  $H_2$ -MB) were determined as described above at different time points.

#### 2.8. Synthesis of ubiquinone-2

Ubiquinone-2 (Q2) was synthesized by a modification of a previously described method [31]. The modifications were as follows: [1] diethyl ether was treated with FeCl<sub>2</sub> to remove peroxides prior to use, [2] following reaction of Q<sub>0</sub>H<sub>2</sub> with linalool, the reaction mixture was diluted in 150 ml diethyl ether and washed six times with 50 ml of 5% NaHCO<sub>3</sub>. In addition, following the washing and drying steps, the product was purified by preparative chromatography over two successive Silica-gel 60 (Whatman) columns developed in hexanes/diethyl ether (5:1, v/v) and toluene/acetone (97:3, v/v), respectively. Column fractions were identified by analytical thin-layer chromatography on silica gel (Whatman K5) in an optimized solvent system of toluene/acetone (97:3, v/v), which cleanly separated Q<sub>1</sub>, the product and Q<sub>4</sub> (data not shown). The product migrated with an intermediate  $R_{\rm F}$  between  $Q_1$ and Q<sub>4</sub>: R<sub>F</sub> values for Q<sub>1</sub>, product and Q<sub>4</sub> were 0.38, 0.44 and 0.52, respectively. Ubiquinones were identified on the TLC plates by their yellow color, and purity of the product was confirmed by I2 staining. The identity of the product as a ubiquinone was confirmed by UV/visible redox difference spectrophotometry (NaBH<sub>4</sub>-reduced minus airoxidized); the concentration of the product was calculated using  $\Delta \epsilon_{\text{red-ox, 278 300}} = 10.6 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [32], assuming the  $Q_2$  had a  $\Delta \epsilon_{\text{red}-\text{ox}, 278\ 300}$  identical to that of  $Q_1$ . The product was further identified by fast-ion bombardment mass spectrometry (m/z) of the product, 319; corresponding to  $C_{19}H_{27}O_4$ ).

### 2.9. Protein determination

Total protein was measured with a modified Lowry assay [33], using BSA as a standard.

### 2.10. Chemicals and reagents

 $Q_1$  and  $Q_4$  were kind gifts of Hoffman-LaRoche, Inc., Nutley, NJ.  $Q_0$ , decyl-Q,  $Q_{10}$ , menadione, duroquinone, vitamin  $K_1$ , vitamin  $K_2$ , DBMIB, DCMU, HQNO, antimycin A (Catalog No. A-8674) and myxothiazol were obtained from Sigma; as were glucose oxidase (Type X-S), bovine liver catalase, DNase, PMSF, butylated hydroxytoluenes. Linalool was obtained from Aldrich. Argon (type HP), nitrogen (type HP) and hydrogen (type PP) were

obtained from Linde Gases of Baltimore, Baltimore, MD. All other chemicals were of reagent grade and were obtained from Sigma or J.T. Baker Chemical Co., Phillipsburg, NJ.

#### 3. Results

# 3.1. $H_2$ -dependent ubiquinone reduction in membranes occurs at the hydrogenase complex

H<sub>2</sub>-Q<sub>1</sub> oxidoreductase activity is catalyzed by both purified heterodimeric H<sub>2</sub>-uptake hydrogenase (containing no cytochrome b) and membrane vesicles from B. japonicum [14]. In order to characterize and compare the H<sub>2</sub>quinone oxidoreductase activity of the in situ hydrogenase complex with that of purified hydrogenase, it was important to ascertain that exogenous Q1 is actually reduced at the hydrogenase complex in situ. B. japonicum contains a cytochrome  $bc_1$  complex which is expressed in both bacteroids and free-living cells, and mutants lacking this complex are deficient in H<sub>2</sub>-O<sub>2</sub> respiration (17% of the wild-type level) [34]. Although this complex catalyzes the net oxidation of one quinol molecule, the currently accepted Q-cycle model for cytochrome  $bc_1$  complex catalysis states that one molecule of quinone is reduced at center N of the complex for every two molecules of quinol oxidized at center P [35,36], thus it was possible that Q<sub>1</sub> reduction was occurring via center N of the cytochrome  $bc_1$  complex.  $Q_1$  reduction at center N could thus occur by two different mechanisms, which were tested in separate experiments. In order to test the possibility of center N-dependent  $Q_1$  reduction, coupled to  $Q_{10}H_2$  oxidation at center P, we tested for inhibition with myxothiazol, which specifically inhibits quinol oxidation at center P [35]. No inhibition of Q<sub>1</sub> reduction was found by 20  $\mu$ M myxothiazol, despite the fact that the same concentrations of inhibitor dramatically inhibited Q<sub>1</sub>H<sub>2</sub>- and H<sub>2</sub>-linked O<sub>2</sub> uptake (see Table 1). Since myxothiazol inhibits 76% of the  $H_2$ - $O_2$  oxidoreductase activity and 96% of the  $Q_1H_2$ - $O_2$ 

Effect of myxothiazol on quinone reduction and quinol oxidation

Assay	Specific activity	% Inhibition	
	control	myxothiazol a	
$\overline{\mathbf{H}_{2}\text{-}\mathbf{Q}_{1}}$	556 ± 26 (3)	575 ± 11 (3)	-3.4
$H_2-O_2$	$44 \pm 6.5 (3)$	$10.3 \pm 3.1 (4)$	76.4
$Q_1H_2-O_2$	$74 \pm 6.7 (3)$	$3.2 \pm 0.2 (3)$	95.7

 $H_2$  and  $O_2$  uptake in membranes (86–172  $\mu g$  protein) were assayed amperometrically as described in Materials and Methods. Specific activities (nmol/min/mg) are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  S.E. (n determinations). For  $H_2$ - $Q_1$  activity  $H_2$  uptake was assayed in the presence of 200  $\mu M$   $Q_1$ . For  $H_2$ - $Q_2$  activity and ubiquinol ( $Q_1H_2$ ) oxidation activity, oxygen uptake was monitored [14] microaerobically as described in Materials and Methods.  $Q_1H_2$  (200  $\mu M$ ) was reduced with 2.0 mM dithioerythritol

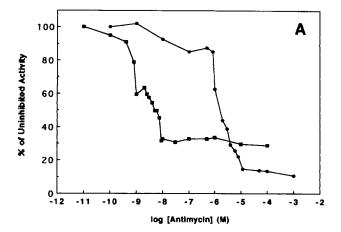
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Myxothiazol was added to a concentration of 20  $\mu$ M.

activity, most electron flow to  $O_2$  probably proceeds through a myxothiazol-sensitive cytochrome  $bc_1$  complex. Since myxothiazol does not inhibit  $H_2$ -linked  $Q_1$  reduction, reduction of  $Q_1$  at center N is not coupled to  $Q_{10}$   $H_2$  oxidation at center P.

The second possible mechanism of Q<sub>1</sub> reduction at the  $bc_1$  complex involves a quinol-quinone transhydrogenation at center N via a ping-pong mechanism, as reported for the cytochrome  $bc_1$  complexes from Neurospora crassa, bovine heart and potato [37-39]. This possibility was tested by performing separate titrations of H2-dependent Q<sub>1</sub> reduction and Q<sub>1</sub>H<sub>2</sub>-O<sub>2</sub> oxidoreductase activities with inhibitors HQNO and antimycin A. These inhibitors effectively inhibited H<sub>2</sub>-Q<sub>1</sub> oxidoreductase activity of B. japonicum membranes (see below and [14]), and inhibit center N but not center P of the  $bc_1$  complex [40]. If  $H_2$ -linked  $Q_1$ reduction occurred at center N, then inhibitor titration curves of H<sub>2</sub>-Q<sub>1</sub> and Q<sub>1</sub>H<sub>2</sub>-O<sub>2</sub> activities should be very similar. The results indicated, however, that inhibitory concentrations of both antimycin and HQNO were significantly lower for Q<sub>1</sub>H<sub>2</sub>-O<sub>2</sub> oxidoreductase activity than for  $H_2$ - $Q_1$  activity (Fig. 1). For the inhibitor Antimycin A the  $I_{50}$  for  $Q_1H_2$ - $O_2$  activity was approximately three orders of magnitude less than that for  $H_2$ - $Q_1$  (about  $10^{-9}$  vs.  $10^{-6}$ , Fig. 1A) and one order of magnitude less with HQNO (about  $5 \cdot 10^{-8}$  vs.  $5 \cdot 10^{-7}$ , Fig. 1B). All these results, taken together, indicate that H2-linked Q1 reduction occurs 'upstream' of the center N of the  $bc_1$  complex; and the most likely site is an antimycin- and HQNO-sensitive site on the hydrogenase complex.

### 3.2. Specificity of $H_2$ -quinone oxidoreductase activity

Various quinones were tested as electron acceptors with purified hydrogenase and with membranes. The activities with different quinones were compared to the rates with MB, which is the most effective artificial electron acceptor for both membranes and purified hydrogenase. The ubiquinones Q<sub>0</sub> and Q<sub>1</sub>, menadione (MK<sub>0</sub>) and the plastoquinone analog duroquinone all functioned effectively as electron acceptors with membranes (Table 2), although activity to duroquinone was approximately half the others at the two concentrations tested. Phylloquinone was essentially an ineffective substrate, and MK4 functioned poorly as a substrate; these quinones had the lowest midpoint potentials (see Table 2). Q4 functioned effectively as electron acceptor with membranes: its  $V_{\text{max}}$  of 0.12 µmol/min per mg (data not shown), was 39% that of the maximal rate for Q<sub>1</sub> reduction by membranes (Table 3). A similar pattern of substrate specificity was observed with purified hydrogenase. However, duroquinone and menadione were significantly more effective as electron acceptors with pure hydrogenase than with membranes, relative to Q<sub>1</sub>. In addition, only low levels of activity were observed with pure hydrogenase using 400  $\mu$ M  $Q_0$  as electron acceptor, in contrast to the situation with membranes.



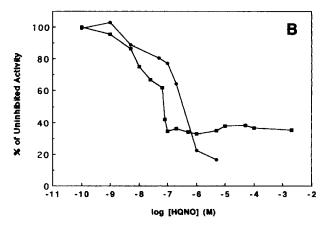


Fig. 1. Differential inhibitor titrations of  $H_2$ - $Q_1$  and  $Q_1H_2$ - $Q_2$  oxidoreductase activities.  $H_2$  uptake activity ( $\blacksquare$ ) was assayed amperometrically with  $Q_1$  (200  $\mu$ M) as electron acceptor, and  $Q_2$  uptake ( $\blacksquare$ ) was assayed amperometrically with  $Q_1H_2$  as electron donor, as described in Experimental Procedures.  $H_2$ - $Q_1$  oxidoreductase assays were initiated by addition of  $Q_1$ .  $Q_1H_2$ - $Q_2$  oxidoreductase assays were conducted under microaerobic conditions ( $[Q_2]=15-30~\mu$ M) and initiated by addition of dithioerythritol (2 mM). Inhibitors were added from stock solutions in ethanol immediately before assay. (A) Inhibition by antimycin A. Assay mixtures ( $H_2$ - $Q_1$ ) contained 210  $\mu$ g membranes, and uninhibited specific activity ( $H_2$ - $Q_1$ ) was 0.95  $\mu$ mol min  $^{-1}$  mg  $^{-1}$  (B) Inhibition by HQNO. Assay mixtures ( $Q_1H_2$ - $Q_2$ ) contained 2.1 mg of membranes, and uninhibited specific activity ( $Q_1H_2$ - $Q_2$ ) was 42.5 nmol min  $^{-1}$  mg  $^{-1}$ .

This is undoubtedly due to the high  $K_{\rm m}$  (2.0 mM) for  $Q_0$  by pure enzyme (Table 3). No activity was observed with pure hydrogenase using  $Q_4$  or  $Q_{10}$  as an electron acceptor (data not shown).

# 3.3. Kinetic characterization of activity with different quinone homologs

Initial investigations of  $H_2$ -quinone oxidoreductase activity by hydrogenase showed that the apparent  $K_m$  for  $Q_1$  was much lower than that for  $Q_0$ . Due to this difference, and the observed quinone-dependent specific activity differences in  $H_2$ -linked quinone reduction (for both purified hydrogenase and membranes) (Table 2), we further exam-

Table 2
Effectiveness of different quinones as electron acceptors

Electron acceptor	$E_0'$	Concentration (μM)	Specific activity	
			membranes (nmol/min per mg)	pure enzyme (μmol/min per mg)
$\overline{Q_1}$	+110	80	117 ± 4	1.2 ±0.9
-1		400	$198 \pm 5$	$5.1 \pm 0.2$
$Q_0$	+162	80	111 ± 4	n.d.
40		400	197 ± 7	$0.13 \pm 0.01$
Duroquinone	+ 5	80	57 ± 3	$1.5 \pm 0.1$
		400	102 ± 7	$3.7 \pm 0.1$
Menadione	- 1	80	$113 \pm 10$	$7.6 \pm 0.2$
		400	$212 \pm 26$	$10.6 \pm 1.0$
Phylloquinone	- 50	400	$1.6 \pm 1.0$	$0.02 \pm 0.01$
Menaquinone-4	- 72	80	$6.0 \pm 5.1$	$0.01 \pm 0.0$
		400	$12.2 \pm 3.8$	
MB	+ 11	180	$1144 \pm 88$	$9.8 \pm 0.7$

Membranes (29.5  $\mu g$  protein) or pure enzyme (4.5  $\mu g$  protein) were assayed amperometrically at 25° C. Specific activity of membranes with 15-30  $\mu M$  O<sub>2</sub> was 44.5 nmol min<sup>-1</sup> mg<sup>-1</sup>. The values are the means  $\pm$  S.E. of four determinations.

ined the steady-state kinetic parameters of hydrogenase for a number of ubiquinones that varied in their isoprenoid chain length.  $K_{\rm m}$  and  $V_{\rm max}$  values for  $Q_0$ ,  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$  were determined for both the pure enzyme or membranes by steady-state kinetic experiments. Among the short-chain ubiquinones Q<sub>0</sub>, Q<sub>1</sub> and Q<sub>2</sub>, isoprenoid chain length was found to have a profound effect on the  $K_m$  (Table 3). With membranes, each additional isoprenoid unit caused the  $K_{\rm m}$ to decrease approximately an order of magnitude.  $V_{\text{max}}$ , however, was largely independent of chain length, with the exception that  $Q_2$  had an approx. 2-fold higher  $V_{\text{max}}$  than Q<sub>1</sub>. Even more dramatic effects of isoprenoid chain length on  $K_{\rm m}$  were observed with purified hydrogenase. The  $K_{\rm m}$ for  $Q_1$  was 22-fold higher than that for  $Q_2$ ; and the  $K_m$  for  $Q_0$  was 28-fold higher than that for  $Q_1$  (Table 3). Unlike the case of membranes, however, the  $V_{\rm max}$  with purified hydrogenase was greatest using Q<sub>1</sub> as the electron acceptor; it was 7-fold higher than the  $V_{\text{max}}$  for  $Q_0$ . The  $K_{\text{m}}$  for  $Q_4$  with membranes was estimated at 0.063  $\mu$ M, and no activity with Q<sub>4</sub> was observed with pure hydrogenase (data not shown).

 $Q_1$  was used as electron acceptor for additional investigations of  $H_2$ -quinone oxidoreductase activity, because of its high solubility, low  $K_m$  and high  $V_{max}$ . The latter two

properties suggest that it reacts as the physiological ubiquinone binding site. In order to relate  $H_2$ -ubiquinone oxidoreductase to the previous studies of hydrogenase which used other electron acceptors, both  $H_2$ - $Q_1$  and  $H_2$ -MB oxidoreductase activities were compared in several biochemical parameters.

### 3.4. pH optima for H<sub>2</sub> oxidation

Initially, the pH dependence of  $H_2$ - $Q_1$  and  $H_2$ -MB oxidoreductase were investigated. For membranes,  $H_2$ -MB activity was observed over a broad pH range from 4 to 9, with an optimum at pH 6.5, while  $H_2$ - $Q_1$  activity showed a somewhat narrower range of activity and an optimum pH of 7.0 (Fig. 2A). Oxygen-dependent  $H_2$  oxidation activity in *B. japonicum* membranes has been previously shown to have an optimum pH of approx. 7.2 [41], similar to the value obtained for  $H_2$ - $Q_1$  activity. Like the membranes, purified hydrogenase demonstrated significantly different pH optima for  $H_2$ - $Q_1$  and  $H_2$ -MB activities.  $H_2$ - $Q_1$  and  $H_2$ -MB activities showed pH optima of 5.5 and 6.0, respectively. High levels of  $H_2$ - $Q_1$  activity were observed at pH 4.5–5.0, where virtually no  $H_2$ -MB activity was observed (Fig. 2B). The difference in pH optimum with  $Q_1$ 

Table 3
Steady-state kinetics of H<sub>2</sub>-ubiquinone oxidoreductase activity

Ubiquinone	Membranes		Pure hydrogenase	
	$K_{\rm m}$ ( $\mu$ M)	V <sub>max</sub> (U/mg)	$K_{\rm m}$ ( $\mu$ M)	$V_{\rm max}$ (U/mg)
$\overline{Q_0}$	30.5 ±5.2	$0.30 \pm 0.03$	1974 ±31	$0.71 \pm 0.04$
$Q_1$	$2.9 \pm 0.3$	$0.31 \pm 0.02$	$68.8 \pm 13.9$	$5.2 \pm 0.5$
$Q_2$	$0.44 \pm 0.08$	$0.64 \pm 0.04$	$3.1 \pm 1.2$	$2.1 \pm 0.4$

Results were determined by non-linear least-squares regression to the Michaelis-Menten equation, as described in 'Materials and Methods,' and are expressed as mean  $\pm$  S.D. Results are representative of at least two independent experiments.

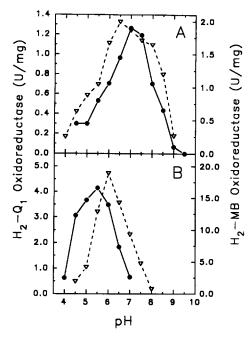


Fig. 2. pH optima for  $H_2$  uptake activity with  $Q_1$  and MB. Membranes (A, 52  $\mu$ g) or purified hydrogenase (B, 1.6–5.5  $\mu$ g) were assayed amperometrically in 25 mM Mes, 25 mM Hepes, 25 mM Tris, 25 mM glycine at the stated pH.  $H_2$  uptake by membranes was assayed with  $Q_1$  (100  $\mu$ M,  $\blacksquare$ ) or MB (180  $\mu$ M,  $\nabla$ ).  $H_2$  uptake by purified hydrogenase was assayed with  $Q_1$  (250  $\mu$ M,  $\blacksquare$ ) or MB (180  $\mu$ M,  $\nabla$ ). Points represent the average of two or three determinations.

or MB as electron acceptors may be due to different mechanisms of electron transfer to the two electron acceptors; this is most easily explained by reaction of the electron acceptors at separate binding sites. This possibility was further examined by the use of inhibition and chemical modification experiments.

### 3.5. Inhibition of $H_2$ uptake by quinone analogs

Since HQNO and antimycin significantly inhibited Q<sub>1</sub>dependent H<sub>2</sub> uptake, we tested the effects of other inhibitors which are known to inhibit at quinone binding sites. However, DBMIB, DCMU, and myxothiazol (all tested at 50  $\mu$ M) did not inhibit H<sub>2</sub>-Q<sub>1</sub> oxidoreductase activity. Inhibition by HQNO and antimycin were then characterized in more detail. Inhibition of H2-Q1 oxidoreductase activity by HQNO was observed at saturating (200  $\mu$ M) and sub-saturating (10  $\mu$ M) Q<sub>1</sub> concentrations (Fig. 3). Maximal inhibition was about 80%. A very similar inhibition profile was observed for H<sub>2</sub>-O<sub>2</sub> activity (Fig. 3). In contrast, H<sub>2</sub> uptake to MB was not inhibited, consistent with previous observations with free-living cells [42] and root nodule bacteroids [43]. Indeed, in our experiments, HQNO was consistently found to enhance H2-MB oxidoreductase activity in membranes by 30-40%; this enhancement was dependent on inhibitor concentration (Fig. 3). The concentration dependence of this activation

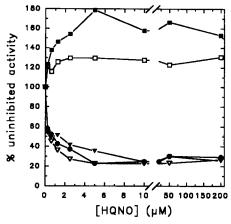


Fig. 3. HQNO inhibitor titration of  $H_2$  uptake by membranes.  $H_2$  uptake in membranes was assayed amperometrically with  $O_2$  (15–30  $\mu$ M,  $\blacksquare$ ),  $Q_1$  (10  $\mu$ M,  $\triangledown$ , or 200  $\mu$ M,  $\blacktriangledown$ ) or MB (12  $\mu$ M,  $\square$ , or 180  $\mu$ M,  $\blacksquare$ ) as electron acceptor. HQNO was added from stock solutions in ethanol immediately before assay. Reaction mixtures contained 28.4  $\mu$ g membranes for assays with MB (180  $\mu$ M), and 56.7  $\mu$ g for other assays. Reactions were initiated by the addition of electron acceptor ( $Q_1$  or MB) or  $H_2$  (for  $H_2$ - $O_2$  activity assays). Uninhibited specific activity of membranes was 0.186  $\mu$ mol min  $^{-1}$  mg  $^{-1}$  ( $H_2$ - $O_2$ ); 0.56  $\mu$ mol min  $^{-1}$  mg  $^{-1}$  ( $H_2$ -10  $\mu$ M  $Q_1$ ); 3.38  $\mu$ mol min  $^{-1}$  mg  $^{-1}$  ( $H_2$ -200  $\mu$ M  $Q_1$ ); 1.81  $\mu$ mol min  $^{-1}$  mg  $^{-1}$  ( $H_2$ -122  $\mu$ M MB); and 7.07  $\mu$ mol min  $^{-1}$  mg  $^{-1}$  ( $H_2$ -180  $\mu$ M MB).

effect and HQNO inhibition of  $H_2$ - $O_2$  and  $H_2$ - $Q_1$  activities were very similar (Fig. 3).

Inhibition experiments on  $H_2$  uptake were also performed with Antimycin A (Fig. 4). Efficient inhibition of membrane-bound  $H_2$ - $Q_1$  and  $H_2$ - $Q_2$  oxidoreductase activities were observed with this inhibitor with an  $I_{50}$  similar to that observed with HQNO (about 0.5  $\mu$ M). The maximal inhibition observed was also approximately the same as

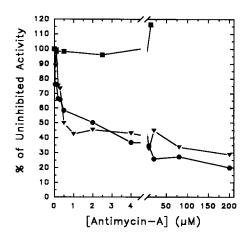


Fig. 4. Antimycin A inhibition of  $H_2$ - $Q_1$  oxidoreductase activity by membranes. Inhibitor was added to membranes (20  $\mu$ g protein) immediately prior to the addition of  $H_2$ , and the reaction was initiated by the addition of electron acceptor ( $Q_1$ ,  $Q_2$ , or MB). Uninhibited  $H_2$  uptake was  $0.31~\mu$ mol min<sup>-1</sup> mg<sup>-1</sup> with  $Q_2$  (15–30  $\mu$ M), 0.44  $\mu$ mol min<sup>-1</sup> mg<sup>-1</sup> with  $Q_1$  (10  $\mu$ M), and 0.62  $\mu$ mol min<sup>-1</sup> mg<sup>-1</sup> with MB (18  $\mu$ M). ( $\blacksquare$ ),  $H_2$ - $Q_2$  activity ( $\blacksquare$ )  $H_2$ -MB activity.

with HQNO (70–80%) (Fig. 3), although Antimycin A is insoluble in this assay system at concentrations above 100  $\mu$ M. Antimycin, like HQNO, clearly did not inhibit H<sub>2</sub>-MB activity in membranes (Fig. 4), but no activation was observed.

When HQNO-dependent inhibition of  $H_2$ - $Q_1$  and  $H_2$ -MB activities by purified hydrogenase were examined by similar titration experiments, very different inhibition profiles were observed as compared with the results for membrane-associated activity. With subsaturating electron acceptor concentrations (40  $\mu$ M  $Q_1$  and 12  $\mu$ M MB), both  $H_2$ - $Q_1$  and  $H_2$ -MB activities were significantly inhibited. However, much higher concentrations of HQNO (about 200  $\mu$ M) were required for 50% inhibition of pure enzyme (Fig. 5) compared to the membrane-bound enzyme.

# 3.6. Differential effects of the membrane-impermeant reagent DABS on H<sub>2</sub> uptake by membranes

Although the results of the pH optima and inhibition experiments described above indicated that MB and  $Q_1$  react at different sites of hydrogenase in situ, more direct evidence was obtained by use of the chemical modification reagent DABS. DABS has previously been shown to cause a redox-dependent differential inactivation of  $H_2$ -MB activity in B. japonicum membranes: activity is rapidly inactivated under a  $H_2$ -containing atmosphere but not under an  $O_2$ -containing atmosphere [29]. DABS-induced inactivation rates of the two acceptor (MB and  $Q_1$ ) activities were compared.  $H_2$ - $Q_1$  activity exhibited redox-dependent differential inactivation similar to  $H_2$ -MB activity: rapid and complete DABS-dependent inactivation was only observed when the membranes were  $H_2$ -reduced in the absence of  $O_2$  (data not shown). However, when the DABS

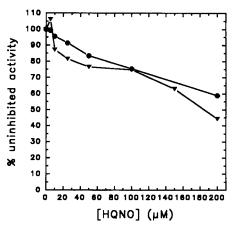


Fig. 5. HQNO inhibition of  $H_2$  uptake by purified hydrogenase.  $H_2$  uptake by purified hydrogenase (3.3  $\mu g$  with MB, 8.2  $\mu g$  with  $Q_1$ ) was assayed amperometrically as described in Materials and Methods. HQNO was added immediately prior to assay and the reaction was initiated by the addition of electron acceptor. Uninhibited specific activity with  $Q_1$  (40  $\mu$ M,  $\blacksquare$ ) and MB (12  $\mu$ M,  $\blacktriangledown$ ) as electron acceptor was 0.38  $\mu$ mol min<sup>-1</sup> mg<sup>-1</sup>, respectively.

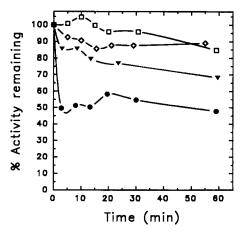


Fig. 6. Differential DABS-induced inactivation of  $H_2$ - $Q_1$  and  $H_2$ -MB oxidoreductase activities in membranes. Membranes were diluted in 50 mM potassium phosphate, 2.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub> (pH 8.0) as described in 'Materials and Methods'; equilibrated under a gas phase of 90% Ar/10%  $O_2$ ; and treated with DABS (1.0 mM) under the same atmosphere. Aliquots (25  $\mu$ l or 50  $\mu$ l) were removed and assayed immediately at the indicated time points, as described in Experimental Procedures. The data are the pooled results of two experiments. Time course of inactivation of control membranes (4.64 mg/ml) assayed with 200  $\mu$ M  $Q_1$  ( $\diamondsuit$ ) or 180  $\mu$ M MB ( $\square$ ) as electron acceptor. Specific activities were 0.124  $\mu$ mol min<sup>-1</sup> mg<sup>-1</sup> to  $Q_1$  and 0.184  $\mu$ mol min<sup>-1</sup> mg<sup>-1</sup>, to MB. ( $\blacktriangledown$ ,  $\blacktriangledown$ ) Time course of inactivation of DABS-treated membranes (4.5 mg membrane protein per ml) assayed with 200  $\mu$ M  $Q_1$  ( $\spadesuit$ ) or 180  $\mu$ M MB ( $\blacktriangledown$ ) as electron acceptor. Specific activities were 0.13  $\mu$ mol min<sup>-1</sup> mg<sup>-1</sup> to  $Q_1$  and 0.20  $\mu$ mol min<sup>-1</sup> mg<sup>-1</sup>, to MB.

reaction was conducted in an  $O_2$ -containing atmosphere,  $H_2$ - $Q_1$  activity showed a rapid phase of DABS-dependent inactivation ( $t_{1/2} \sim 1$  min), followed by a period of prolonged stability (Fig. 6). In contrast,  $H_2$ -MB activity was much more stable to DABS inactivation under these (oxygen-incubated) conditions, as was previously observed [29]. DABS inhibition therefore causes rapid alterations at one or more site(s) involved in  $H_2$ -ubiquinone-1 activity but not for  $H_2$ -MB activity.

# 3.7. Effects of electron acceptor on activation of hydrogenase

NiFe hydrogenases are generally isolated in an inactive but activatable form [44], and reductive activation of hydrogenase by  $\rm H_2$  or other reductants has been studied with several of these enzymes [22,45–47]. When aerobically purified B. japonicum hydrogenase activity is assayed in the absence of dithionite, a lag phase of several minutes is observed prior to achieving maximal activity [14]. This phenomenon was observed with  $\rm Q_1$  or MB as electron acceptor [14], and is further examined here. In these experiments, the lag phase is defined as the time prior to attainment of the maximal rates of  $\rm H_2$  uptake (Fig. 7A). At constant saturating concentrations of  $\rm H_2$  (10.7  $\mu$ M), the lag time prior to reaching full activation was inversely dependent on  $\rm Q_1$  concentrations and was reduced but not

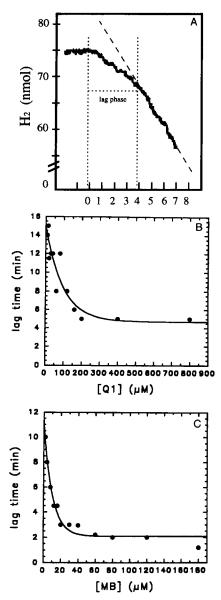


Fig. 7. Dependence of hydrogenase activation rate on electron acceptor concentration. Pure hydrogenase (with an activity of 6.1  $\mu$ mol min mg $^{-1}$  to 200  $\mu$ M Q<sub>1</sub>, and 11.2  $\mu$ mol min mg $^{-1}$  to 180  $\mu$ M MB) was obtained following Reactive Red-120 affinity chromatography. O<sub>2</sub> was removed enzymatically and assays were performed as described in 'Materials and Methods,' except that reactions were initiated by addition of enzyme (2.2  $\mu$ g). The lag time (see A) refers to the length (in min) of the non-linear phase in the H<sub>2</sub> uptake progress curve. (B) Lag time as a function of Q<sub>1</sub> as electron acceptor. Specific activities ranged from 1.02  $\mu$ mol min mg $^{-1}$  with 10  $\mu$ M Q<sub>1</sub> to 6.07  $\mu$ mol min mg $^{-1}$  with 200  $\mu$ M Q<sub>1</sub>. (C) Lag time as a function of MB as electron acceptor. Specific activities ranged from 1.00  $\mu$ mol min mg $^{-1}$  with 2  $\mu$ M MB, up to 11.2  $\mu$ mol min mg $^{-1}$  with 180  $\mu$ M MB. All assays were performed at 25° C.

eliminated at saturating  $Q_1$  concentration (Fig. 7B). A similar inverse concentration dependence was observed with MB as electron acceptor (Fig. 7C); however, the minimal lag period (at saturating electron acceptor levels) was significantly and reproducibly less than that with  $Q_1$  as electron acceptor (2 min vs. 5 min in Figs. 7B and 7C, respectively).

#### 4. Discussion

Although a good deal of data are available regarding the mechanism of interaction of NiFe hydrogenases with H<sub>2</sub>, there is a relative paucity of data on the mechanisms of reaction of membrane-bound hydrogenases with electron acceptors (see [3] and [44] for reviews). This is especially true for quinones, the apparent physiological electron acceptors. Since ubiquinone functions as an electron acceptor of purified B. japonicum hydrogenase [14], and is known to function in electron transport during H<sub>2</sub> oxidation in situ [2], a systematic study of the H<sub>2</sub>-Q oxidoreductase activity by both purified hydrogenase and H<sub>2</sub>-oxidizing membrane particles was undertaken. These data provide new evidence which indicates that exogenous quinones and the artificial electron acceptor MB are reduced at separate sites on the hydrogenase complex in situ, and clarifies enzymological aspects of the quinone specificity of a bacterial NiFe hydrogenase. Such results can most likely be extrapolated to other hydrogen-uptake NiFe hydrogenases, due to their highly-conserved nature [8].

### 4.1. Specificity of interaction of hydrogenase with quinones

The reactivity of quinones with different head group structures and redox potentials was examined, and the kinetic parameters of ubiquinones with different length isoprenoid side chains were determined. Ubiquinones, the plastoquinone analog duroquinone, and the menaquinone menadione were all reduced by the enzyme, indicating a relatively loose specificity with regard to the structure of the quinone headgroup. However, the two quinones with the lowest redox potentials, phylloquinone and MK<sub>4</sub> functioned poorly as electron acceptors. Although the lack of reactivity of these quinones may have been due at least in part to their hydrophobicity and consequent insolubility in the assay buffer (each has a 20 carbon lipophilic side chain), it is more likely that they are unreactive due to unfavorable interaction with an electron donating redox center on the enzyme which is poised at a relatively high potential. Two pieces of data support this conclusion: [1] Q<sub>4</sub>, which has an identical isoprenoid chain as MK<sub>4</sub> but a midpoint redox potential 186 mV more positive (+110 mV vs. -74 mV), functioned effectively as electron acceptor with membranes, and [2] it is well established that artificial electron acceptors with  $E'_0 < 0$  function poorly with B. japonicum hydrogenase [2].

Low substrate specificity with regard to the quinone headgroup has also been observed in other quinone-reactive enzymes, but has not been previously observed for any hydrogenases. Bovine NADH-ubiquinone reductases reduce rhodoquinone and duroquinone [48,49], and both duro- and menaquinol are oxidized by the mitochondrial ubiquinol-cytochrome c oxidoreductase (Complex III) [50,51]. Benzoquinones, naphthoquinones and anthraquinones can also be incorporated into bacterial photo-

synthetic reaction center depleted of the ' $Q_B$ ' quinone, where they function to oxidize the 'special pair' bacterio-chlorophylls [52]. The effect of substituents on the 1,4-benzoquinone ring on ubiquinone reduction and oxidation in the succinate-cytochrome c region has also been studied by the use of synthetic decyl-ubiquinone derivatives substituted in the 2, 3, and 5 positions of the ring [53]. Substrate specificity was relatively loose for quinol-cytochrome c reductase, but somewhat stricter for succinate-ubiquinone reductase. It is clear from previous reports in the literature that although specificity of quinone-reactive enzymes can be quite loose with regard to the head group, some degree of structural specificity occurs [49,51,53,54].

The membrane bound respiratory chain of B. japonicum is branched, terminating with at least two terminal cytochrome oxidases, cytochromes  $aa_3$  and o [2]. Since B. japonicum and other aerobic bacteria contain ubiquinone but no menaquinone [55,56], there is no need for hydrogenases from these organisms to reduce a lower redox potential substrate. The situation is different, however, in bacteria which carry out anaerobic H2-fumarate respiration, such as W. succinogenes [57] and E. coli [58]. Menaquinone, not ubiquinone, functions in H2-linked electron transport in vivo in these organisms, and membranebound and purified hydrogenases from these organisms react effectively with low potential electron acceptors such as benzyl viologen, DMN and even the hydrophobic phylloquinone [15,57,59]. These differences among hydrogenases in electron acceptor specificity based on redox potential have not been sufficiently addressed in the literature. It is likely that homologous hydrogenases in different organisms which use different quinones have subtle yet important differences in their quinone-reactive sites and intramolecular electron transport mechanisms, despite their overall structural similarities. Subtle differences between homologous quinone-reactive enzymes have been observed among succinate-quinone reductases [60,61], fumarate reductases [61], and among bacterial photosynthetic reaction

The role of the isoprenoid side chain of ubiquinone in the H<sub>2</sub>-Q oxidoreductase reaction was investigated using ubiquinone homologs with different alkyl chains. All of the soluble ubiquinone homologs exhibited low  $K_{\rm m}$  values  $(<40 \mu M$  with membranes) indicating tight binding, and the  $K_{\rm m}$  was dramatically decreased with increasing isoprenoid chain length. Similar effects were noted with purified heterodimeric hydrogenase, although the  $K_{\rm m}$  values were significantly higher. Since  $Q_2$  and  $Q_1$  partition into hydrophobic phases to a much greater degree than  $\mathbf{Q}_0$ [63], this differential partitioning may play a role in the different apparent  $K_{\rm m}$ 's observed between  $Q_0$  and the other ubiquinones with membranes (Table 3). Differential partition coefficients do not, however, explain the different  $K_{\rm m}$  values between  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$  with membranes, since both are expected to partition overwhelmingly into the lipid phase based on partition studies with model solvents

[63]. Similarly, the partition coefficients do not explain the dramatically decreased  $K_m$  values for longer chain quinones observed with purified hydrogenase. Our data therefore indicate that the isoprenoid side chain plays a crucial role in binding of ubiquinone to hydrogenase, and suggest that structurally specific interactions of hydrogenase with the isoprenoid side chain are likely to occur. Similar correlations between isoprenoid chain length of soluble ubiquinones and a decrease in  $K_{\rm m}$  (in the  $\mu M$ range) have been observed in the case of the respiratory D-glucose dehydrogenases of Acinetobacter calcoaceticus and Gluconobacter suboxydans [64,65]. The decreased  $V_{\rm max}$ for pure hydrogenase observed in our experiments for Q<sub>2</sub> (relative to  $Q_1$ ), as well as the lack of reactivity with  $Q_4$ , may indicate that the quinol off-rate is the rate-limiting step of the catalytic cycle with pure enzyme, at least in our assay system. The solubility of longer chain quinones in the phospholipid milieu probably facilitates turnover, as suggested by the increased relative electron acceptor activity of Q2 and Q4 with membrane bound enzyme. Although activity of membrane-bound hydrogenase to added Q10 (the physiological ubiquinone in B. japonicum) was observed [55], we were unable to obtain accurate kinetic parameters due to the insolubility of this ubiquinone in our assay system.

4.2. Ubiquinone reduction is the rate-limiting step in the  $H_2$ - $O_2$  electron transport chain and is inhibited by HQNO and antimycin A

Since  $Q_1H_2$ - $Q_2$  oxidoreductase activity is inhibited by much lower concentrations of antimycin and HQNO then  $H_2$ - $Q_1$  oxidoreductase (Fig. 1), and since myxothiazol inhibits the former activity but not the latter (Table 1), it is clear that exogenous ubiquinone reduction occurs 'upstream' of the cytochrome  $bc_1$  complex, presumably at the  $H_2$ -ubiquinone oxidoreductase complex. The very similar concentration dependence of HQNO-induced inhibition of  $H_2$ - $Q_1$  oxidoreductase activity and HQNO-induced activation of  $H_2$ -MB oxidoreductase activity (Fig. 3) also supports this conclusion, since MB is known to accept electrons directly from hydrogenase [1-3,14].

Our results suggest that  $H_2$ -linked ubiquinone reduction is the rate-limiting step in the  $H_2$ - $O_2$  electron transport chain, when  $H_2$  and  $O_2$  are present in excess. HQNO and antimycin titration curves of  $H_2$ - $O_2$  and  $H_2Q_1$  activities were very similar, while  $Q_1H_2$  activity was inhibited at significantly lower concentrations of both inhibitors (Fig. 1). Therefore, the partial inhibition (about 70%) of the  $bc_1$  complex by the lower concentrations of these inhibitors does not cause inhibition of  $O_2$ -linked  $H_2$  uptake (compare Figs. 1, 3 and 4), but inhibition of  $H_2$ -quinone oxidoreductase activity by higher levels of the inhibitors slows the rate of  $H_2$ - $O_2$  electron transfer (Figs. 3, 4). Both HQNO and antimycin A have been previously demonstrated to inhibit  $H_2$ - $O_2$  respiratory activity in membranes from B.

*japonicum* free-living cells [13] and bacteroids [43]. HQNO inhibition curves in both cases are monophasic; and similar  $K_i$  values of 7  $\mu$ M [13] and 5.6  $\mu$ M [43] have been determined for free-living cells and bacteroids, respectively. Based upon a more detailed analysis, a two-site model of HQNO inhibition of H<sub>2</sub> respiration can now be proposed which is consistent with the data presented here, the previous results on H<sub>2</sub>-linked electron transport in B. japonicum [42,43,13], and with accepted models of cytochrome  $bc_1$  catalysis. Since turnover at the Q-reducing site of a H<sub>2</sub>-Q oxidoreductase complex is rate-limiting, HQNO inhibition at this site would account both for the observed monophasic inhibition curves, and inhibition of H<sub>2</sub>-linked cytochrome reduction [13,42,43]. The second site of HQNO inhibition is at presumably center N of the cytochrome bc1 complex. Since most of the electron flux to O<sub>2</sub> in free-living B. japonicum membranes (about 83%) goes through the cytochrome  $bc_1$  complex [34], inhibition at this site in membranes would account for the previously observed H<sub>2</sub>-linked accumulation of quinol in HQNO-inhibited B. japonicum membranes [13].

Although HQNO is known to inhibit both quinone reduction and quinol oxidation with various enzymes [40,66,67], antimycin A has been assumed to be a specific inhibitor of cytochrome  $bc_1$  complexes. Our results demonstrate for the first time that antimycin A also inhibits  $\rm H_2$ -linked ubiquinone reduction. To our knowledge, these data constitute the first report of antimycin inhibition of quinone reduction at a primary dehydrogenase. These results argue for caution in interpreting antimycin inhibition experiments with intact membrane particles: for example, antimycin cannot be assumed to bind only to the cytochrome  $bc_1$  complex.

# 4.3. Evidence for separate sites of reactivity in situ for ubiquinone and methylene blue

Several pieces of evidence suggested that Q<sub>1</sub> and MB reacted at different sites in a H<sub>2</sub>-ubiquinone oxidoreductase complex in situ. The pH profile for the two activities were markedly different, and both antimycin A and HQNO dramatically inhibited Q<sub>1</sub> reduction but did not inhibit MB reduction. In addition, HQNO-induced activation of H<sub>2</sub> uptake with MB as electron acceptor was observed in membranes; the concentration dependence was indistinguishable from that for the inhibition of H<sub>2</sub>-Q<sub>1</sub> oxidoreductase (Fig. 3). Activation of hydrogenase by HQNO has not been previously reported, and suggests a working model in which HQNO binding at a quinone-reducing site in the enzyme complex induces a redox and/or conformational change which increases the electron transport to MB at a separate site. The chemical inactivation experiments with DABS provide further direct evidence for separate sites of MB and ubiquinone reactivity in situ. H<sub>2</sub>-Q<sub>1</sub> oxidoreductase activity was significantly more sensitive than H2-dependent MB reduction in an O2-containing atmosphere (Fig. 6). This result indicates that at least one DABS-reactive residue exists which is necessary for electron transfer to ubiquinone and not to MB.

Since the kinetics data indicate that the heterodimeric enzyme clearly contains a high-affinity ubiquinone-reactive site, it is likely that this site has physiological significance. Nevertheless, significant differences in pH optima, inhibition patterns, and substrate specificity were observed between purified heterodimeric hydrogenase and membranes. The high affinity site for HQNO inhibition of Q<sub>1</sub> reduction is not present in the purified enzyme (compare Figs. 3 and 5), and the  $K_{\rm m}$  and  $V_{\rm max}$  with  $Q_0$ ,  $Q_1$ ,  $Q_2$ differ significantly between membrane-bound and purified enzyme (Table 3). Differences in O<sub>2</sub> inhibition of activity and the reductive activation of hydrogenase were also observed between membranes and pure hydrogenase [14]. These differences indicate that the purified heterodimeric hydrogenase differs significantly from the in situ hydrogenase complex. Since a trimeric cytochrome-b-containing hydrogenase was recently purified from Wolinella succinogenes, and the putative cytochrome-b-encoding third ORF of hydrogenase operons is conserved in B. japonicum and other bacteria [15,68–74], it is likely that the heterodimeric hydrogenase is a portion of a trimeric or multimeric hydrogenase complex that functions in situ. The putative cytochrome b and/or other polypeptides may modulate reactivity with ubiquinone. In addition, the redox state and/or integrity of FeS clusters may differ between the purified heterodimeric and membrane-bound forms of the enzyme, resulting in altered inhibitor binding and altered reactivity with quinones.

## 4.4. Electron acceptor binding is necessary for optimal reductive activation

Reductive activation of purified NiFe-hydrogenases by H<sub>2</sub> has been studied in detail and is proposed to occur in two stages [44]. Following O<sub>2</sub> removal from the inactive oxidized enzyme, the enzyme is reduced (by H<sub>2</sub>) with a concomitant slow conformational shift to its active form. Several of our observations are consistent with this general scheme of activation. Purified B. japonicum hydrogenase, like other hydrogenases, is active only in the absence of O<sub>2</sub> [14]. Even though the assays are performed anaerobically (Fig. 7), there is a lag phase prior to achieving maximal turnover, indicating that deoxygenation is not sufficient for activation. In addition to deoxygenation and reduction, however, the dependence of the activation rate on electron acceptor concentration indicates that the activation process involves binding of electron acceptor and possibly enzyme turnover. A similar observation has been made in studies of the periplasmic NiFe hydrogenase from D. gigas; the presence of the soluble electron acceptor cytochrome  $c_3$ during H<sub>2</sub>-induced activation, increased the rate of enzyme activation and also the appearance of the 'Ni-C' EPR signal that is correlated with the active state [47].

Dye-dependent redox cycling caused a greater activation of A. eutrophus heterodimeric hydrogenase than reduction alone, and could be correlated with altered EPR spectra [46]. Reductive activation has also been studied with Azotobacter vinelandii hydrogenase, where extended H<sub>2</sub> incubations resulted in increased activity and faster activation during assay [22]. Our observations indicate that activation is accelerated when either ubiquinone or artificial electron acceptor is bound, consistent with the artificial electron acceptor studies of D. gigas and A. eutrophus hydrogenase [45-47]. In addition to electron acceptor binding, it is likely that oxidation of the enzyme by electron acceptor is in fact necessary for the transition (during turnover) to the active form of the enzyme, as implied by the term 'turnover activation' [22]. If this were the case, then ubiquinone binding might cause specific changes in EPR spectroscopic properties of H<sub>2</sub> uptake NiFe hydrogenases.

### Acknowledgements

We thank Dr. Y.C. Lee for advice and generous assistance with  $Q_2$  synthesis, Dr. Charles Long for his help in constructing the electronic interface circuit for the  $H_2$  electrode, and Dr. Joe Kachinski for help in the mass spectroscopic analysis. In addition, we thank Prof. Richard McCarty, Prof. Robert Gennis, and Dr. Fred Moshiri for helpful discussions. This work was supported by grant DEFG02-89ER 14011 from the Department of Energy.

### References

- [1] Adams, M.W.W., Mortenson, L.E. and Chen, J.-S. (1981) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 594, 105-176.
- [2] O'Brian, M.R. and Maier, R.J. (1988) Adv. Microb. Physiol. 29, 2-52.
- [3] Przybyła, A.E., Robbins, J., Menon, N. and Peck, H.D., Jr. (1992) FEMS Microbiol. Rev. 88, 109-135.
- [4] Arp, D.J., McCollum, L.C. and Seefeldt, L.C. (1985) J. Bacteriol. 163, 15-20.
- [5] Harker, A.R., Zuber, M. and Evans, H.J. (1986) J. Bacteriol. 165, 579-584.
- [6] Kovacs, K.L., Seefeldt, L.C., Tigyi, G., Doyle, C.M., Mortenson, L.E. and Arp, D.J. (1989) J. Bacteriol. 171, 430-435.
- [7] Lorenz, B., Schneider, K., Kratzin, H. and Schlegel, H.G. (1989) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 995, 1-9.
- [8] Wu, L.F. and Mandrand, M.A. (1993) FEMS Microbiol. Rev. 104, 243-270.
- [9] Vignais, P.M. and Toussaint, B. (1994) Arch. Microbiol. 161, 1-10.
- [10] Bokranz, M., Katz, J., Schroder, I., Roberton, A. and Kröger, A. (1983) Arch. Microbiol. 135, 36-41.
- [11] Henry, M.-F. and Vignais, P. (1983) Arch. Microbiol. 136, 64-68.
- [12] Houchins, J.P. (1984) Biochim. Biohys. Acta 768, 227-255.
- [13] O'Brian, M.R. and Maier, R.J. (1985) J. Bacteriol. 161, 775-777.
- [14] Ferber, D.M. and Maier, R.J. (1993) FEMS Microbio. Lett. 110, 257-264.
- [15] Dross, F., Geisler, V., Lenger, R., Theis, F., Krafft, T., Fahrenholz,

- F., Kojro, E., Duchene, A., Tripier, D., Juvenal, K. and Kröger, A. (1992) Eur. J. Biochem. 206, 93-102.
- [16] Eisbrenner, G. and Evans, H.J. (1982) Plant Physiol. 70, 1667-1672.
- [17] Schink, B. (1982) FEMS Microbiol. Lett. 13, 289-293.
- [18] Gogotov, I.N. (1986) Biochimie 68, 181-187.
- [19] Podzuweit, H.-G., Arp, D.J., Schlegel, H.G. and Schneider, K. (1986) Biochimie. 68, 103-111.
- [20] Vignais, P.M., Colbeau, A., Willison, J.C. and Jouanneau, Y. (1985) Adv. Microb. Physiol. 26, 156-234.
- [21] Knüttel, K., Schneider, K., Schlegel, H.G. and Muller, A. (1989) Eur. J. Biochem. 179, 101-108.
- [22] Sun, J. and Arp. D.J. (1991) Arch. Biochem. Biohys. 287, 225-233.
- [23] Merberg, D., O'Hara, E.B. and Maier, R.J. (1983) J. Bacteriol. 156, 1236-1242.
- [24] Bishop, P.E., Guevarra, J.G., Engelke, J.A. and Evans, H.J. (1976) Plant Physiol. 57, 542-546.
- [25] Stults, L.W., Moshiri, F. and Maier, R.J. (1986) Journal of Bacteriology 166, 795-800.
- [26] Ferber, D.M. and Maier, R.J. (1992) Anal. Biochem. 203, 235-244.
- [27] Hanus, F.J., Carter, K.R. and Evans, H.J. (1980) Methods Enzymol. 69, 731-740.
- [28] Wang, R.T. (1980) Methods Enzymol. 69, 409-413.
- [29] Moshiri, F. and Maier, R.J. (1988) J. Biol. Chem. 263, 17809-17816.
- [30] Tinberg, H.M. and Packer, L. (1979) Methods Enzymol. 56, 613–621.
- [31] Mayer, H. and Isler, O. (1969) Methods Enzymol. 18C, 182-213.
- [32] Koland, J.G., Miller, M.J. and Gennis, R.B. (1984) Biochemistry 23, 445-453.
- [33] Markwell, M.A.K., Haas, S.M., Bieber, L.L. and Tolbert, N.E. (1978) Anal. Biochem. 87, 206-210.
- [34] Thöny-Meyer, L., Stax, D. and Henneke, H. (1989) Cell 57, 683–697.
- [35] Trumpower, B.L. (1990) J. Biol. Chem. 265, 11409-11412.
- [36] Gennis, R.B., Barquera, B., Hacker, B., Van Doren, S.R. Arnaud, S., Crofts, A.R., Davidson, E., Gray, K.A. and Daldal, F. (1993) J. Bioenerg. Biomembr. 25, 195-209.
- [37] Zweck, A., Bechmann, G. and Weiss, H. (1989) Eur. J. Biochem. 183, 199-293.
- [38] Marres, C.A.M. and de Vries, S. (1991) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 1057, 51-63.
- [39] Braun, H.-P. and Schmitz, U.K. (1992) Eur. J. Biochem. 208, 761-767.
- [40] von Jagow, G. and Link, T.A. (1986) Methods Enzymol. 126, 253-271.
- [41] Mutaftschiev, S., O'Brian, M.R. and Maier, R.J. (1983) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 722, 372-380.
- [42] O'Brian, M.R. and Maier, R.J. (1982) J. Bacteriol. 152, 422-430.
- [43] O'Brian, M.R. and Maier, R.J. (1983) J. Bacteriol. 155, 481-487.
- [44] Cammack, R., Fernandez, V.M. and Schneider, K. (1988) in The Bioinorganic Chemistry of Nickel (Lancaster, J.R., Jr., ed.), pp. 167-190, VCH, New York.
- [45] Berlier, Y.M., Fauque, G., Lespinat, P.A. and LeGall, J. (1982) FEBS Lett. 140, 185-188.
- [46] Schneider, K., Patil, D.S. and Cammack, R. (1983) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 748, 353-361.
- [47] Teixeira, M., Moura, I., Xavier, A.V., Huynh, B.H., DerVartanian, D.V., Peck, H.D.J., LeGall, J. and Moura, J.J.G. (1985) J. Biol. Chem. 260, 8942–8950.
- [48] Kita, K., Takamiya, S., Furoshima, R., Ma, Y., Suzuki, H., Ozawa, T. and Oya, H. (1988) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 935, 130-140.
- [49] Yagi, T. (1991) J. Bioenerg. Biomembr. 23, 211-225.
- [50] Kröger, A. and Klingenberg, M. (1973) Eur. J. Biochem. 39, 313-323
- [51] Crane, F.L. (1977) Annu. Rev. Biochem. 46, 439-469.
- [52] Gunner, M.R., Tiede, D.M., Prince, R.C. and Dutton, P.L. (1982) in Function of quinones in energy conserving systems (Trumpower, B.L., ed.), pp. 265-270, Academic Press, New York.

- [53] Gu, L.-Q., Yu, L. and Yu, C.-A. (1990) Biocheim. Biophys. Acta 1015, 482-492.
- [54] Hauska, G., Hurt, E., Gabellini, N. and Lockau, W. (1983) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 726, 97-133.
- [55] Daniel, R.M. (1979) J. Gen. Micro. 110, 333-337.
- [56] O'Brian, M.R. (1984) Identification and characterization of the hydrogen oxidizing electron transport system of the nitrogen-fixing bacterium *Rhizobium japonicum*.
- [57] Kröger, A., Geisler, V., Lemma, E., Theis, F. and Lenger, R. (1992) Arch. Microbiol. 158, 311–314.
- [58] Ingledew, W.J. and Poole, R.K. (1984) Microbiol. Rev. 48, 222-271.
- [59] Bernhard, T. and Gottschalk, G. (1978) in Hydrogenases: Their catalytic activity, structure and function (Schlegel, H.G. and Schneider, K., ed.), pp. 199-208, Erich Goltze, Gottingen.
- [60] Lemma, E., Hägerhall, C., Geisler, V., Brandt, U., Von Jagow, G. and Kröger, A. (1991) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 1059, 281–285.
- [61] Ackrell, B.A.C., Johnson, M.K., Gunsalus, R.P. and Cecchini, G. (1992) in Chemistry and biochemistry of flavoenzymes (Müller, F., ed.) vol. III, pp. 229-297, CRC Press, Ann Arbor.
- [62] Diesenhofer, J. and Michel, H. (1989) EMBO J. 8, 2149-2170.
- [63] Rich. P.R. and Harper, R. (1990) FEBS Lett. 269, 139-144.

- [64] Matsushita, K., Ohno, Y., Shinagawa, E., Adachi, O. and Ameyama, M. (1982) Agric. Biol. Chem. 46, 1007-1011.
- [65] Matsushita, K., Shinagawa, E., Adachi, O. and Ameyama, M. (1989) Biochemistry 28, 6276–6280.
- [66] Izawa, S. and Good, N.E. (1969) Methods Enzymol. 24, 355-377.
- [67] Unden, G., Bocher, R., Knecht, J. and Kröger, A. (1982) FEBS Lett. 145, 230-234.
- [68] Menon, N.K., Robbins, J., Peck, H.D.J., Chatelus, C.Y., Choi, E.-S. and Przybyla, A.E. (1990) J. Bacteriol. 172, 1969-1977.
- [69] Cauvin, B., Colbeau, A. and Vignais, P.M. (1991) Mol. Microbiol. 5, 2519-2527.
- [70] Hidalgo, E., Palacios, J.M., Murillo, J. and Ruiz-Argueso, T. (1992)J. Bacteriol. 174, 4130–4139.
- [71] Kortlüke, C., Horstmann, K., Schwartz, E., Rohde, M., Binsack, R. and Friedrich, B. (1992) J. Bacteriol. 174, 6277–6289.
- [72] Menon, A.L., Mortenson, L.E. and Robson, R.L. (1992) J. Bacteriol. 174, 4549-4557.
- [73] Colbeau, A., Kovacs, K.L., Chabert, J. and Vignais, P.M. (1994) Gene 140, 25-31.
- [74] Fu, C.L. and Maier, R.J. (1994) Gene 141, 47-52.