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Cytochrome *bd* from *Escherichia coli* catalyzes peroxynitrite decomposition [☆]



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ABSTRACT

Cytochrome bd is a prokaryotic respiratory quinol oxidase phylogenetically unrelated to heme-copper oxidases, that was found to promote virulence in some bacterial pathogens. Cytochrome bd from Escherichia coli was previously reported to contribute not only to proton motive force generation, but also to bacterial resistance to nitric oxide (NO•) and hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2). Here, we investigated the interaction of the purified enzyme with peroxynitrite (ONOO $^-$), another harmful reactive species produced by the host to kill invading microorganisms. We found that addition of ONOO $^-$ to cytochrome bd in turnover with ascorbate and N,N,N',N'-tetramethylp-phenylenediamine (TMPD) causes the irreversible inhibition of a small (\leq 15%) protein fraction, due to the NO• generated from ONOO $^-$ and not to ONOO $^-$ itself. Consistently, addition of ONOO $^-$ to cells of the $E.\ coli$ strain GO105/pTK1, expressing cytochrome bd as the only terminal oxidase, caused only a minor (\leq 5%) irreversible inhibition of O2 consumption, without measurable release of NO•. Furthermore, by directly monitoring the kinetics of ONOO $^-$ decomposition by stopped-flow absorption spectroscopy, it was found that the purified $E.\ coli$ cytochrome bd in turnover with O2 is able to metabolize ONOO $^-$ with an apparent turnover rate as high a \sim 10 mol ONOO $^-$ (mol enzyme) $^{-1}$ s $^{-1}$ at 25 °C. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first time that the kinetics of ONOO $^-$ decomposition by a terminal oxidase has been investigated. These results strongly suggest a protective role of cytochrome bd against ONOO $^-$ damage.

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1. Introduction

Peroxynitrite (ONOO⁻) is a cytotoxic effector produced in mammalian immune cells to kill invading microbes (reviewed in [1,2]). In response to microbial infections, macrophages generate simultaneously nitric oxide (NO•) and superoxide anion (O_2^- •) by activating the inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) and NADPH oxidase, respectively. The two radical species then combine at a diffusion limited rate ($k \sim 10^{10} \, \mathrm{M}^{-1} \, \mathrm{s}^{-1}$) to yield high levels of ONOO⁻, particularly in the phagosomes where invading microbes are internalized to be destroyed. Under physiological conditions, ONOO⁻ is in equilibrium with peroxynitrous acid (ONOOH, $pK_a = 6.8$), both species

being highly reactive, particularly with protein metals and thiols. Peroxynitrite is a strong nucleophilic oxidant. Together with its reactive secondary intermediates, ONOO[—] reacts with a number of targets in the microbial cell, causing DNA damage, lipid oxidation, protein modifications and eventually cell death [3]. Therefore, it is not surprising that during evolution microorganisms have developed defense mechanisms to prevent ONOO[—] formation or to promote its decomposition, through the enzymatic detoxification of NO• (by NO•-dioxygenases and NO•reductases such as flavohemoglobin and flavodiiron protein), O₂[—]• (by superoxide dismutase and superoxide reductase) or ONOO[—] itself (by peroxiredoxins in primis).

In eukaryotes, among other pathways, ONOO[—] affects the mitochondrial electron transport chain through irreversible damage of NADH dehydrogenase, succinate dehydrogenase and ATPase [4–6]. Excess ONOO[—] was also reported to irreversibly inhibit purified cytochrome c oxidase [7–10], although this was not observed in functional mitochondria [4–6], while at stoichiometric ONOO[—] concentrations a peroxynitrite-reductase activity of the enzyme was reported with no information on the kinetics of the reaction [8]. Based on these results, and given the antimicrobial activity of ONOO[—], it seems of relevance to investigate the interaction of ONOO[—] with the bacterial counterparts of the mitochondrial respiratory complexes, an issue that has not been addressed in detail yet.

Abbreviations: NO•, nitric oxide; ONOO $^-$, peroxynitrite; DTPA, diethylenetriaminepentaacetic acid; TMPD, N_iN_i/N_i -tetramethyl-p-phenylenediamine

The aerobic respiratory chain of *E. coli* contains two *bd*-type terminal oxidases: *bd*-I and *bd*-II. Unless otherwise stated, we refer to cytochrome *bd*-I throughout the manuscript.

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Unlike the mitochondrial electron transport chain, the microbial respiratory chains are typically branched [11]. In particular, many bacteria in addition to or instead of a heme-copper oxidase contain a copperless tri-heme terminal oxidase, called cytochrome bd (reviewed in [12–14]). The enzyme catalyzes the reduction of molecular oxygen to water, using quinols as the physiological electron donors. The reaction is associated with the generation of a proton motive force via transmembrane charge separation, without involving a proton pumping mechanism [15-22]. Cytochrome bd is composed of two major membrane-spanning polypeptides, subunits I (CydA, 57 kDa) and II (CydB, 43 kDa), and a small protein, named CydX (4 kDa). The latter has been recently shown to be essential for enzymatic activity and proposed to be an additional subunit of the complex, needed for either the assembly or the stability of the enzyme [23–25]. Cytochrome bd bears two b-type hemes, the low-spin b_{558} and the high-spin b_{595} , and one chlorin, heme d. Heme b_{558} accepts electrons from the quinol substrate, whereas heme d is the site where the oxygen chemistry takes place. Less clear is the function of heme b_{595} . Although the X-ray structure of the protein is not available, existing data suggest that heme b_{595} could facilitate O_2 reduction at heme d, forming with the latter a di-heme active site [18,20,26-37]. Nevertheless, data inconsistent with the existence of a bimetallic O₂-reducing site were also reported [13,38]. Finally, heme b_{595} was also suggested to provide a second binding site for O_2 [39,40].

Relevant to the present study, cytochrome bd is present in many pathogenic bacteria that are able to use O_2 as the terminal electron acceptor and, for some of these pathogens, virulence was shown to depend on the expression of cytochrome bd (see [14,41,42] and references therein). The rationale for the latter observation could be that, based on the available literature, beyond its role in cell bioenergetics, cytochrome bd seems to accomplish several important physiological functions that enable bacterial survival in different ecological niches and, importantly, resistance to the hostile conditions created by the immune system in response to microbial infections (reviewed in [14,41,42]). In agreement with this hypothesis, there is growing evidence in the literature pointing to a protective role of cytochrome bd against a number of stressors, including H_2O_2 [23,42–52], NO^{\bullet} [41,53–58], CO [59], nitrite [60,61] and excess O_2 itself [62]. Intriguingly, all these species are implicated in the host immune response against microbial infections.

Based on the information above, and given the prominent role of ONOO^- in the host immune response, in this work, we have examined the interaction of the cytochrome bd from $E.\ coli$ with ONOO^- by amperometric and time-resolved spectroscopic techniques. The data presented here show that the purified enzyme in turnover with O_2 not only resists ONOO^- damage, but is also able to rapidly metabolize ONOO^- .

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Reagents and enzyme purification

Na-ascorbate, N,N,N',N'-tetramethyl-p-phenylenediamine (TMPD), diethylenetriaminepentaacetic acid (DTPA) and N-lauroyl-sarcosine were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Peroxynitrite (ONOO⁻) was from Calbiochem and its concentration was determined using $\varepsilon =$ 1670 mM⁻¹ cm⁻¹ at 302 nm [1]. Stock solutions of NO• (Air Liquide) were prepared by equilibrating degassed water with the NO• pure gas at 1 atm at room temperature yielding 2 mM NO• in solution. Cytochrome bd from E. coli strain GO105/pTK1 was isolated as reported [63,64]. The purified enzyme displayed high oxidase activity (see below) and characteristic absorption spectra both 'as prepared' and after dithionite reduction (not shown). This confirms that in the isolated enzyme all the three hemes, including the di-heme active site components, heme b_{595} and heme d, were present as expected for a bd-type oxidase [14]. Based on recent reports [23-25], this suggests that the purified enzyme likely included the newly discovered small subunit CydX. The enzyme concentration was determined from the dithionitereduced-minus-'as prepared' difference absorption spectrum using $\Delta \varepsilon_{628-607} = 10.8 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1} [30].$

2.2. Amperometric assays

Oxygraphic measurements were carried out at 25 °C in 100 mM Na/phosphate pH 7.0, 20 μM DTPA, using a high-resolution respirometer (Oxygraph-2k, Oroboros Instruments) equipped with 1.5 mLchambers. For assays with purified cytochrome bd, the buffer was supplemented with 0.05% N-lauroyl-sarcosine. In parallel to O₂ consumption, the concentration of NO• in solution was also recorded using a NO•-selective electrode (World Precision Instruments), calibrated by sequential additions of NO• from the stock solution. The O₂-reductase activity of purified cytochrome bd was measured in the presence of an excess of the reductants ascorbate and TMPD. In these assays, we could not use ubiquinone-1 plus an excess of dithiothreitol to sustain the cytochrome bd turnover, because dithiothreitol was found to react with $ONOO^-$ ($k = 500 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 25 °C, Supplemental Fig. 1). Under the tested experimental conditions, we noted that, after the addition of cytochrome bd to air-equilibrated buffer containing ascorbate and TMPD, the O2-reductase activity of the enzyme increased with time, reaching a maximal value within approximately half an hour. This phenomenon resembled the socalled 'pulsing effect' previously described for the mitochondrial cytochrome oxidase [65]. Given the observed spontaneous activation of the enzyme in turnover, to evaluate the effects of ONOO or NO• on the O₂-reductase activity of cytochrome bd, prior to the addition of these effectors, the enzyme was allowed to turn over with O₂ and excess reductants until the O2-consumption rate became constant and the oxygraphic trace took a linear profile.

2.3. Spectrophotometric measurements

Static UV-visible absorption spectra were recorded in an Agilent Cary-60 spectrophotometer. Stopped-flow experiments were carried out at 25 °C in a thermostated instrument (DX.17MV, Applied Photophysics, Leatherhead, UK), equipped with a 1 cm-light path observation chamber that allows the rapid (1-2 ms) mixing of two solutions in a 1:1 ratio. After mixing, time-resolved absorption changes were collected according to a logarithmic time scale. Peroxynitrite decomposition in the presence or absence of cytochrome bd was monitored at 310 nm, using $\varepsilon = 1600 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ [66]. The non-enzymatic degradation of ONOO was investigated by mixing a freshly prepared, air-equilibrated solution of ONOO (80-90 µM) in 10 mM NaOH with degassed buffer (100 mM Na/ phosphate, pH 7.0, 100 μM DTPA, 0.05% N-lauroyl-sarcosine) alone or containing ascorbate and TMPD. The ability of cytochrome bd to catalyze the degradation of ONOO was tested by mixing the aforementioned aerobic alkaline solution of ONOO with degassed buffer containing the enzyme 'as isolated' or pre-reduced with ascorbate and TMPD. At higher cytochrome bd concentration, the optical contribution of the enzyme to the absorption changes measured at 310 nm was independently evaluated in control experiments carried out in the absence of ONOO⁻, and subtracted from the traces acquired in the presence of ONOO at the same wavelength. The measured time courses of ONOO⁻ decomposition were fitted to single exponentials. The apparent turnover rate (TN) at which cytochrome bd catalyzes the degradation of ONOO⁻ was estimated using the following

$$TN = \frac{\left([\mathsf{ONOO}^-]_i \times k'_{bd} \right)}{[bd]}$$

where $[ONOO^-]_i$ is the initial concentration of ONOO⁻, [bd] is the concentration of cytochrome bd in the assay and k_{bd} is the difference between the observed rate constant measured in the presence of both the enzyme

and the reductants (enzymatic plus non-enzymatic degradation of ONOO⁻) and the rate constant measured in the presence of the reductants alone (non-enzymatic degradation of ONOO⁻).

2.4. Data analysis

Data analysis was carried out using MATLAB (The Mathworks, South Natick, MA) and Origin (OriginLab Corporation).

3. Results

The effect of ONOO $^-$ on the O $_2$ -reductase activity of cytochrome bd from $E.\ coli$ was investigated by adding up to $100\ \mu M$ ONOO $^-$ to the purified enzyme in turnover with O $_2$ and excess reductants (ascorbate and TMPD), and measuring the O $_2$ consumption rate. In these assays, the concentration of NO• in solution was also measured in parallel, using a NO•-selective electrode. As a representative dataset, we report in Fig. 1A the O $_2$ and NO• traces collected on addition of $50\ \mu M$ ONOO $^-$. Comparison of the two traces clearly shows that, following the addition of ONOO $^-$, a transient arrest of O $_2$ consumption by cytochrome bd occurs concomitantly with the production of approximately $4\ \mu M$ NO•. Afterward, the O $_2$ consumption resumes as NO• disappears from solution by reacting with O $_2$ and with the ferryl intermediate of cytochrome

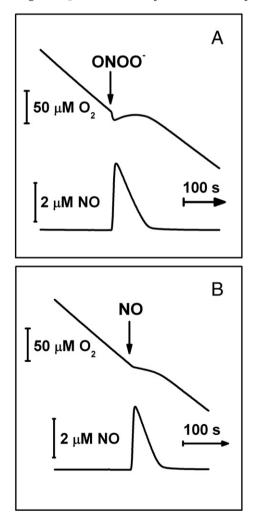


Fig. 1. Effect of ONOO $^-$ and NO• on cytochrome bd oxidase activity. Effect of $50\,\mu\rm M$ ONOO $^-$ (A) or $4\,\mu\rm M$ NO• (B) on the O_2 consumption of cytochrome bd (upper traces). In these assays the NO• concentration was measured in parallel (lower traces). Conditions: 100 mM Na/phosphate pH 7.0, 20 $\mu\rm M$ DTPA, 0.05% N-lauroyl-sarcosine, 10 mM ascorbate, 0.5 mM TMPD and 0.1 $\mu\rm M$ cytochrome bd. T=25 °C.

bd, highly populated at steady state [67], yielding in both cases nitrite as the main product according to previous reports [54,68].

Fig. 1B shows a control oxygraphic trace in which $\sim 4\,\mu\text{M}$ authentic NO• has been added to the reaction chamber instead of 50 μM ONOO $^-$. Addition of NO• reveals almost the same inhibitory pattern observed with ONOO $^-$, with the enzyme activity being temporarily stopped and eventually resuming after the NO• decay. The observed rapid and reversible inhibition of cytochrome bd by NO• is in agreement with previous reports [53,69]. The two oxygraphic traces shown in Fig. 1 differ from each other in that, in contrast to NO•, addition of ONOO $^-$ not only stops oxygen consumption, but also leads to a slight short-term evolution of O₂ (Fig. 1A, upper trace). Since H_2O_2 is a contaminant of commercially available ONOO $^-$ preparations and can be produced as a secondary product of ONOO $^-$ decomposition, the observed evolution of O_2 likely originates from the reaction of H_2O_2 with $E.\ coli$ cytochrome bd, that has been recently reported to display a NO•-insensitive catalase activity [51].

Careful analysis of the O_2 consumption rates measured before and after the addition of ONOO $^-$ shows that, following the NO• decay, the enzyme activity does not return to the initial level. Interestingly, identical results were obtained in the control experiments performed with authentic NO•. By comparing the effects of ONOO $^-$ and authentic NO• on the maximal O_2 -reductase activity recovered after reversal of enzyme inhibition, it can be seen that if such activity (expressed as a percentage of the initial control value) is plotted as a function of the concentration of NO•, added (*triangles*) or generated from ONOO $^-$ (*circles*), the two datasets perfectly match (Fig. 2). Therefore, we conclude that the small irreversible inhibition of cytochrome bd observed

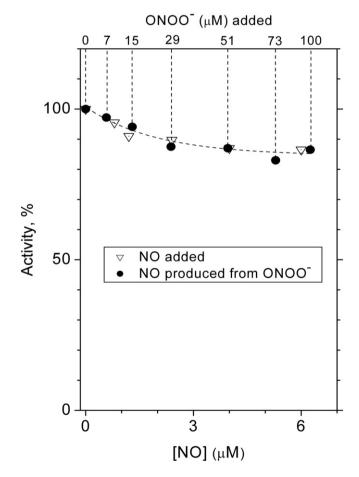


Fig. 2. Cytochrome bd activity recovered after reversal of NO• inhibition. O₂-reductase activity of cytochrome bd observed after disappearance of NO•, initially added or produced from ONOO $^-$. Values are expressed with reference to the activity measured before addition of ONOO $^-$ or NO• taken as 100%. Conditions as in Fig. 1.

after exposure to ONOO $^-$ is due to NO• and not to ONOO $^-$ itself. Such irreversible inhibition can only be observed at high (micromolar) concentrations of NO•, with a maximum of ~15% inhibition detected at ~6 μ M NO•, either externally added or produced from 100 μ M ONOO $^-$ (Fig. 2).

Fig. 3 reports the amount of NO• detected in solution in the experiments described above after the addition of ONOO[—] to cytochrome *bd* in turnover in the presence of an excess of ascorbate and TMPD. The data clearly show that the NO• released increases proportionally with the concentration of the ONOO[—] added. Moreover, it is evident that the formation of NO• is also observed in the absence of the enzyme, but to a much lesser extent than in its presence. This finding indicates that, in the presence of ascorbate and TMPD, cytochrome *bd* by reacting with ONOO[—] facilitates its (partial) conversion to NO•. In control experiments we tested that varying the enzyme concentration in the 15–300 nM range, while proportionally increasing the O₂ consumption rate, did not change the amount of NO• released from ONOO[—] (Supplemental Fig. 2).

To provide direct evidence for the ability of cytochrome bd to metabolize ONOO $^-$ and gain insight into the kinetics of the reaction, we carried out stopped-flow experiments, in which the kinetics of ONOO $^-$ decomposition was investigated at 25 °C in the presence and in the absence of the enzyme, by monitoring the absorption changes at 310 nm. Fig. 4 shows that under the tested experimental conditions, 42 μ M ONOO $^-$ decays spontaneously within 10 s with a rate constant k' ~0.35 s $^{-1}$ (dotted line). However, in the presence of cytochrome bd (1.1 μ M) in turnover with O₂ and excess reductants (0.5 mM ascorbate and 50 μ M TMPD), the same amount of ONOO $^-$ disappears from the solution at a higher rate (k' ~0.52 s $^{-1}$, solid line). Importantly, neither the

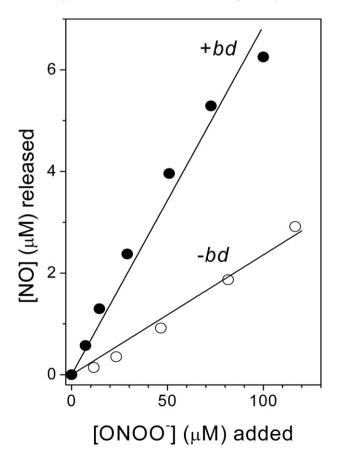


Fig. 3. NO• released from ONOO $^-$ in the presence or absence of cytochrome bd. NO• detected in solution following the addition of increasing amounts of ONOO $^-$ to 100 mM Na/phosphate pH 7.0, 20 μ M DTPA, 0.05% N-lauroyl-sarcosine, 10 mM ascorbate and 0.5 mM TMPD alone (open circles) or plus 0.1 μ M cytochrome bd (closed circles). Conditions as in Fig. 1.

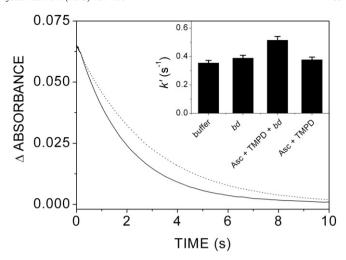


Fig. 4. ONOO $^-$ decomposition by cytochrome bd in turnover. Time course of ONOO $^-$ decomposition acquired at 310 nm after stopped-flow mixing at 25 °C an air-equilibrated solution of 84 μM ONOO $^-$ in 10 mM NaOH with anaerobic buffer alone (100 mM Na/phosphate, pH 7.0, 100 μM DTPA, 0.05% N-lauroyl-sarcosine, dotted line) or containing 2.2 μM cytochrome bd pre-reduced by 1 mM ascorbate and 100 μM TMPD (solid line). The reported concentrations are before mixing. Inset: rate constants observed for ONOO $^-$ decomposition measured in the presence of: buffer alone ('buffer') or plus 1.1 μM cytochrome bd as isolated ('bd'), 1.1 μM cytochrome bd pre-reduced by 0.5 mM ascorbate and 50 μM TMPD ('Asc + TMPD + bd') or just 0.5 mM ascorbate and 50 μM TMPD ('Asc + TMPD'). The reported concentrations are all after mixing.

enzyme nor the reductants, when assayed independently and at the same concentrations indicated above, were found to elicit ONOO $^-$ decomposition to a significant extent (inset to Fig. 4). Therefore, after subtracting the contribution of the spontaneous, non-enzymatic decay of ONOO $^-$, one can conclude that under the tested experimental conditions 1.1 μ M cytochrome bd in turnover with O $_2$ is able to metabolize 42 μ M ONOO $^-$ with $k'\sim0.15~s^{-1}$, which allows the estimation of an apparent initial turnover rate of ~5.7 mol ONOO $^-$ (mol enzyme) $^{-1}$ s $^{-1}$ for the enzyme-mediated degradation of ONOO $^-$. By investigating the kinetics of ONOO $^-$ decomposition at different cytochrome bd concentrations (from 0 to 5 μ M) in the presence of 1.5 mM ascorbate and 150 μ M TMPD, we found ONOO $^-$ to be metabolized with an observed rate

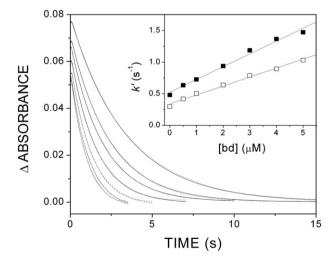


Fig. 5. Effect of cytochrome bd and TMPD concentration on ONOO $^-$ decomposition. Decomposition of 37–45 μM ONOO $^-$ measured in the presence of 1.5 mM ascorbate, 150 μM TMPD and cytochrome bd at the following concentrations: 0, 0.5, 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 μM (traces from right to left). Other conditions as in Fig. 4. The reported concentrations are all after mixing. The depicted traces, shown with their best fit to single exponentials, were obtained after subtracting the optical contribution of the enzyme independently measured in the absence of ONOO $^-$. Inset: rate constants observed for ONOO $^-$ decomposition at increasing concentrations of cytochrome bd in the presence of 1.5 mM ascorbate and 150 μM (open symbols) or 300 μM TMPD (closed symbols).

constant linearly dependent on the enzyme concentration (Fig. 5). Moreover, upon increasing the TMPD concentration from 150 to 300 μ M, at each enzyme concentration a faster decomposition of ONOO⁻ was measured (solid vs open symbols, inset to Fig. 5), consistent with an increase of the apparent turnover rate for cytochrome bd-mediated ONOO⁻ decomposition from ~7 to ~10 mol ONOO⁻ (mol enzyme)⁻¹ s⁻¹.

All together, these data show that i) cytochrome bd is not inactivated by up to 100 μM ONOO⁻ and ii) the enzyme in turnover with O₂ is able to rapidly metabolize ONOO with an apparent turnover rate increasing at higher concentrations of the reducing substrates. These conclusions are fully consistent with the results obtained in control experiments carried out with cells of the E. coli GO105/pTK1 strain, expressing plasmid-encoded cytochrome bd as the only respiratory terminal oxidase [70]. As shown in Fig. 6, similar to the isolated enzyme (Fig. 1A), addition of ONOO⁻ to the cells respiring on endogenous substrates led to a short-term evolution of O2, due to contaminant H2O2 in the ONOO solution. However, at variance from the isolated enzyme (Fig. 1A), addition of a relatively large amount of $ONOO^-$ (80 μ M) to the cells did not lead to a measurable NO• release (lower trace in Fig. 6), thus causing only a minor (\leq 5%) irreversible inhibition of O₂ consumption (upper trace in Fig. 6). This finding is consistent with the conclusion that cytochrome bd is highly resistant to ONOO damage.

4. Discussion

Previously, it was suggested that *E. coli* cytochrome *bd* contributes to bacterial resistance to NO• and H₂O₂ (see [14,41,42] and references therein), which is likely to have patho-physiological consequences in vivo, since both these species are generated as part of the host immune response to microbial infections. This prompted us to investigate in the present study the interaction of *E. coli* cytochrome *bd* with ONOO⁻, another highly reactive species produced by the host to combat microbial pathogens, that is known to give rise to oxidative and nitrosative stresses in *E. coli* [71] and other microorganisms (reviewed in [2]). The aim of this work was twofold: on the one hand to determine whether the enzyme is irreversibly inhibited by ONOO⁻, thus representing a potential target for ONOO⁻ in the *E. coli* cell, and on the other hand to test if cytochrome *bd* can metabolize ONOO⁻.

We found that up to $100 \,\mu\text{M}$ ONOO $^-$ does not damage the *bd*-type terminal oxidase. Following the addition of ONOO $^-$ to the purified enzyme in the presence of ascorbate and TMPD, we have observed a release of NO• and a transient inhibition of the O $_2$ reductase activity of the

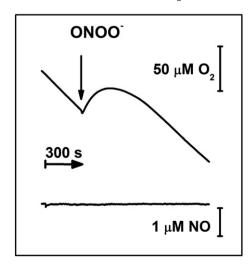


Fig. 6. Effect of ONOO $^-$ on O $_2$ consumption of *E. coli* cells. Effect of 80 μ M ONOO $^-$ on the O $_2$ consumption of *E. coli* GO105/pTK1 cells (OD $_{600}$ ~ 0.25, upper traces). Trace measured in parallel using a NO•-selective electrode (lower traces). Buffer: 100 mM Na/phosphate pH 7.0, 20 μ M DTPA. T = 25 °C.

bd enzyme (Fig. 1A). Control experiments carried out with authentic NO• gas showed the same pattern of inhibition. On this basis, we concluded that the observed inhibition was due to the NO• generated from ONOO (Figs. 1 and 2). The amount of NO• produced from the ONOO⁻ added to cytochrome bd in turnover was indeed in the μM range, i.e., well above the apparent K_i value (100 nM \pm 34 nM NO• at ~70 µM O₂, [53]) determined for NO• inhibition of cytochrome bd. In addition, it was found that NO• at high (µM) levels causes a small (~15%) irreversible inhibition of purified cytochrome bd (Fig. 2). In this regard, it should be noted that NO• and ONOO were both reported to cause an irreversible inhibition of the mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase purified from beef heart [7,9], used as a model of respiratory heme-copper oxidases. At low concentrations (0–3 μM NO• and 0–20 μM ONOO⁻), NO^{\bullet} and $ONOO^{-}$ were found to irreversibly increase the K_m for O_2 , presumably via nitration of specific tyrosine residues, whereas at high concentrations (>20 μM) ONOO was shown to irreversibly affect also V_{max} [7,9]. The latter effect was attributed to irreversible damage at the redox-active metal centers of the enzyme, in particular at the binuclear Cu_A center [7]. This copper center is located in a hydrophilic domain protruding outside the inner mitochondrial membrane, being thus accessible to ONOO⁻. As mentioned above, in the present study it is shown that, at variance from purified mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase, exposure to ONOO does not lead to a permanent impairment of the cytochrome bd O₂-reductase activity, as if the latter enzyme was more resistant to ONOO damages. At this stage, we ignore what accounts for the different susceptibility between the two enzymes; however, it is tempting to speculate that the higher resistance of cytochrome bd might be related to the lack of copper centers in the bacterial

In line with the results collected on the isolated enzyme, in experiments carried out with intact E. coli GO105/pTK1 cells expressing cytochrome bd as the only respiratory terminal oxidase, we found that addition of up to $80 \, \mu M$ ONOO $^-$ causes only a minor ($\leq 5\%$) irreversible inhibition of O_2 consumption and no measurable release of NO^\bullet (Fig. 6). These observations are consistent with the finding that cytochrome bd is highly resistant to $ONOO^-$ damage, although in these assays with bacterial cells it is hard to predict the stability of $ONOO^-$ and its ability to react with cytochrome bd among the different cellular targets.

As an additional important result, we found that *E. coli* cytochrome *bd* in turnover with O₂ and excess reductants not only tolerates ONOO⁻, but can also catalyze the decomposition of ONOO⁻. The reaction is accompanied by formation of NO• (Fig. 3), as reported previously for the mitochondrial cytochrome oxidase [7], and is clearly associated with enzyme turnover (Figs. 4 and 5). By directly monitoring the decomposition of ONOO by time-resolved absorption spectroscopy, we found that ONOO is degraded with an observed rate constant that is proportional to the enzyme concentration and increases with TMPD concentration (i.e., with the electron flux) (Fig. 5). The acquired data revealed that E. coli cytochrome bd, in turnover with O2 and excess ascorbate and TMPD, is able to metabolize ONOO⁻ at 25 °C with an apparent turnover rate as high as $\sim 10 \text{ mol ONOO}^-$ (mol enzyme)⁻¹ s⁻¹. We cannot rule out that the ONOO⁻-degrading activity of cytochrome *bd* could be even higher in vivo with the enzyme membrane-integrated and readily reduced by its physiological quinol substrates (ubiquinol, menaquinol and demethylquinol). Although the molecular mechanism of ONOO⁻ decomposition by cytochrome bd is yet to be established, we hypothesize that it may involve the reaction of ONOO with one or more enzyme's turnover intermediates. This is the first time that a terminal oxidase has been shown to metabolize ONOO by directly measuring the kinetics of ONOO decay by time-resolved spectroscopy. Moreover, to the best of our knowledge, cytochrome bd is the first enzyme from E. coli that has been shown to metabolize ONOO⁻.

In conclusion, in this study we found that E. coli cytochrome bd in turnover with O_2 not only resists $ONOO^-$ damage, but is also able to catalyze the rapid degradation of $ONOO^-$. The newly discovered $ONOO^-$ -degrading activity of cytochrome bd may be relevant

physiologically, contributing to the enhancement of bacterial resistance to nitroxidative stress and, thus, pathogenicity.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bbabio.2014.10.006.

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