

The mechanism of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* nitrogenase action

Pre-steady-state kinetics of H₂ formation

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A comprehensive model for the mechanism of nitrogenase action is used to simulate pre-steady-state kinetic data for H₂ evolution in the presence and in the absence of N₂, obtained by using a rapid-quench technique with nitrogenase from *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. These simulations use independently determined rate constants that define the model in terms of the following partial reactions: component protein association and dissociation, electron transfer from Fe protein to MoFe protein coupled to the hydrolysis of MgATP, reduction of oxidized Fe protein by Na₂S₂O₄, reversible N₂ binding by H₂ displacement and H₂ evolution. Two rate-limiting dissociations of oxidized Fe protein from reduced MoFe protein precede H₂ evolution, which occurs from the free MoFe protein. Thus Fe protein suppresses H₂ evolution by binding to the MoFe protein. This is a necessary condition for efficient N₂ binding to reduced MoFe protein.

We present in this and the following papers (Thorneley & Lowe, 1984*a,b*; Lowe & Thorneley, 1984) kinetic data obtained with nitrogenase for H₂ evolution and N₂ reduction. These data have been used to formulate a mechanism for nitrogenase action. At the outset it should be stressed that this mechanism does not define the detailed sequence of chemical events occurring at the substrate reduction site during the catalytic cycle. We have calculated the time courses for the oxidation and reduction of both the Fe protein (Kp2, *M_r* 68000, 4Fe atoms/molecule) and the MoFe protein (Kp1, *M_r* 218000, 32Fe and 2Mo atoms/molecule) by using independently determined rate constants and assigned to various intermediate forms of Kp1 the ability to evolve H₂ and bind and reduce N₂. This makes it possible to simulate the observed time courses for the production of H₂ and NH₃ obtained with the rapid-quench technique. In addition, the unusual damped oscillation exhibited by the concentration of an enzyme-bound intermediate that is formed during N₂ reduction, and that yields N₂H₄ on

Abbreviations used: the nitrogenase components of the various organisms are denoted by a capital letter indicating the genus and a lower-case letter indicating the species, and the number 1 indicates the MoFe-containing protein and the number 2 the Fe-containing protein: Kp, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*; Av, *Azotobacter vinelandii*; Cp, *Clostridium pasteurianum*.

quenching in acid or alkali, has been simulated (Thorneley *et al.*, 1978; Thorneley & Lowe, 1984*a*). The mechanism explains why the steady-state rates of H₂ evolution and N₂ reduction depend on the concentration of the electron donor (Na₂S₂O₄) and the concentration and ratio of the component proteins Kp1 and Kp2. An explanation for the extremely long turnover time (approx. 1.5s to reduce N₂ to 2NH₃) and the high concentration of nitrogenase *in vivo* (approx. 100 μM) is also suggested.

An important aspect of nitrogenase action is the relationship between H₂ evolution and N₂ reduction. In the absence of N₂, nitrogenase catalyses the reduction of protons to H₂ (eqn. 1):



In the presence of N₂, H₂ evolution is partially suppressed, such that the limiting stoichiometry given by eqn. (2) is observed (Rivera-Ortiz & Burris, 1975; Burgess *et al.*, 1981; Guth & Burris, 1983):



Eqns. (1) and (2) represent nitrogenase-catalysed reductions that are MgATP-dependent. Under optimal conditions, for every 2 electron equivalents transferred to reducible substrates, 4 equivalents of MgATP are hydrolysed to MgADP + P_i (Watt *et al.*, 1975).

A feature of the reduction of the alternative substrates, acetylene (Hageman & Burris, 1980) and azide (Dilworth & Thorneley, 1981), is that, although the percentage of electrons directed into a particular substrate varies with the relative concentrations of substrates, the total electron flux through nitrogenase remains unaltered. The electron flux is determined by the ratio of the component proteins and the nature and concentration of the electron donor. This suggests a common, substrate-independent, rate-limiting step. This has recently been identified as the dissociation of oxidized Fe protein with MgADP bound from the reduced MoFe protein (Thorneley & Lowe, 1983). This step is the third partial reaction in Scheme 1, which shows a cycle in which one electron is transferred from Kp2 to Kp1[†] with the concomitant hydrolysis of 2MgATP to 2MgADP + 2P_i (Eady *et al.*, 1978a; Hageman *et al.*, 1980).

Scheme 1, which we call the Fe-protein cycle (Thorneley & Lowe, 1983) forms the basic unit of the MoFe-protein cycle. In order to effect the reaction shown in eqn. (2), eight electrons are required. This is achieved by eight sequential cycles of Scheme 1, which, when coupled together, comprise one MoFe-protein cycle in which one N₂ molecule is reduced (Scheme 2).

In the present paper we present pre-steady-state kinetic data for H₂ evolution in the absence and in the presence of N₂ and simulate these data by using Scheme 2. A detailed description of Scheme 2 is restricted to those aspects that are concerned with H₂ evolution.

Methods and materials

Protein preparation

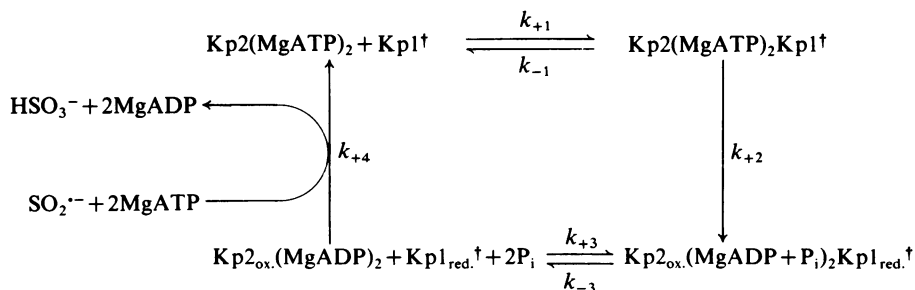
The nitrogenase component proteins were purified as described by Eady *et al.* (1972), with an

additional DEAE-cellulose chromatography step (Smith *et al.*, 1976). Gel filtration (Sephadex G-25) was used to prepare stock solutions of Kp1 protein (45 mg/ml) and Kp2 protein (27 mg/ml) in 25 mM-Hepes [4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazine-ethane-sulphonic acid]/NaOH buffer, pH 7.4, containing 10 mM-MgCl₂ and 1 mM-Na₂S₂O₄. Kp1 and Kp2 proteins had specific activities of 1700 and 1500 nmol of C₂H₂ reduced/min per mg of protein respectively when assayed at 30°C under the standard conditions given by Eady *et al.* (1972). Protein stock solution (0.01 ml) was assayed before and after each rapid-quench experiment by a standard C₂H₂-reduction assay (Eady *et al.*, 1972) of 2 min duration at 30°C. The molybdenum content of the Kp1 protein was determined to be 1.4 ± 0.1 g-atom of Mo/mol of protein by using the method of Clarke & Axley (1955).

All biochemicals were purchased from Sigma Chemical Co., Kingston-upon-Thames, Surrey, U.K., and salts from BDH Chemicals, Poole, Dorset, U.K.

Rapid-quench technique

The apparatus represented schematically in Fig. 1 is essentially that described by Gutteridge *et al.* (1978) for the rapid-freezing of protein samples in isopentane at -140°C before the running of e.p.r. spectra. The 'stepping motor' is controlled electronically and delivers a pre-set volume of solution from each syringe at a defined velocity through a mixing chamber and down a length of thick-walled nylon capillary tubing of variable length. The solution emerges from a stainless-steel needle jet into a small volume of quenching agent contained in a glass vial fitted with a gas-tight rubber closure. Typically, mixed protein/substrate solution (0.4 ml) was shot into 1 M-HClO₄ quenching agent (0.5 ml). This procedure quenches nitrogenase activity within 2 ms (Eady *et al.*, 1978a). Each shot



Scheme 1. Oxidation-reduction cycle for the Fe protein

Kp1[†] represents one of two independently functioning halves of the tetrameric (α₂β₂ structure) Kp1. Each Kp1[†] is assumed to contain one Mo substrate-binding site and one Kp2-binding site. Table 1 contains the values of all the rate constants in Scheme 1.

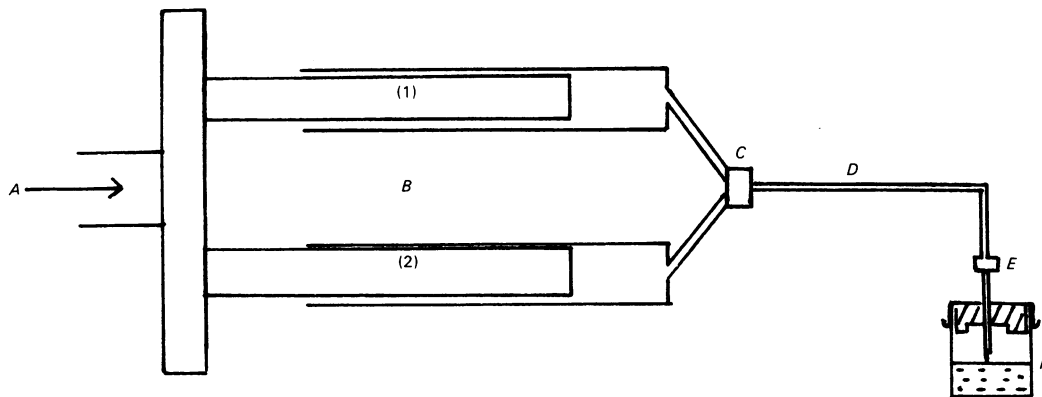


Fig. 1. Schematic representation of the rapid-quench apparatus for pre-steady-state kinetic studies

Key: A, electronically controlled ram driven by a stepping motor; B, thermostatically maintained drive syringes containing (1) Kp1 and Kp2 proteins, Na₂S₂O₄, MgCl₂ and Hepes buffer, pH 7.4, and (2) ATP, Na₂S₂O₄, MgCl₂ and Hepes buffer, pH 7.4; C, mixing chamber; D, reaction tube of variable length made from thick-wall capillary nylon tube; E, jet made from 22-gauge stainless-steel needle; F, quenching agent contained in glass vial fitted with gas-tight rubber closure.

produced a single datum point on a reaction progress curve.

After quenching, equilibration of H₂ between the liquid and gas phase was achieved by vigorous shaking of the inverted vials for 15 min. The use of small-volume (2.3 ml) vials increased the sensitivity of detection, since a larger proportion of the total product was injected into the vapour-phase chromatography apparatus. The increased pressure of the gas phase resulting from the injection of the mixed protein/substrate solution (0.4 ml) was compensated for by taking the same volume of gas out for analysis. A Pye- Unicam PU4500 chromatograph with a 5A molecular-sieve (60–80 mesh) column was used for H₂ analysis. Each rapid quench shot generally contained approx. 10 nmol of MoFe protein and 40 nmol of Fe protein, and the reduction product, H₂, was analysed to an accuracy of ± 1 nmol per shot. Quantitative recovery and accurate determination of H₂ was demonstrated by control experiments from which ATP was omitted: standard volumes of water, saturated with H₂ at 20°C, were added to the liquid phase in the vials after quenching, and, after equilibration by shaking, the H₂ in the gas was determined as described above. The solutions in the drive syringes were saturated with N₂, H₂ or Ar by evacuation and flushing on an all-glass vacuum line.

Computing

The linear differential equations describing Schemes 1 and 2 and those for the dissociation of S₂O₄²⁻ to give the active reductant SO₂⁻ (Thorneley & Lowe, 1983) were solved by using NAG sub-

routines DO2ABF and DO2BAF on PDP 1134A and VAX 780 computers. In all the simulations in this and the following papers (Thorneley & Lowe, 1984a,b; Lowe & Thorneley, 1984) the curves have been adjusted by allowing the concentrations of Kp1[†] and Kp2 to vary by $\pm 10\%$ from the measured values. This enables a fair comparison of data with computed simulations after considering the experimental errors. The Kp1[†] concentration was taken to be the Mo concentration, i.e. Kp1 was 70% active. The Kp2 was 45% active on the basis of a maximum specific activity of 3500 nmol of H₂/min per mg of Kp2. Inactive Kp1 was assumed not to bind to Kp2. Inactive Kp2 was assumed to bind to Kp1[†] with the same association and dissociation rate constants as active Kp2_{ox}. These assumptions were necessary in order to simulate the inhibition of substrate reduction observed at high protein concentrations (Lowe & Thorneley, 1984).

A feature of the simulations is a damped oscillatory approach to the steady state. This is caused by the sequential nature of the mechanism involving multiple intermediate states of the enzyme that become significantly populated in the steady state. At time zero, the enzyme is present in a single state. After initiation of the reaction, the intermediate states become populated in a damped oscillatory manner. The familiar burst and lag phases (Cornish-Bowden, 1979) observed in other enzyme systems are examples of this effect with a high degree of damping because of the smaller number of intermediates and the values of the rate constants involved.

Results and discussion

Pre-steady-state kinetics

Fig. 2 shows data points for the time course for H_2 formation under an Ar atmosphere when the proton is the only reducible substrate. A lag of 100ms is followed by a linear phase, which represents a constant rate of H_2 formation of 460nmol of H_2 /min per mg of Kp1. This rate was maintained for at least 10s, demonstrating that no significant product inhibition by MgADP or exhaustion of $S_2O_4^{2-}$ had occurred during this time. This is important, since this rate of H_2 production is significantly lower than that predicted from the specific activities of the protein samples taken from a drive syringe at the end of a series of rapid-quench shots and assayed as described in the Methods and materials section. The difference is due to the dependence of the activity of Kp1 on the absolute concentrations as well as the ratio of Fe protein to MoFe protein (Thorneley & Lowe, 1984b). At protein concentrations above $10\mu M$ the rate of complex-formation between $Kp2_{ox}(MgADP)_2$ and $Kp1^\dagger$ (k_{+3} in Scheme 1) can become significant compared with the rate-limiting complex dissociation reaction (k_{-3}) and the rate of reduction of $Kp2_{ox}(MgADP)_2$ by $SO_2^{\cdot-}$ (k_{-4}). This decreases the rate of substrate

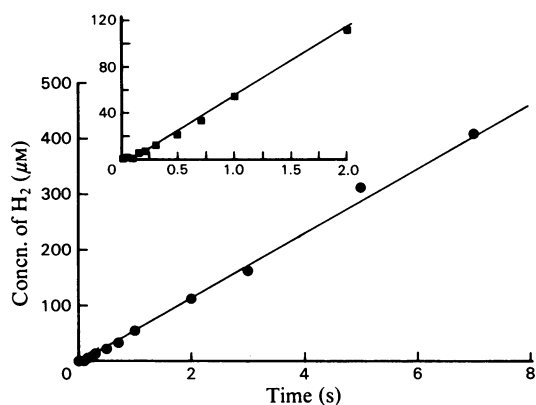


Fig. 2. Pre-steady-state time course for H_2 evolution under Ar at $23^\circ C$ at pH 7.4

The inset shows a pre-steady-state lag phase of 100ms followed by a steady-state rate of H_2 evolution of 460nmol/min per mg of Kp1. The data were obtained with the rapid-quench technique as described in the Methods and materials section. The line through the data points is a computed simulation made by using Scheme 2 and the rate constants in Table 1. Before mixing syringe A contained $68\mu M$ -Kp1, $266\mu M$ -Kp2, $1mM$ - $Na_2S_2O_4$, $10mM$ -MgCl₂ and $25mM$ -Hepes buffer, pH7.4. Syringe B contained $18mM$ -ATP, $19mM$ - $Na_2S_2O_4$, $10mM$ -MgCl₂ and $25mM$ -Hepes buffer, pH7.4.

reduction under the conditions of high protein concentration used in the rapid-quench experiments. The activity control assays used protein concentrations 50–100 times lower than those used for rapid-quench experiments, and with these low protein concentrations no inhibition of substrate reduction occurs.

Fig. 3 shows the time course for H_2 formation under an atmosphere of N_2 , when NH_3 is also a reduction product. The early part of the time course is the same as that shown in Fig. 2 (lag of 100ms); however, the steady-state rate of 460nmol of H_2 /min per mg of Kp1 is maintained for only 400ms, after which it decreases until at 1500ms the rate is 270nmol of H_2 /min per mg of Kp1, which is then maintained up to at least 10s.

The lines in Figs. 2 and 3 have not been fitted to the data points, but are computer simulations based on Schemes 1 and 2 together with the independently determined rate constants in Table 1.

MoFe-protein cycle

Scheme 2 shows the MoFe-protein cycle. The complete scheme is presented here so that the reader can appreciate how the results of H_2 evolution fit into the overall scheme required for N_2 reduction. In the present paper we describe only those parts of Scheme 2 that are relevant to H_2 evolution. The reader is referred to the following

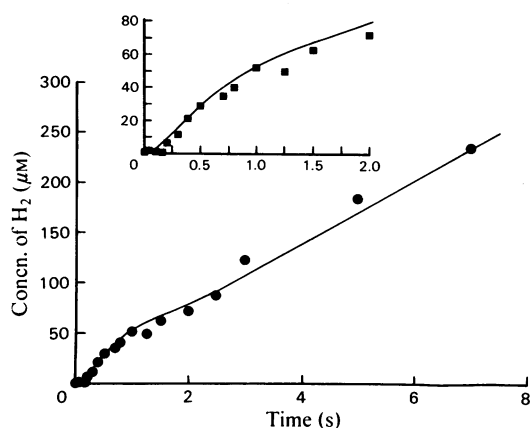


Fig. 3. Pre-steady-state time course for H_2 evolution under N_2 at $23^\circ C$ at pH 7.4

The inset shows a pre-steady-state lag phase of 100ms, then a burst phase that is essentially complete at 2.0s, followed by a steady-state rate of H_2 evolution of 270nmol/min per mg of Kp1. The line through the data points is a computed simulation made by using Scheme 2 and the rate constants in Table 1. Concentrations of reactants were as described for Fig. 2.

Table 1. Rate constants used in the simulation of the kinetics of Kp nitrogenase at 23°C at pH 7.4. The differences between the values of some of the rate constants shown and those reported previously (Lowe *et al.*, 1984) are due to the more accurate determination of k_{+1} .

Rate constant	Value	Comment	Reference
k_{+1}	$5 \times 10^7 \text{M}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} *$	Responsible for dilution effect Electron transfer coupled to MgATP hydrolysis Responsible for inhibition at high protein concentrations Rate-limiting when Kp2 and substrates are saturating Rate of reduction of Kp2 _{ox} (MgADP) ₂ by SO ₂ ⁻ Responsible for inhibition of H ₂ evolution when MgATP but not reductants is limiting	Lowe & Thorneley (1984) Thorneley (1975)
k_{-1}	$15 \text{s}^{-1} *$		
k_{+2}	200s^{-1}		
k_{+3}	$4.4 \times 10^6 \text{M}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} *$		
k_{-3}	$6.4 \text{s}^{-1} *$		
k_{+4}	$3.0 \times 10^6 \text{M}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$	S ₂ O ₄ ²⁻ $\xrightleftharpoons[k_{+6}]{k_{-6}}$ 2SO ₂ ⁻	Thorneley & Lowe (1983)
k_{+5}	$4.4 \times 10^6 \text{M}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$		
k_{-5}	$6.4 \text{s}^{-1} *$		
k_{+6}	$1.2 \times 10^9 \text{M}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$		
k_{-6}	1.7s^{-1}		
k_{+7}	$250 \text{s}^{-1} †$	Responsible for enhanced H ₂ evolution at low e ⁻ flux Slow in order to maximize N ₂ binding to E ₃ Rapid H ₂ evolution from the most-reduced hydridic species Determined from K _m ^N ; at low e ⁻ flux Determined from K _i ^H ; at low e ⁻ flux Determined from K _m ^N ; at high e ⁻ flux Determined from K _i ^H ; at high e ⁻ flux	Thorneley & Lowe (1984a) Lowe & Thorneley (1984)
k_{+8}	$8.0 \text{s}^{-1} †$		
k_{+9}	$400 \text{s}^{-1} † ‡$		
k_{+10}	$4 \times 10^5 \text{M}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$		
k_{-10}	$8 \times 10^4 \text{M}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$		
k_{+11}	$2.2 \times 10^6 \text{M}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} † ‡$		
k_{-11}	$3.0 \times 10^6 \text{M}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} † ‡$		

* Kp1-Kp2 association-dissociation rates assumed to be independent of Kp1 oxidation level.
 † H₂-evolution rates. These depend on small differences between large numbers and are subject to errors of factors of about 2.
 ‡ Since these rate constants determine K_m and K_i values only their ratios are absolute values.

and is the total H₂ obtained when enzyme turning over at pH 7.4, in the absence of N₂, is quenched with acid. Curve (a) is summation of curves (b) and (c). Curve (c) is the H₂ that is evolved at pH 7.4 before the quenching. It is the curve that would be obtained from a rapidly responding H₂ electrode monitoring the enzyme at pH 7.4 (the development of such an electrode would be extremely useful for further verification of Scheme 2). Curve (b) is the additional H₂ that is liberated on quenching with acid. Species E₂H₂ and E₃H₃ are each assumed to evolve 1, and species E₄H₄ 2, equivalents of H₂ on quenching.

Species E₁H cannot evolve H₂ either at pH 7.4 during turnover or on quenching, since, if this were the case, no lag phase in Figs. 2 and 3 would be observed. Two sequential slow steps with rate constants close to 6.4 s⁻¹ are required to simulate the lag phases in Figs. 2 and 3. We have considered the possibility that, since we premixed Kp1 with

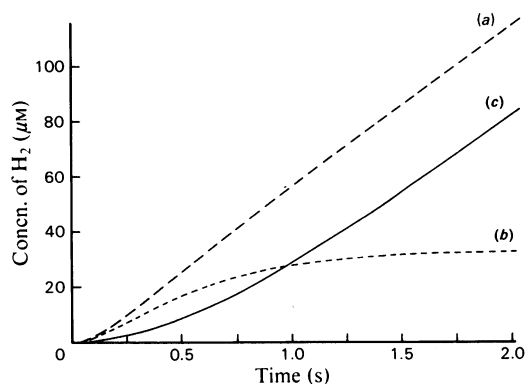
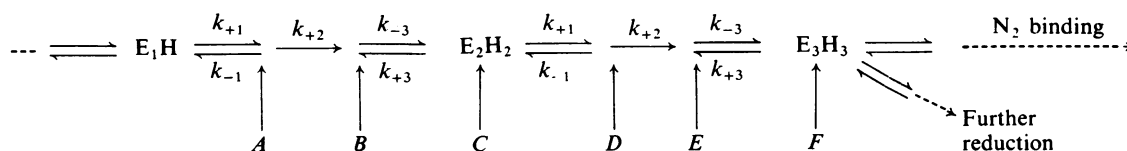


Fig. 4. Distinction between H₂ evolved at pH 7.4 and that liberated from intermediates by acid quench. Computer simulations made by using Scheme 2 and the rate constants in Table 1 are shown. Curve (a), total H₂ determined in rapid-quench experiments under Ar; the curve is a summation of curves (b) and (c) and identical with that in Fig. 2. Curve (b), H₂ liberated from species E₂H₂, E₃H₃ and E₄H₃⁻ by reaction with acid quench. Curve (c), H₂ evolved at pH 7.4 by functioning nitrogenase. Simulations are for the protein concentrations and conditions described in the legend to Fig. 2.

Kp2 in one syringe of the rapid-quench apparatus, the complex between these proteins has first to dissociate before MgATP can bind and that E₁H would then be formed after two slow dissociations under our experimental conditions. However, this is not possible, since in stopped-flow spectrophotometric experiments Thorneley (1975) showed that premixed Kp1 and Kp2, when shot against MgATP, exhibited rapid electron transfer from Kp2 to Kp1 ($k_2 = 2 \times 10^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$), with no evidence for a slow predissociation of the two proteins.

Hageman & Burris (1978), using an [Av1]/[Av2] ratio of 100 : 1, obtained a lag phase of H₂ evolution of 4 min. Their lag phase should not be confused with the lag phases in Figs. 2 and 3, in which a [Kp2]/[Kp1] ratio of 4 : 1 was used. Under the conditions employed by Hageman & Burris (1978), Scheme 2 shows that the second-order reaction (k_{+1}) between reduced Av2(MgATP)₂ and Av1 (at state E₁H) is rate-limiting. A steady state is only attained after several minutes when the concentration of E₀ equals that of E₁H. Hageman & Burris (1978) concluded that the transfer of one electron from the Fe protein to the MoFe protein does not cause H₂ evolution, and that at least one slow dissociation of Av2 from Av1 precedes H₂ evolution. In terms of our model, Hageman & Burris (1978) correctly concluded that H₂ evolution occurs at or after point A in Scheme 3. The data in Figs. 2 and 3 allow the further conclusion that two dissociations of the Fe protein from the MoFe protein are necessary before H₂ is evolved, even on quenching with acid. In Scheme 3, this means at or after point C. This is because, under our conditions with an excess of Kp2 over Kp1, the two slow steps necessary to generate the 100 ms lag phase in H₂ evolution have to be protein dissociation reactions. E₂H₂ is the first species in Scheme 2 that satisfies this criterion. The species at point B in Scheme 3 is the complex Kp2_{ox}(MgADP)₂-E₁-H. This complex cannot evolve H₂ (even on quenching with acid, since it is formed after only one slow protein dissociation step (between E₀ and E₁H), and H₂ evolution at this point would not give a lag phase. Thus, although the MoFe protein in this complex has received two electrons from two successful encounters with Fe protein, it cannot evolve H₂. We propose that it is the presence of oxidized Fe



Scheme 3. Two protein dissociations are required before H₂ is evolved

protein bound to species E_1^-H that prevents H_2 evolution. This is an important role for the Fe protein in addition to that of a specific reductase of the MoFe protein. It has not escaped our attention that the complex at point *B* formed by reaction k_{+3} may have a different structure, and reactivity on quenching, from that formed by reaction k_{+2} . The concentration of the complex formed by k_{+3} is less than 2% of the total $Kp1^\dagger$ concentration in the steady state under our conditions. The precision of the data in Figs. 2 and 3 does not allow us to tell whether this complex yields H_2 on quenching. Similarly, the complexes involving inactive $Kp2$ and E_2H_2 may not yield H_2 on quenching.

H_2 evolution at points *D* and *E* (Scheme 3) would also be consistent with the 100 ms lag phase for H_2 evolution, since both these complexes are formed rapidly after only two slow protein dissociation steps (between E_0 and E_1H and between E_1H and E_2H_2). However, since we have had to propose that oxidized Fe protein bound to E_1^-H (point *B*, Scheme 3) prevents H_2 evolution, we have also assumed in Scheme 2 that reduced Fe protein bound to E_2H_2 (point *D*, Scheme 3) and oxidized Fe protein bound to $E_2^-H_2$ (point *E*, Scheme 3) also prevent H_2 evolution. Thus, throughout Scheme 2, only free $Kp1^\dagger$ at all levels of reduction can bind substrates or inhibitors and release products. This now provides an explanation for the important observations made by Silverstein & Bulen (1970) and Hageman & Burris (1980) that, as the electron flux through nitrogenase is decreased by decreasing the Fe protein/MoFe protein ratio, a greater percentage of this flux is directed into H_2 evolution and less into N_2 reduction. This effect is so significant that, under the conditions employed by Hageman & Burris (1978), to generate long lag phases ($[Av2]/[Av1]$ ratio 1:100) very little N_2 is reduced and essentially all the electrons are used for H_2 production. This is a consequence of the competition between the first-order H_2 evolution reaction from species E_2H_2 (k_{+7}) and the second-order reaction of E_2H_2 with reduced Fe protein (k_{+1}), i.e. conversion of *C* into *D* in Scheme 3. The latter reaction forms the complex $Kp2(MgATP)_2-E_2H_2$ (*D*), which cannot evolve H_2 . At low $[Fe\text{ protein}]/[MoFe\text{ protein}]$ ratios the H_2 -evolution reaction (k_{+7}) dominates and the amount of MoFe protein that is further reduced to the N_2 -binding states, E_3 and E_4 (Thorneley & Lowe, 1984*a*), is relatively small.

This effect is illustrated in Fig. 5, which shows simulations of the H_2 evolved at pH7.4 as a function of the concentration of $Kp1$ and $Kp2$ proteins. These curves are similar to curve (c) in Fig. 4 in that the H_2 evolved on quenching is not considered. As the concentration of nitrogenase component proteins is decreased, the lag for H_2

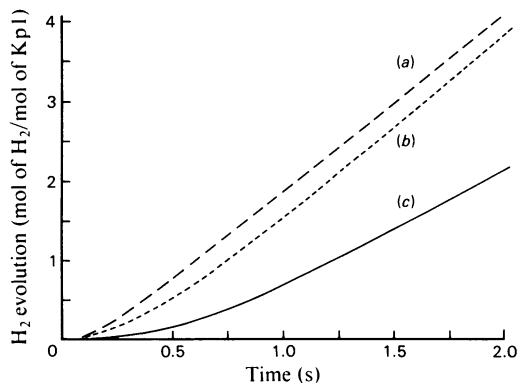


Fig. 5. H_2 evolution at pH7.4 as a function of nitrogenase concentration

Computer simulations of pre-steady-state time courses for H_2 evolution made by using Scheme 2 and the rate constants in Table 1 are shown. Curve (a), $1.0\ \mu M-Kp1$ and $4.0\ \mu M-Kp2$; curve (b) $10.0\ \mu M-Kp1$ and $40.0\ \mu M-Kp2$; curve (c) $100.0\ \mu M-Kp1$ and $400.0\ \mu M-Kp2$. As the protein concentration increases, a longer lag phase occurs, since a higher proportion of the H_2 is evolved from the N_2 -binding species E_3H_3 and E_4H_4 . Curve (c) shows a lower final activity than curve (a) or (b) because of the inhibition at high protein concentrations. These curves are similar to curve (c) in Fig. 4. They represent the H_2 evolved by nitrogenase functioning at pH7.4 and do not simulate the total H_2 determined in a rapid-quench experiment.

evolution decreases, since the dominant H_2 -evolving species becomes E_2H_2 , the first H_2 -evolving species in Scheme 2. At high protein concentrations the dominant H_2 -evolving species are E_3H_3 and E_4H_4 . These species are formed after E_2H_2 in Scheme 2 and therefore after a longer lag phase. Since E_3H_3 and E_4H_4 are the N_2 -binding species, high protein concentrations favour N_2 reduction relative to H_2 evolution.

The second role that we have assigned to the Fe protein, that of preventing H_2 evolution from reduced MoFe protein, is so important that we consider the nomenclature of Hageman & Burris (1978) that describes the Fe protein as 'dinitrogenase reductase' inappropriate and misleading. The role of the Fe protein is, not to act merely as a specific reductase for MoFe protein, but also to cause the MoFe protein to function as nitrogenase not as hydrogenase. We consider that the chemistry occurring at the active site involves metal-hydrogen complexes that are thermodynamically unstable and react with protons to yield H_2 [see the following papers (Thorneley & Lowe, 1984*a,b*; Lowe & Thorneley, 1984)]. Protons cannot be excluded from the site, since they are needed to

protonate N₂ and its intermediates to form NH₃, and may also be required to generate the metal dihydride that we propose as a precursor to the binding of N₂ by H₂ displacement. We suggest that the enzyme has evolved to control H₂ production kinetically, and that this can only be achieved if nitrogenase is an extremely slow enzyme present at high concentrations in the cell.

Location of the substrate-reduction and electron-transfer sites

The ability of the Fe protein to suppress H₂ evolution from the complex with MoFe protein suggests that the sites on the MoFe protein that evolve H₂, bind N₂ and accept electrons from the Fe protein are all on or close to that part of the surface of the MoFe protein that interacts with the Fe protein. The report by Miller *et al.* (1980) that tetrameric Kp1 contains four MgATP-binding sites suggests that two of these on each dimeric unit may be complementary to the two MgATP-binding sites on the Fe protein. Therefore the two MgATP molecules may bridge the Fe protein and the MoFe protein, with the electron-transfer and substrate-reduction sites insulated from the solvent within this complex. Since the chemistry of N₂ reduction probably involves low potentials, possibly generated transiently by coupling electron transfer to ATP hydrolysis, it makes good sense to restrict access of solvent and protons to these sites in order to prevent H₂ evolution. The obligate dissociation of oxidized Fe protein from MoFe protein before reduction by SO₂²⁻ can occur (Thorneley & Lowe, 1983) suggests that there is only one electron-transfer site on the Fe protein, i.e. the same site is used to receive an electron from the donor and to transfer an electron to the MoFe protein.

H₂ evolution concomitant with N₂ reduction

The discussion of the data presented in Fig. 3 provides a convenient bridge to the following paper (Thorneley & Lowe, 1984a) concerned with N₂ reduction. The stoichiometry indicated by eqn. (2) is approached as the [Fe protein]/[MoFe protein] ratio tends to infinity with saturating N₂. The reason for this is that it is only under these conditions that H₂ evolution from E₂H₂ (*k*₊₇), E₃H₃ (*k*₊₈) and E₄H₄ (*k*₊₉) is effectively suppressed, such that H₂ is only evolved by the N₂-binding reactions *k*₊₁₀ and *k*₊₁₁. Under the conditions employed to obtain the data in Fig. 3, this did not occur, and only 42% of the total electron flux went to N₂ reduction and the remaining 58% was used to evolve H₂ after the steady state that has been achieved (approx. 1.5s). Under these conditions H₂ evolution contains contributions from *k*₊₇, *k*₊₈ and *k*₊₉. A comparison of Fig. 2 with Fig. 3 shows

that the lag phase of 100ms and the initial time course for H₂ evolution (up to 500ms) are essentially the same. Over this period the major sources of H₂ are reaction *k*₊₇ and the quenching of species E₂H₂ together with its complexes with oxidized and reduced Kp2. At times longer than 1 s the rate of H₂ evolution falls in the presence of N₂ (Fig. 3) as more Kp1⁺ becomes distributed among the species E_{*n*} (*n* = 3–7) with N₂, or intermediates in N₂ reduction, bound.

The successful simulation of the data in Fig. 3 allows an important conclusion that H₂ is evolved before either N₂H₄ or NH₃ is detected (see Thorneley & Lowe, 1984a). Thus H₂ is the first reduction product to be released by nitrogenase in the catalytic cycle of N₂ fixation. The simulation also requires that a stoichiometric release of H₂ occurs when N₂ binds to species E₃H₃ and E₄H₄. The significance of this is discussed in the following paper (Thorneley & Lowe, 1984a) together with the N₂-binding reaction and the pre-steady-state kinetics of N₂H₄ and NH₃ formation.

A feature of many previous mechanistic studies with nitrogenase is that they either have been concerned with one or more partial reactions in the catalytic cycle or have presented steady-state kinetic data with a necessarily limited analysis and conclusion. The scheme outlined above and developed in the following papers (Thorneley & Lowe, 1984a,b; Lowe & Thorneley, 1984) is the first unifying theory for nitrogenase action that is capable of explaining all published kinetic data. Although, as stated in the introduction, we have not been able to define the detailed chemistry occurring at the active site(s), we have defined the conditions and times that should be optimal for the detection of the postulated intermediates.

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