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The inhibitory effects of 15 hydrocarbons and halogenated hydrocarbons on NH₃ oxidation by ammonia monooxygenase (AMO) in intact cells of the nitrifying bacterium *Nitrosomonas europaea* were determined. Determination of AMO activity, measured as NO₂⁻ production, required coupling of hydroxylamine oxidoreductase (HAO) activity with NH₃-dependent NH₂OH production by AMO. Hydrazine, an alternate substrate for HAO, was added to the reaction mixtures as a source of reductant for AMO. Most inhibitors exhibited competitive or noncompetitive inhibition patterns. The competitive character generally decreased (K_{iE}/K_{iES} increased) as the molecular size of the inhibitors increased. For example, CH₄ and C₂H₄ were competitive inhibitors of NH₃ oxidation, whereas the remaining alkanes (up to C₄) and monohalogenated (Cl, Br, I) alkanes were noncompetitive. Oxidation of C₂H₅Br (noncompetitive character ($K_{iE} \leq K_{iES}$) were diminished at 40 mM NH₄⁺. Multichlorinated compounds produced nonlinear Lineweaver-Burk plots. Iodinated alkanes (CH₃I, C₂H₅I) and C₂Cl₄ were potent inhibitors of NH₃ oxidations were approximately equivalent, suggesting a common rate-determining step. These data support an active-site model for AMO consisting of an NH₃-binding site and a second site that binds noncompetitive inhibitors, with oxidation occurring at either site.

The widely distributed soil bacterium Nitrosomonas europaea is an obligate chemolithoautotrophic aerobe which uses ammonia as its sole natural energy source (28). The oxidation of ammonia to nitrite in N. europaea is initiated by ammonia mono-oxygenase (AMO). Because of the broad substrate range of AMO (2, 19, 21, 24), attention has focused recently on the possibility of using nitrifiers such as N. europaea in the bioremediation of contaminated soils and aquifers and in the treatment of wastes. Exploitation of this potential of nitrifiers will require a thorough knowledge of AMO and its interaction with alternate substrates.

AMO catalyzes the oxidation of NH_3 to hydroxylamine which is subsequently oxidized to NO_2^- by hydroxylamine oxidoreductase (HAO) with the release of four electrons (28). Two of the four electrons must be transferred to AMO to activate O_2 and maintain steady-state rates of ammonia oxidation (28). Free NH_2OH concentrations are apparently very low during ammonia oxidation (28). The coupling of AMO and HAO activities is illustrated in the top half of Fig. 1. AMO in *N. europaea* also catalyzes the oxidation of several alternate substrates (including hydrocarbons and halogenated hydrocarbons) (19–21, 24). These oxidations, such as the oxidation of ethylene to ethylene oxide (Fig. 1, bottom half), require reductant, which can be supplied by the simultaneous oxidation of ammonia to provide NH_2OH .

Previous studies of halogenated hydrocarbon oxidations by *N. europaea* focused on the substrate range of the enzyme (11, 19–21, 24), product identification (11, 19), and the toxicity associated with the oxidation of some compounds (21, 24). As potential substrates for AMO, hydrocarbons and halogenated hydrocarbons can be categorized into three classes as defined by Rasche et al. (21): class 1 (those not oxidized by AMO), class 2 (those oxidized by AMO with little or no resultant toxic effect on the cells), and class 3 (those oxidized by AMO but yielding reactive products that inactivate NH₃ oxidation). Two examples of class 1 compounds are carbon tetrachloride and tetrachloroethylene (21). Chloromethane (21) and monohaloethanes (19) are class 2 substrates, which yield formaldehyde and acetaldehyde as oxidation products, respectively. Chloroform and trichloroethylene are examples of class 3 compounds, although both are oxidatively dechlorinated (21).

Although previous studies have provided information on the substrate range and other aspects of alternate substrate oxidations by AMO, they have provided little information on how halogenated hydrocarbon substrates interact with the active site of AMO. Kinetic inhibition studies can provide such insights into the active site of AMO and should therefore have predictive value for biotransformations of compounds structurally related to those we have tested, as well as for in situ biotransformations of mixtures of compounds. With whole cells of N. europaea, the inhibition of NH_3 oxidation by CH_4 (13) and C_2H_4 (14) is competitive, which indicates mutually exclusive binding of NH₃ and these alternate substrates. Benzene, which is oxidized to phenol and subsequently to p-hydroquinone, exhibits a noncompetitive pattern (12). At low NH_4^+ concentrations, the doublereciprocal plots for CH₄ and C₂H₄ deviate from the pattern expected for simple competitive inhibition; reductant depletion was cited as an explanation (14). Suzuki et al. (23) monitored AMO activity by measuring NH₃-dependent O₂ consumption in cell extracts and obtained double-reciprocal plots for the inhibitors CH₄, CO, and CH₃OH which are also indicative of competitive inhibition. Their plots also deviate somewhat from simple competitive inhibition.

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FIG. 1. Reactions catalyzed by AMO and HAO. Reactants are shown in numbers required for a single catalytic turnover event.

We wished to investigate the interactions of hydrocarbons and halogenated hydrocarbons with AMO by determining the inhibition patterns and apparent inhibition constants associated with the inhibition of NH₃ oxidation by these compounds. Since bioremediation applications with N. europaea would involve whole cells, our experiments were carried out with intact cells. Active, purified preparations of AMO are not available. Furthermore, there is considerable difficulty involved in stabilizing and assaying cell extracts (6). The direct electron donor for AMO has not been identified, necessitating the use of a coupled enzyme system, as in our study. The efficiency of coupling of AMO and HAO activities is apparently greatly reduced when cells are lysed (6). Alternate substrates can influence AMO activity in intact cells by three distinct mechanisms: (i) direct binding and interaction with AMO, (ii) interference with the reductant supply to AMO (oxidation of alternate substrates requires reductant, but the products are not further oxidized to replenish the reductant as is the case with NH₃), or (iii) oxidation to highly reactive products that covalently bind and inactivate AMO and other enzymes. To avoid the cytotoxic effects associated with reactive products, we limited our study to class 1 and 2 compounds. To ensure a constant supply of reductant to AMO, we included hydrazine, an alternate substrate for HAO, in the reaction mixtures. In this way, we attempted to restrict the inhibitory effects of class 2 compounds to direct interactions with AMO. Fifteen hydrocarbon and halogenated hydrocarbon inhibitors produced a variety of inhibition patterns including competitive, noncompetitive, and nonlinear (concave-down) v^{-1} -versus- S^{-1} plots (for definitions of v and S, see Materials and Methods). Within the selection of inhibitors, trends were noted in molecular size, identity of the halogen substituent, and number of halogen substituents. These trends should enhance the predictive value of the present work.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell growth and preparation. N. europaea ATCC 19718 was cultured in 1.5-liter batches at 30°C. The growth medium contained 25 mM (NH₄)₂SO₄ and other constituents as described previously (21). Cultures were inoculated with 40 ml of a 2-day-old culture of N. europaea grown on the same medium. Nitrite concentrations were determined spectrophotometrically by using the formula $(A_{352} - A_{400})/0.0225 =$ [NO₂^{-]} (millimolar concentration). When the NO₂⁻ concentrations in the medium reached 15 to 21 mM (~42 h), the cells were harvested by centrifugation. At this age, the cell culture is in the late exponential growth phase; AMO activity for a given cell density is maximal (9) and consistent (as indicated by the day-to-day consistency of $V_{\rm max}$ and K_m values for control curves in v^{-1} -versus- S^{-1} plots [see below]. The cells were washed once in assay buffer, consisting of 50 mM NaH₂PO₄ (pH 7.7) and 2 mM MgCl₂, and then sedimented and resuspended in assay buffer to a constant cell density (1.8 mg of protein per ml). Cell suspensions were prepared daily, stored on ice in the dark, and used within 15 h. Protein content was determined by using the biuret assay (7) after the cells were solubilized in 3 N NaOH for 1 h at 65°C.

Materials. Liquid inhibitors included CCl₄ (Fisher, Fair Lawn, N.J.); C₂H₃Cl (Kodak, Rochester, N.Y.); and C₂H₅Br, C₂Cl₄, \hat{C}_2 H₅I, CH₃I, CCl₃CH₂Cl, and *n*-ClC₃H₇ (Aldrich Chemical Co., Milwaukee, Wis.). Gaseous inhibitors included CH₄ and C₂H₄ (Airco, Vancouver, Wash.); C₃H₈ and *n*-C₄H₁₀ (Aldrich); and CH₃Br, CH₃Cl, and C₂H₆ (Liquid Carbonic, Chicago, Ill.). The purities of all compounds were \geq 99% unless otherwise noted. Other reagents included 1-allyl-2-thiourea (Kodak), NH₂OH · HCl (97.8% pure; Fisher), N₂H₄ · H₂SO₄ (Fisher), and (NH₄)₂SO₄ (Mallinckrodt, Paris, Ky.). All other chemicals were of reagent grade.

Kinetic inhibition assays. Stock solutions of the liquid inhibitors were prepared by adding the compounds to bufferfilled vials with microsyringes. Solutions were stirred magnetically to achieve equilibrium, and then appropriate volumes were added with microsyringes to glass serum vials (volume, 6.5 ml) sealed with butyl rubber stoppers (Teflonlined stoppers were used with C_2Cl_4). Gaseous inhibitors were added directly to sealed serum vials with microsyringes. Serum vials contained 4.9 ml of assay buffer. Inhibitor concentrations in the liquid phase of the assay vials were calculated from dilutions (solutions of liquids in buffer) or volumes added (gases), accounting for partitioning between the gas and liquid phases (determined by gas chromatography). Cells (50 μ l of the aforementioned suspension) were added to the reaction vials, which were preincubated for 10 min in a water bath with shaking at 30°C. The reactions were initiated by addition of an aqueous solution (50 µl) containing $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ and N_2H_4 in concentrations appropriate to give the desired initial concentrations in the assay vials. The vials were shaken in a reciprocating water bath (three reciprocations per s) at 30°C. After 10 min, the reactions were stopped by addition of 1-allyl-2-thiourea (to 40 µM), a potent, specific inhibitor of NH₃ oxidation (16). The amount of NO₂⁻ produced in the reactions was determined colorimetrically (8). For the experiment whose results are shown in Table 1, NH₃ concentrations were determined colorimetrically as described previously (27).

To examine NH₃ as an inhibitor of C_2H_4 oxidation by AMO, we determined the inhibition pattern for several fixed NH₄⁺ concentrations with variable C_2H_4 concentrations. The production of ethylene oxide was quantified by gas chromatography as described previously (19) (see Fig. 5). The reaction conditions were as described above, including the addition of an optimized concentration of N₂H₄ for each combination of NH₄⁺ and C₂H₄ (see below).

Analysis of kinetic inhibition data. The rates of NO₂⁻ formation (ν) (or of C₂H₄O formation [see Fig. 5]) obtained at various NH₄⁺ concentrations (S) at a fixed inhibitor concentration were fit to the equation $\nu = (V_{max} \cdot S)(K_m + S)^{-1}$ by using the unweighted least-squares method and the Marquardt-Levenberg algorithm for nonlinear curve fitting (SigmaPlot; Jandel Corp.). Data for tetrachlorinated inhibitors clearly exhibited more complex behavior than for the remaining inhibitors; therefore, K_i values were not deter-

mined for these compounds. The datum points in Fig. 7 are connected by straight lines to indicate that they correspond to a given inhibitor concentration. The kinetic inhibition data were plotted as v^{-1} versus S^{-1} at several inhibitor concentrations to facilitate visual analysis. The inhibition constants K_{iE} and K_{iES} were obtained by replotting the inhibitor concentrations versus the slopes or y intercepts obtained on the v^{-1} -versus- S^{-1} plots, respectively. The constants were taken as the absolute values of the x intercepts on the appropriate replots. For purified enzymes with one substrate and an unreactive inhibitor, K_{iE} and K_{iES} are the dissociation constants for binding of the inhibitor to the free enzyme (E) and the enzyme-substrate complex (ES), respectively (4). Our system provides apparent K_i values that cannot be considered true dissociation constants. However, these values should provide reasonable approximations for the relative affinities of these inhibitors for AMO in vivo.

Addition of hydrazine to circumvent reductant limitation. To eliminate reductant depletion caused by the oxidation of alternate substrates by AMO, we added hydrazine to the reaction mixture at a concentration that gave the maximum NO_2^- production rate. This optimum N_2H_4 concentration was determined empirically for each combination of NH_4^+ and inhibitor concentrations as follows. Hydrazine concentrations (0, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7, and 0.9 mM) were tested for 0.5, 1, and 5 mM NH_4^+ for each of the high, low, and intermediate inhibitor concentrations (five concentrations were used for most inhibitors). The optimum N_2H_4 concentration was then interpolated for the remaining combinations of NH_4^+ and inhibitor concentrations.

 V_{max} and K_{m} determinations for C_2H_4 and C_2H_6 . V_{max} and K_m values were determined for the alternate substrates C_2H_4 and C_2H_6 by using N_2H_4 (added from aqueous stock solutions) to provide reductant. Oxidation rates of C_2H_4 and C_2H_6 were maximized with 0.8 mM N_2H_4 ; varying the N_2H_4 concentration was unnecessary. The respective products ethylene oxide and ethanol were quantified by gas chromatography as described previously (19). All other reaction conditions were as described above.

Alternate substrate oxidations with NH₃ as the sole reductant source. The effects of increasing NH₄⁺ concentrations on the oxidation rates of C₂H₄, CH₃Br, C₂H₅Br, and CH₃Cl were determined. The alternate substrates (300 μ M in the aqueous phase) were combined with cells, preincubated as above, and (NH₄)₂SO₄ was added (final NH₄⁺ concentrations, 1, 2, 5, 10, 20, and 40 mM) to initiate the reaction. Oxidation rates with endogenous reductant only were determined in the absence of NH₄⁺ (see Table 4). Hydrocarbon and halogenated hydrocarbon oxidations were determined as the amount of product formed or the difference between the initial substrate concentrations and the substrate concentration that remained after a fixed period. Substrates and products were quantified with liquid-phase injections by using gas chromatography. All other reaction conditions were as described above.

RESULTS

Determination of the validity of a coupled assay to measure rates of NH₃ oxidation in the presence of AMO inhibitors. We sought to investigate the kinetic mechanisms of the interactions of hydrocarbon and halogenated hydrocarbon compounds with the physiological substrate NH₃. AMO activity can be determined in a number of ways, including gaschromatographic analysis of organic substrate depletion and determination of the residual NH₄⁺ concentration by use of

 TABLE 1. Comparison of ammonium consumed and nitrite produced by whole cells of N. europaea in the presence of ethylene and/or hydrazine^a

Addition	Amt of ammonium consumed (µmol)	Amt of nitrite produced (µmol)
$\overline{0.5 \text{ mM NH}_4^+}$	1.52	1.58
1 mM NH_4^+	2.76	2.77
$0.5 \text{ mM NH}_4^+ + 0.7 \text{ mM N}_2 H_4$	1.18	1.19
$1 \text{ mM NH}_{4}^{+} + 0.7 \text{ mM N}_{2}H_{4}^{-}$	1.93	1.89
0.5 mM NH_4^+ + 690 μ M C_2H_4 + 0.5 mM N_2H_4	0.61	0.61
1 mM NH ₄ ^{+ +} 690μ M C ₂ H ₄ + 0.5 mM N ₂ H ₄	1.14	1.16

 a Reactions were stopped with $C_{2}H_{2}$ after 1 h. Ammonium and nitrite concentrations were measured as described in Materials and Methods.

an ion-selective electrode or a colorimetric assay. However, these methods suffer from the need to accurately determine small changes in NH₃ or alternate substrate concentration. We chose to determine rates of NO₂⁻ production from NH₃ as a measure of AMO activity; colorimetric NO₂⁻ quantification is a simple and sensitive assay. A shortcoming of this method is that NO₂⁻ production involves the coupling of two enzyme activities-AMO and HAO-through the intermediate NH₂OH. Therefore, a number of assumptions are inherent in this assay. The first assumption was that all the oxidized NH₃ was converted to NO₂⁻. To test this assumption, we performed an experiment in which the amounts of NH₃ consumed were determined and compared with the amounts of NO₂⁻ produced under various experimental conditions. As shown in Table 1, the amount of NH₃ consumed after incubation for 1 h equaled the amount of NO₂⁻ produced under all conditions tested, which included the presence of a representative inhibitor, C_2H_4 (690 μ M), and/or the reductant N_2H_4 (0.7 mM). This approach was not feasible for measuring small changes in NH₄⁺ concentration occurring during 10-min reaction periods, as used in the kinetic assays. However, when the highest concentration of an alternate substrate/inhibitor was used (with its optimal N₂H₄ concentration [see below]) and AMO was specifically and rapidly inactivated with $C_2 H_2$ after 10-min reactions, no significant further increases in NO₂⁻ concentration were measured after continued incubation of the reaction mixtures. Supraoptimal N_2H_4 concentrations diminished NO_2 production over 10-min reactions but also correlated with significant increases in NO₂⁻ concentration with extended incubations. These observations can be explained if negligible NH₂OH concentrations accumulate with optimal N_2H_4 concentrations, whereas supraoptimal N₂H₄ concentrations cause accumulation of NH₂OH.

The second assumption was that changes in the concentrations of substrates, inhibitors, and products during the time course of the reaction (10 min) did not affect the observed rates of NO_2^- production. To test this assumption, we determined time courses of NO_2^- production with the inhibitor C_2H_4 under the conditions used for Fig. 2. The reaction rates were constant up to 16 min. In subsequent experiments, the rates were determined from the first 10 min of the reaction. Similar tests of rate constancy were conducted for all 15 compounds examined; rates of NO_2^- production were constant over the time course of the experiments, with only C_2H_5Br and C_2H_5I causing slight rate decreases at the highest inhibitor concentrations.

The third assumption was that any inhibition of NH₃



FIG. 2. Time courses of NO₂⁻ production by *N. europaea*. For each line, reactions in quintuplicate vials were initiated by addition of cells and individually stopped at 4-min intervals by addition of C_2H_2 . For vials containing C_2H_4 , N_2H_4 concentrations providing maximum NO₂⁻ production were determined (see Materials and Methods) and included in quintuplicate vials. Symbols: **■**, 0.5 mM NH₄⁺; **●**, 1 mM NH₄⁺; **▲**, 5 mM NH₄⁺; **□**, 0.5 mM NH₄⁺ + 690 μ M C_2H_4 + 0.7 mM N_2H_4 ; \bigcirc , 1 mM NH₄⁺ + 690 μ M C_2H_4 + 0.3 mM N_2H_4 .

oxidation observed was specific for AMO and was not due to inhibition of HAO or other enzymes involved in the coupled reaction. To test this assumption, we investigated whether the oxidation of NH₂OH to NO₂⁻ by HAO was influenced by any of the 15 inhibitors tested. AMO was inactivated with C_2H_2 , a mechanism-based inactivator of AMO (15). Reactions were stopped after 8 min by addition of an aliquot of the reaction mixture to the acidic reagent for the NO₂⁻ assay. Even at the highest concentrations of the inhibitors used to obtain the kinetic data, the oxidation of NH₂OH (200 μ M) was not inhibited by 14 of the compounds. Only CCl₃CH₂Cl (1.2 mM) inhibited the oxidation of NH₂OH (by 18%). This indicates that HAO and other enzymes and proteins required in the oxidation of NH₂OH to NO₂⁻ in intact cells were not influenced by the inhibitors.

Because the reactions were carried out with intact cells, a fourth assumption was that NH4⁺ diffusion gradients between the medium and the cell periplasm were not influenced by changes in AMO activity. To determine whether NH₄⁻¹ concentration gradients exist, we partially and specifically inactivated AMO in whole cells with light (10) and then adjusted the concentration of the cells to give the same maximum velocity of NO_2^- production as in untreated control cells (at 20 mM NH_4^+). Rates of NO_2^- production as a function of NH_4^+ concentration (0.33 to 20 mM) were determined. AMO inactivation should allow any NH₄⁺ diffusion gradient to approach equilibrium, resulting in a decrease in the apparent K_m for \dot{NH}_4^+ (17). With 0, 52, 82, and 92% inactivation, the apparent K_m s were 1.21, 1.17, 1.11, and 1.02 mM, respectively. These results suggest that an NH_4^+ diffusion gradient, if it existed, was small. Therefore, any changes in the gradient as a result of addition of inhibitors would not be expected to have a significant impact on the kinetics of NO_2^- production. In summary, these results confirm the validity of determining rates of NO₂⁻ production from intact cells as a measure of AMO activity.

Addition of hydrazine to circumvent reductant limitation. In previous studies, it was shown that the effects of alternate substrates on the rates of AMO activity cannot be accounted for solely by direct effects occurring at the active site of



FIG. 3. Influence of N_2H_4 on NO_2^- production by *N. europaea*. (A) Inhibition of NH_4^+ -dependent NO_2^- production by N_2H_4 in the absence of an alternate substrate. Reactions were stopped by addition of aliquot to acidic NO_2^- assay reagent immediately after a 10-min reaction. Symbols: \Box , 0.5 mM NH_4^+ ; \blacksquare , 5 mM NH_4^+ . (B) Influence of NH_4^+ on the optimum N_2H_4 concentration required for maximum NO_2^- production with 690 μ M C_2H_4 present. Symbols: \bigcirc , 0.5 mM NH_4^+ ; \blacklozenge , 5 mM NH_4^+ . (C) Influence of C_2H_4 on the optimum N_2H_4 concentration required for maximum NO_2^- production from 1 mM NH_4^+ . Symbols: \triangle , 170 μ M C_2H_4 ; \blacktriangle , 1,040 μ M C_2H_4 .

AMO (14, 19). Because the products of the alternate-substrate oxidations are not further oxidized, the oxidation of alternate substrates by AMO results in a net drain of reductant (Fig. 1). To discriminate between direct NH_3 and inhibitor interactions on AMO and any secondary effects due to reductant limitation, it was necessary to eliminate the latter effects. This was achieved by addition of hydrazine to the reaction mixtures. Hydrazine is an alternate substrate for HAO (18), is an effective electron donor for AMO-catalyzed oxidations (13), and is oxidized by HAO to produce N_2 , which does not interfere with the colorimetric NO_2^- assay.

which does not interfere with the colorimetric NO_2^{-} assay. Addition of N_2H_4 to cells in the presence of NH_4^+ and the absence of a hydrocarbon inhibitor did not stimulate the rates of NO_2^- production, indicating that NH_3 oxidation was not reductant limited under such conditions. Indeed, increasing concentrations of N_2H_4 progressively inhibited the rates of NO_2^- production (Fig. 3A). Excess N_2H_4 might prevent the oxidation of NH_2OH generated from NH_3 and hence decrease the amount of NO_2^- detected. Furthermore, the subsequent increase in the intracellular concentration of NH_2OH may lead to direct inhibition of AMO (1, 14). It seems unlikely that N_2H_4 directly inhibited AMO activity at the concentrations used (<1 mM) in the inhibition experiments, because, in the absence of NH_4^+ , the rate of ethylene (920 μ M) oxidation was not diminished at 1.0 mM N_2H_4

The effects of N_2H_4 addition on the rates of NO_2^- production in the presence of the inhibitor C_2H_4 are shown



FIG. 4. Effect of N_2H_4 on NH_4^+ -dependent NO_2^- production rates by *N. europaea* in the presence of 345 μ M C₂H₄ (and control). Symbols: \Box , NH_4^+ only; \bigcirc , C₂H₄ without N_2H_4 ; \triangle , C₂H₄ + 0.1 mM N_2H_4 ; \bullet , N_2H_4 concentrations selected (for each NH_4^+ concentration) which yielded maximum NO_2^- production.

in Fig. 3B and C. In contrast to the situation in the absence of C_2H_4 , low concentrations of N_2H_4 stimulated the rate of NO_2^- production in the presence of C_2H_4 . This stimulation was attributed to circumvention of the reductant limitation imposed by the oxidation of C₂H₄. As in the absence of an alternate substrate, higher concentrations of N_2H_4 resulted in a decreased rate of NO_2^- production, presumably for the reasons stated above. These results demonstrate that different concentrations of N₂H₄ are required to achieve optimal rates of NO₂⁻ formation under different conditions. Since increasing concentrations of the same compound will cause greater depletion of the reductant supply (Fig. 3C), it is obvious that each set of experimental conditions is associated with a unique optimal N_2H_4 concentration. Therefore, in all subsequent experiments, the concentration of N_2H_4 supporting the maximum rate of NO₂⁻ production was determined for each unique set of conditions. Throughout this text, "optimal N₂H₄ concentration" refers to the concentration of N_2H_4 required to maximize the rate of $NO_2^$ production under the stated conditions.

Maximum NO_2^- production rates with optimal N_2H_4 concentrations were constant for 16 min (Fig. 2). Also, NH_3 -dependent NO_2^- production equaled NH_3 consumption over 1 h when 0.7 mM N_2H_4 was present (Table 1). These results show that the assumptions of the previous section were still valid when N_2H_4 was included in the assay. We also assumed that optimal N_2H_4 concentrations replenished the reductant to a constant level and that only the initial inhibitor and NH_3 concentrations varied significantly among reaction vials.

Saturation kinetics are observed in the coupled assay. The coupled assay (NH₃ to NO₂⁻), with addition of optimized concentrations of N₂H₄, was used to determine the velocity of NH₃ oxidation as a function of NH₃ concentration. As shown in Fig. 4, saturation kinetics were observed for NH₃ alone. When C₂H₄ was included in the reaction mixture, the rates of NO₂⁻ production decreased and the pattern was no longer typical of saturation kinetics. Addition of a single concentration of N₂H₄ (0.1 mM) increased the rates, but the curve was not hyperbolic. However, when optimized concentrations of N₂H₄ were added to the reaction mixture along with C₃H₄, the plot once again was typical of saturation



FIG. 5. Lineweaver-Burk plot for C_2H_4 as an inhibitor of NH_4^+ dependent NO_2^- production in *N. europaea*. Symbols: \Box , 0 μ M C_2H_4 ; \bigcirc , 345 μ M C_2H_4 ; \triangle , 520 μ M C_2H_4 ; \blacksquare , 690 μ M C_2H_4 ; \blacksquare , 860 μ M C_2H_4 ; \blacksquare , 1,040 μ M C_2H_4 . (Inset) Slope replot. Slopes of curves were plotted against inhibitor concentration to obtain K_{iE} , the absolute value of the *x* intercept.

tion kinetics, albeit with an apparently higher K_m . Thus, including optimal N₂H₄ concentrations was necessary to obtain saturation kinetics.

Kinetic inhibition patterns and constants. By using the assay described above, we investigated the inhibition of NH₃ oxidation to NO₂⁻ by the 15 hydrocarbons and halogenated hydrocarbons listed above. Except for CH₃I, all of these inhibitors have been reported to be either substrates for AMO or class 1 nonsubstrates (C₂Cl₄ and CCl₄) (11, 20, 21). For each inhibitor, a series of v^{-1} -versus- S^{-1} curves were obtained, with each curve representing a fixed concentration of inhibitor. Because each experiment included a control saturation curve with no inhibitor added, this provided a means of determining the day-to-day variability of the kinetic data. In 15 experiments, an average K_{mi} for NH₄⁺ of 1.34 ± 0.22 mM and an average V_{max} of 1.59 ± 0.17 µmol min⁻¹ mg of protein⁻¹ were determined. This consistency facilitated comparison of results obtained on different days.

As an example of this approach, the results of the inhibition of NH_3 oxidation by C_2H_4 are shown in Fig. 5. The double-reciprocal plot reveals a pattern typical of a competitive inhibitor. The replot of slopes versus inhibitor concentrations (slope replot) is linear and yields a K_{iE} of 660 μ M (Fig. 5 inset). We also determined the inhibition pattern with NH_3 as the inhibitor and C_2H_4 as the variable substrate. The rate of ethylene oxide formation was determined. Again, the pattern was typical of a competitive inhibitor, although the slope replot was not linear (Fig. 6). For a competitive inhibitor which also acts as a substrate, the K_i for the compound as inhibitor should equal its K_m as substrate (4). The K_i for C₂H₄ of 660 μ M compares favorably with the K_m for C_2H_4 of 658 ± 154 μ M (see Table 3). Methane was also a competitive inhibitor of NH₃ oxidation (see Table 2). The K_i for CH₄ (3,240 μ M) was about fivefold higher than the K_i for C_2H_4 . The high K_i for CH_4 is consistent with the observation that CH_4 is a relatively poor substrate for AMO (13).

Most of the compounds we examined did not give inhibition patterns typical of competitive inhibitors. Indeed, non-



FIG. 6. Lineweaver-Burk plot for NH₃ as an inhibitor of C_2H_4 oxidation by *N. europaea*. Ethylene oxide production as a function of C_2H_4 concentration. Symbols: \Box , 0 mM NH₄⁺; \bigcirc , 0.5 mM NH₄⁺; \bigcirc , 5 mM NH₄⁺; \blacksquare , 15 mM NH₄⁺. (Inset) Slope replot.

competitive patterns were the most common. The doublereciprocal plot obtained for C₂H₅Cl (Fig. 7) exemplifies the noncompetitive pattern for inhibition of NH_3 oxidation. Replots (Fig. 7 inset) of inhibitor concentrations versus slopes or y intercepts of the curves in Fig. 7 provided values for K_{iE} (1.41 mM) and K_{iES} (1.42 mM), respectively. These similar values may have resulted from C₂H₅Cl having equal affinity to free enzyme (E) and to the ES complex (i.e., enzyme with NH₃ bound). All other noncompetitive inhibitors exhibited mixed noncompetitive patterns ($K_{iE} \neq K_{iES}$). These inhibitors were the hydrocarbons C_2H_6 , C_3H_8 , and n-C₄H₁₀ and the halogenated hydrocarbons CH₃Cl, n-ClC₃H₇, CH₃Br, C₂H₅Br, CH₃I, and C₂H₅I. The iodinated compounds gave the lowest $K_{i\rm E}$ and $\tilde{K}_{i\rm ES}$ values, which indicates strong binding to AMO. Ratios of K_{iE}/K_{iES} increased in the following sequence: CH₃Cl (0.20), C_2H_6 (0.25), CH₃Br (0.33), C_2H_5 Cl (0.99), C_2H_5 Br (2.23), $n-C_4H_{10}$ (3.07), C₃H₈ (3.25), CH₃I (4.33), n-ClC₃H₇ (5.10), and C₂H₅I



FIG. 7. Lineweaver-Burk plot for C_2H_5Cl as an inhibitor of NH_4^+ -dependent NO_2^- production in *N. europaea.* Symbols: \Box , 0 mM C_2H_5Cl ; \bigcirc , 2.34 mM C_2H_5Cl ; \triangle , 3.07 mM C_2H_5Cl ; \blacksquare , 3.80 mM C_2H_5Cl ; \bigcirc , 4.54 mM C_2H_5Cl ; \triangle , 5.27 mM C_2H_5Cl . (Inset) Slope and intercept replots. The inhibitor concentration was replotted against slopes (\bigcirc) or y intercepts (\blacksquare) to obtain K_{iE} and K_{iES} , respectively. Data from the 5.27 mM C_2H_5Cl curve were omitted from replots.



FIG. 8. Lineweaver-Burk plot for CCl₄ as an inhibitor of NH₄⁺dependent NO₂⁻ production in *N. europaea*. Symbols: \Box , 0 μ M CCl₄; \bigcirc , 75 μ M CCl₄; \triangle , 150 μ M CCl₄; \blacksquare , 225 μ M CCl₄; \spadesuit , 300 μ M CCl₄; \blacklozenge , 375 μ M CCl₄.

(9.67). With the inhibitors propylene, *trans*-dichloroethylene, CH_2ClCH_2Cl , and CH_2BrCH_2Cl , the rates of NH_3 oxidation as a function of time were constant only at inhibitor concentrations causing little inhibition of NH_3 oxidation. Nonetheless, all four inhibitors showed noncompetitive patterns at these low concentrations (data not shown).

Not all compounds gave inhibition patterns typical of either competitive or noncompetitive inhibitors. With the tetrachlorinated compounds C_2Cl_4 , CCl_4 , and CCl_3CH_2Cl , the double-reciprocal plots were nonlinear. For example, the plot for CCl_4 (Fig. 8) shows concave-down curves, especially at high inhibitor concentrations. This pattern does not allow determination of K_{iE} and K_{iES} values. For comparison with other inhibitors, Table 2 includes inhibitor concentrations from 1 mM NH_4^+ . By this measure, C_2Cl_4 was the most potent inhibitor we examined.

For each inhibitor we investigated, the range of N_2H_4 concentrations required to optimize the rates of NO_2 production is indicated in Table 2. For example, with C_2H_4 the optimal N_2H_4 concentrations varied from 0.1 to 0.7 mM and N_2H_4 requirements were influenced by the NH_4^+ concentration (Fig. 3B). In general, the higher C₂H₄ concentrations required higher N_2H_4 concentrations to replace the reductant diverted to C_2H_4 oxidation (Fig. 3C). Other inhibitors previously shown to be oxidized rapidly (19) also required high concentrations of N_2H_4 to replenish reductant and maximize NO_2^- production, whereas slowly oxidized inhibitors required lower concentrations of N_2H_4 (19, 21). For inhibitors with competitive character, $(K_{iE}/K_{iES}$ ratios, <1), the optimal N_2H_4 concentration decreased with increasing NH_4^+ concentration. This is consistent with a decreased diversion of reductant to the alternate substrate as its binding to AMO was outcompeted by NH₃; NH₃-derived NH₂OH would provide more of the total reductant at higher NH_4^+ concentrations. For noncompetitive oxidizable inhibitors with $K_{iE}/K_{iES} \ge 1$ (including C₂H₅Cl), the optimal N₂H₄ requirements increased with increasing inhibitor concentration but did not vary with the NH4⁺ concentration for a given inhibitor concentration. In contrast, compounds that were oxidized only slowly (such as CH₃I, C₂H₅I, or CCl_3CH_2Cl (19, 21) or not at all (C_2Cl_4 and CCl_4) (21)

Inhibitor	Inhibition pattern ^a	<i>K_i</i> E (μΜ) ^β	$K_{i \in S} (\mu M)^{b}$	[µM I] _{50%} (1 mM NH ₄ ⁺) ^c	$[N_2H_4]$ range used $(mM)^d$	$K_{i E}/K_{i ES}$
Methane	С	3,240		>1,800	0.05-0.3	
Ethane	NC	220	890 ^e	520	0.1-0.5	0.25
Propane	NC	1,430	440	840	0.1-0.5	3.25
<i>n</i> -Butane	NC	920	300	450	0.2–0.5	3.07
Ethylene	С	660		550	0.1-0.7	
Chloromethane	NC	300	1,470	550	0.1–0.7	0.20
Chloroethane	NC	1,410 ^e	1,420 ^e	2,340	0.3–0.7	0.99
<i>n</i> -Chloropropane	NC	5,150°	1,010	2,000	0.3-0.5	5.10
Bromomethane	NC	500	1,490	770	0.1-0.7	0.33
Bromoethane	NC	490	220	550	0.1-0.7	2.23
Iodomethane	NC	130	30	80	0	4.33
Iodoethane	NC	290	30	80	0.1	9.67
Tetrachloroethylene	CD			5	0	
Carbon tetrachloride	CD			300	0	
1,1,1,2-Tetrachloroethane	CD			500	0.1	

TABLE 2. Apparent kinetic inhibition constants from slope and intercept replots of v^{-1} versus S^{-1} plots with N. europaea whole cells

^a Patterns of curves on double-reciprocal plots were as follows: C, competitive; NC, noncompetitive; CD, concave-down.

 b K_{iE} and K_{iES} are apparent inhibition constants derived from slope and intercept replots, respectively. Data in replots were fit to the y = mx + b formula by the least-squares method.

These values represent the micromolar inhibitor concentrations required for 50% inhibition of NO_2^- production from 1 mM NH_4^+ . The N_2H_4 concentration was optimized in each case. ^d These values include the N_2H_4 concentrations used in the kinetic assays.

* One (C₂H₅Cl and C₂H₆) or two (*n*-ClC₃H₇) datum points were omitted from these replots. The remaining replots included all (five or six) datum points. r^2 values for all slope replots exceeded 0.91 (average, 0.97 ± 0.03). Except for *n*-C₄H₁₀ ($r^2 = 0.89$), r^2 values for intercept replots exceeded 0.95 (average, 0.97 ± 0.03). 0.03).

required little (0.1 mM) or no N₂H₄ to supplement NH₃derived reductant.

 $V_{\rm max}$ values were obtained for the oxidation of C₂H₆ to ethanol and of C_2H_4 to ethylene oxide in the presence of N_2H_4 and the absence of competing NH_3 . In Table 3 the values are compared with those obtained for NH₃. All three V_{max} values are about 1.5 μ mol \cdot min⁻¹ \cdot mg of protein⁻¹. The K_m values for C₂H₄ and C₂H₆ are similar and are lower than the value obtained for NH4⁺. However, the substrate for AMO is considered to be NH_3 , not NH_4^+ (3). At pH 7.7, 1.35 mM NH₄⁺ corresponds to an NH₃ concentration of 54 μ M. Thus, the K_m for NH₃ is about 10-fold lower than the K_m s for C₂H₄ and C₂H₆. In these experiments, 0.8 mM N₂H₄ did not inhibit the oxidation of C_2H_4 and C_2H_6 at their lowest concentrations and was adequate for their highest concentrations; therefore, 0.8 mM N₂H₄ was used at all substrate concentrations.

Alternate substrate oxidations with NH₃ as the sole reductant source. The effects of increasing the concentration of NH_{4}^{+} on the oxidations of alternate substrates were studied to corroborate the inhibition data by further characterizing the interactions of NH₃ with alternate substrate inhibitors. High concentrations of NH_3 (>10 mM) were found to inhibit the oxidation of C_2H_4 (Table 4), with maximum C_2H_4O production occurring at 5 mM NH₄⁺. Oxidation of C_2H_5Br , a clearly noncompetitive inhibitor $(K_{iE} > K_{iES})$, was not diminished at high NH_4^+ concentrations; 40 mM NH_4^+ caused the greatest acetaldehyde production (0.44 µmol in 10 min). However, some noncompetitive inhibitors showed competitive character ($K_{iE} \ll \hat{K}_{iES}$); CH₃Cl and CH₃Br were chosen as examples. Substrate depletion was used to monitor their oxidation; maximum substrate depletion occurred with 2 mM NH_4^+ for CH_3Cl and with 5 mM NH₄⁺ for CH₃Br. These results are comparable to those for C_2H_4 .

DISCUSSION

We studied the inhibition by hydrocarbons and halogenated hydrocarbons of NH₃ oxidation by AMO to learn more about the interaction of these compounds with this enzyme. Despite the complexity of the experimental system, NO₂⁻ production rates at various NH₃ and inhibitor concentrations yielded inhibition plots showing simple patterns. The patterns we observed can be interpreted in terms of direct inhibitor binding to the enzyme. We observed a variety of inhibition patterns ranging from competitive to nearly uncompetitive, as well as some nonclassical inhibition patterns. Our data suggest that some inhibitors bind predominantly to the site on AMO which also binds NH₃, whereas other inhibitors are not excluded when NH₃ is bound to the enzyme. We propose an active-site model for AMO which consists of an NH₃-binding site to which competitive inhibitors bind and an alternate site to which noncompetitive inhibitors bind. Additional binding sites would be required for O_2 and the site of electron donation.

Because CH₄ and C₂H₄ competitively inhibit NH₃ oxidation, it seems reasonable that these compounds bind predominantly to the same specific site to which NH₃ binds. That C_2H_4 and NH₃ bind to the same site is further evidenced by the observation that the K_{iE} (Table 2) and K_m

TABLE 3. Apparent kinetic parameters from reaction rate studies with N. europaea

Substrate	Mean $V_{max} \pm SD^a$ (µmol of product/min/mg of protein)	$\frac{\text{Mean } K_m \pm \text{SD}^a}{(\mu M)}$	No. of trials
Ammonium	1.68 ± 0.15	1.353 ± 109	3
Ethylene	1.56 ± 0.23	658 ± 154	4
Ethane	1.44 ± 0.08	522 ± 27	2

^a SD, standard deviation.

TADLE 4. Extents of alternate substrate oxidations by N. Europaea cens with mercasing 1114 concentration	TABLE 4.	Extents of	f alternate substrate	oxidations by N	. europaea cells	with increasing NH	⁴ concentrations
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NH ₄ ⁺ concn (mM)	Amt of C_2H_4O produced from C_2H_4 (µmol)	Amt of CH ₃ CHO produced from C_2H_5Br (µmol)	Amt of CH ₃ Br consumed (µmol)	Amt of CH ₃ Cl consumed (µmol)
0	0	0	0.144	0.007
1	0.031	0.054	0.411	0.261
2	0.184	0.062	0.421	0.438
5	0.194	0.224	0.433	0.327
10	0.134	0.251	0.357	0.301
20	0.095	0.293	0.306	0.299
40	0.077	0.444	0.229	0.257

^{*a*} All initial substrate concentrations in liquid medium were 300 μ M. Reaction times for oxidations of C₂H₄, C₂H₅Br, CH₃Br, and CH₃Cl were 10, 10, 25, and 30 min, respectively.

(Table 3) values for C_2H_4 are both 660 μ M. This result is predicted for competing substrates, one of which is treated as the inhibitor (4). Conversely, Fig. 6 shows that NH₃ is a competitive inhibitor of C_2H_4 oxidation, which corroborates mutually exclusive binding between NH₃ and C_2H_4 at the NH₃-binding site. Whole-cell kinetic studies with AMO in *N.* oceanus (26) showed that Michaelis-Menten kinetics are observed for the physiological substrate NH₃ alone but not when CH₄ is added as an inhibitor of NH₃ oxidation (25, 26). However, no supplemental reductant such as N₂H₄ was added, and so the effects of inhibitor binding to AMO are difficult to separate from the problem of reductant limitation.

The competitive character (defined as $K_{iE} \ll K_{iES}$) of inhibition by CH₄, C₂H₄, C₂H₆, CH₃Cl, and CH₃Br is supported by the optimal N₂H₄ requirements, which de-creased with increasing NH₄⁺ concentration for a given concentration of inhibitor. The competitive character is further corroborated by Table 4, which shows that oxidation of C₂H₄, CH₃Cl, and CH₃Br decreased at the highest concentrations of NH_4^+ . In each case, an optimum NH_4^+ concentration provided maximum oxidation of the alternate substrate, presumably because lower NH4⁺ concentrations provided insufficient reductant whereas supraoptimal concentrations competitively prevented alternate substrate binding to AMO. Our data support not only the findings of Hyman and Wood for CH_4 (13) and C_2H_4 (14) but also the competitive patterns obtained by Suzuki et al. for CH₄, CO, and CH_3OH (23). The curvature observed in the kinetic plots of the previous studies (inhibitor present) (13, 14, 23) disappeared in our plots when the optimal N₂H₄ concentration was added. We thus confirm that reductant depletion in N. europaea by oxidation of (competitive) alternate substrates is a primary cause of nonlinear (concave-up) plots, as has been suggested (14). Reductant depletion probably influenced the lower K_{iE} values obtained for CH₄ (2 mM) and C_2H_4 (80 μ M) (13, 14). Therefore, only some C_1 and C_2 compounds have been shown to competitively inhibit NH₃ oxidation by AMO.

Binding of noncompetitive inhibitors to the active site may occur at a hydrophobic region, since the inhibitors are all nonpolar. This region is likely to be less well defined than the NH₃-binding site because of the greater structural diversity of alternate substrates that are noncompetitive inhibitors of NH₃ oxidation. Typically, noncompetitive patterns ($K_{iE} \ge K_{iES}$) were associated with a less variable optimal N₂H₄ requirement for a given inhibitor concentration. Since inhibition was not relieved by a high NH₄⁺ concentration, NH₃-derived NH₂OH contributed to AMO reduction via HAO in smaller increments as the NH₄⁺ concentration increased (relative to competitive inhibition). Also, as shown in Table 4, 40 mM NH₄⁺ allowed the greatest production of acetaldehyde from 300 μ M C₂H₅Br (0.50 μ mol \cdot min⁻¹ \cdot mg of protein⁻¹). Apparently, some noncompetitive substrates can be oxidized at a site other than the NH₃-binding site and at comparable rates. Rasche et al. found that C₂H₅Cl oxidation rates were undiminished or slightly increased at 40 mM NH₄⁺ relative to lower NH₄⁺ concentrations over a range of C₂H₅Cl concentrations (19). This result supports noncompetitive binding and oxidation for C₂H₅Cl.

The similarity of V_{max} values for C_2H_4 , C_2H_6 , and NH_3 is remarkable given that the oxidized bonds (or electron pair) differ in each case. The most plausible explanation is that a common rate-determining step limits oxidation rates for these substrates. It has been suggested that AMO reduction is rate determining in vivo (14). The similar V_{max} values indicate that C_2H_4 and C_2H_6 bind at the active site in an orientation allowing efficient turnover. In contrast, C₂H₅I was a poor substrate relative to other haloethanes but had high affinity for AMO (19). Apparently, C₂H₅I binds in an orientation which does not promote efficient catalysis, as well as inhibiting NH₃ oxidation. How C₂H₄, C₂H₆, and NH₃ might bind to a common site is unknown, but it is interesting that lone electron pairs (NH_3) , pi electrons (C_2H_4) , and even C -H bonds (C_2H_6) may serve as metal ligands (5).

The inhibitors we chose allowed us to consider several series of structurally related compounds. The first trend in our data was an increase in the K_{iE}/K_{iES} ratio with increasing molecular size. This was observed for the alkane series (CH₄ < C₂H₆ < C₃H₈ ≈ *n*-C₄H₁₀) and for halogenated hydrocarbons with increasingly longer alkyl chains but an identical halogen atom (e.g., CH₃Cl, C₂H₅Cl, *n*-ClC₃H₇). This pattern also occurred for halomethanes (Cl, Br, I) as a group and also for halomethanes (Cl, Br, I) (halogen radii increase in the order Cl < Br < I). This effect may have arisen from the increasing affinity of larger (and more hydrophobic) inhibitors to an alternate binding site. Also, larger inhibitors might cause greater steric hindrance of proper positioning of the active site (22).

The second trend involved the identity of the halogen substituent on monohalogenated hydrocarbons. The K_{iE} , K_{iES} , and $[\mu M I]_{50\%}$ values in Table 2 indicate that chlorinated compounds were generally less effective inhibitors than brominated compounds. The iodinated compounds were the most inhibitory of the monohalocarbons. This trend may have been related to increasing size or nucleophilicity of the halogen atoms (both orders were Cl < Br < I). These data reflect the finding that haloethane reactivity (measured as acetaldehyde production in the presence of NH₃) decreased in the order C₂H₅Cl > C₂H₅Br > C₂H₅I (19).

Another observation was that concave-down reciprocal plots were obtained only for tetrachlorinated compounds. The multiple lone electron pairs on these compounds may constitute potential ligands that could allow some competition with NH₃ binding to the active site, whereas the molecular size of the compounds would predict a high K_{iE}/K_{iES} ratio. This would explain the concave-down curvature: a disproportionate increase in NO₂⁻ production rates with increasing NH₄⁺ concentration. Our data support a model in which (i) the NH₃-binding site

Our data support a model in which (i) the NH₃-binding site can be occupied significantly only by C_1 compounds and C_2 hydrocarbons (including C_2H_2 [15]); (ii) iodinated compounds, C_2 (and larger) halogenated compounds, and most hydrocarbons (> C_2) would bind predominantly at a more hydrophobic site, to which NH₃ would not bind; and (iii) oxidation of an organic substrate at the alternate site could occur at a rate comparable to oxidation at the NH₃-binding site. Binding at the alternate site could interfere with oxidation at the NH₃-binding site by competing for activated O_2 (i.e., alternate substrate oxidation) or by interfering with turnover (e.g., by drawing the enzyme into a dead-end complex).

Vannelli et al. (24) proposed a model in which an alternate substrate such as *trans*-2-butene was bound to AMO through interactions at two sites. This model, which proposes a single oxidation site, was presented to explain the product ratios (alcohol/epoxide) for the substrates *cis*- and *trans*-2butene (11) and the relative reactivities of *cis*- and *trans*dibromoethylene (24). It should be noted that differing bond dissociation energies and the intrinsic steric inaccessibility of the pi bonds may have accounted for the product ratios (11, 24). Our model and the model of Vannelli et al. are not necessarily mutually exclusive; substrate binding orientations are not excluded by our model as a factor influencing bond reactivities, product ratios, or inhibition patterns.

Our model describes the experimental results in terms of the direct interactions of the inhibitors with AMO. However, given that the experiments were carried out with intact cells, other factors may have influenced the results. For example, the inhibitors could have altered the activities of enzymes other than AMO that are required for the coupled assay. This appeared not to be the case, given that the oxidation of NH₂OH was not substantially altered by the inhibitors. If an NH_{4}^{+}/NH_{3} diffusion gradient existed across the periplasmic membrane, addition of inhibitors could alter this gradient. Decreasing the activity of AMO would be expected to cause a shallowing of any diffusion gradient and a decrease in the apparent K_m for NH_4^+ (17). However, specific inactivation of AMO by light resulted in only small changes in the apparent K_m for NH_4^+ , which suggests that the diffusion gradient, if it existed, was small. Therefore, if the AMO inhibitors we used also diminished the apparently small gradient, only small decreases in curve slopes on the doublereciprocal plots would have resulted. It is also possible that AMO is part of a multienzyme complex in intact cells and that the kinetics we have measured are a reflection of the complex rather than the active site of AMO. Because of these and additional factors that could influence the values of measured kinetic constants, the values are referred to as apparent kinetic constants to distinguish them from the constants that would be determined if active, purified enzyme preparations were available.

In our experiments, N_2H_4 was added as a source of reductant, so that reductant limitation was not a factor influencing the observed kinetics. The results provide a basis for predicting the outcome when N_2H_4 is not included and NH_4^+ is the only source of reductant. For noncompetitive inhibitors ($K_{iE} > K_{iES}$) which are also substrates, the rate of oxidation of the alternate substrate should not decrease

substantially at high NH_4^+ concentrations (>20 mM). In contrast, for the alternate substrates that are competitive inhibitors of NH_3 oxidation or display competitive character $(K_{iE} \ll K_{iES})$, their rate of oxidation should decrease substantially at high NH_4^+ concentrations. In both cases, low concentrations of alternate substrates will inhibit AMO activity by depleting the NH_3 -derived reductant supply. The predicted results were observed for a competitive inhibitor (C_2H_4) , a distinctly noncompetitive inhibitor (C_2H_5Br) , and two noncompetitive inhibitors with competitive character $(CH_3Cl and CH_3Br)$ (Table 4).

In summary, we have observed trends regarding hydrocarbon and halogenated hydrocarbon inhibition of NO₂ production by whole cells of N. europaea. The trends reflect structural relationships of the inhibitors: increasing molecular size produced increasing K_{iE}/K_{iES} ratios, and increasing halogen size was correlated with greater inhibitor effectiveness. Corroborating studies indicated that high NH₃ concentrations decreased oxidation rates for alternate substrates with competitive character $(K_{iE} \ll K_{iES})$ as inhibitors of NO₂⁻ production but not for substrates with predominantly noncompetitive character ($K_{iE} \ge K_{iES}$). These results support an active-site model for AMO consisting of (at least) two substrate-binding sites in addition to the O₂-binding site and the site of electron donation to AMO; oxidation may occur at either site. The correlation of structural relationships with the observed trends indicates that our data should allow predictions for structurally related compounds regarding their interactions with NH_3 at the active site of AMO.

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