Utilization of Aldehydes and Alcohols by Soybean Bacteroids

Received for publication November 17, 1980 and in revised form February 26, 1981

JAY B. PETERSON AND THOMAS A. LARUE Boyce Thompson Institute for Plant Research, Ithaca, New York 14853

ABSTRACT

Aldehydes, alcohols and acids were tested for their ability to support acetylene reduction and oxygen consumption by Rhizobium japonicum bacteroids isolated from soybean nodules. Several alcohols and aldehydes increased acetylene reduction and oxygen uptake. This is consistent with the concept that the plant nodule cytosol can metabolize carbohydrate via anaerobic fermentative pathways.

Symbiotic nitrogen fixation requires carbon compounds for at least three functions. Their metabolism provides the ATP required by nitrogenase; they are the ultimate source of electrons for reduction; they provide carbon skeletons for the incorporation and transport of fixed $NH₃$ to the shoot. How the plant and bacteroids share the metabolism of carbon compounds is hardly known.

Phloem analyses (14) indicate that sucrose is the major carbon source for nodules. There is a neutral invertase in the nodule cytosol but not in the bacteroid (12). The soybean host cell cytosol contains sucrose and glucose, and cyclitols such as pinitol and inositol (20). It is generally assumed that the Embden-Myerhof and tricarboxylic acid pathways are operative in the host cell, but this has never been firmly established. The isolated soybean bacteroid can use pyruvate, fumarate and succinate, but not sucrose, to support respiration and nitrogen fixation (2). It is not known what carbon compound(s) the bacteroid obtains from plant cytosol.

Determination of enzyme activity and respirometric measurements indicate that Rhizobium japonicum bacteroids from soybean nodules have a functional tricarboxylic acid cycle (16). The existence of the anapleurotic glyoxylate cycle is in doubt because isocitrate lyase could not be detected in either bacteroids or plant cytosol of functioning nodules (11). However, that enzyme could be detected in bacteroids from senesced nodules (24) and a partial glyoxylate cycle was indicated from utilization of [¹⁴C]acetate by bacteroid suspensions (19).

The outer layer of nodule tissue is a barrier to $O₂$ diffusion (22). Transport of \dot{O}_2 to support oxidative phosphorylation by bacteroids is mediated by leghemoglobin. Because that protein binds O_2 firmly, the O_2 in the plant cytosol is about 10 nm (1). The plant cytosol is thus microaerobic. De Vries (6) suggested that the nodule cytosol should therefore have a fermentative carbon metabolism similar to that observed in roots of "flood tolerant" plants. Oxaloacetate and malate, acetaldehyde and ethanol, lactate, alanine, or other compounds (18, and references cited therein) might be produced fermentatively as alternatives to oxidative metabolism of PEP' and pyruvate. DeVries examined the role of malate, which can be synthesized via cytosol PEP carboxylase

(E.C. 4.1.1.3 1) and malate dehydrogenase (E.C. 1.1.1.37) (5, 6, 13, 15) reactions. Like previous researchers, he found that nodule cytosol had higher activities of both of these enzymes than did root cytoplasm. Nodule malate levels have been estimated at about 3.4 mm in peas (6) and 4.2 mm in soybeans (21).

An alternative fermentative pathway from pyruvate is via acetaldehyde to alcohol. We have found that the nodule cytosol contains pyruvic decarboxylase (E.C. 4.1.1.1) and its product acetaldehyde (S. Tajima and T. LaRue, unpublished data). The purpose of this study was to determine whether aldehydes and alcohols can be utilized by the isolated bacteroid.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Chemicals. Sodium formate was obtained from Baker Chemical Co., Phillipsburg, NJ. Acetaldehyde, propionaldehyde and pyruvaldehyde were obtained from Eastman Kodak Co. Sodium acetate, acetone, 1-butanol and sodium succinate were obtained from Mallinckrodt Chemical Co. Ethanol was obtained from U.S. Industries Chemical Co., Louisville, KY. Sodium glyoxylate, sodium pyruvate, sodium DL-lactate, L-alanine, butyric acid, sodium DL-α-hydroxybutyrate, sodium DL-β-hydroxybutyrate, sodium Lmalate, succinic semialdehyde, sodium benzoate, hypoxanthine, and MOPS were obtained from Sigma Chemical Co. Butyraldehyde, 2-butanol, 2-butanone, benzaldehyde, and benzyl alcohol were obtained from Aldrich Chemical Co., Metuchen, NJ. Acetylene was a product of Union Carbide Corp., Linde Division, New York, NY. Acetaldehyde, ethanol, propionaldehyde, pyruvaldehyde, acetone, butyraldehyde, butyric acid, 1-butanol, 2 butanol, 2-butanone, benzaldehyde, and benzyl alcohol were distilled prior to use.

Biological Materials. Soybean seeds (Glycine max., var Wilkin) were obtained from William Boyd Seed Co., Phelps, NY. Plants were grown in greenhouses in a solid medium of Turface (IMC Corp., Havelock, Ontario) with $CaCO₃$ added to keep the pH near neutral. They were supplied with nutrient solution three times weekly. The nutrient was that described by Evans et al. (9), except iron sequestrine was increased ten-fold. Seeds were inoculated with commercial soybean inoculum (Nitragin Co., Milwaukee, WI). Nodules were collected from 5- to 6-week-old plants which were flowering or in early stages of pod fill.

Bacteroids were prepared from root nodules essentially as described by Emerich et al., (8). For preparation of bacteroids, all buffers were 0-4 C and thoroughly sparged with Ar. All operations were performed under a continuous stream of Ar and centrifugations were in sealed, Ar-flushed tubes. Nodules were rinsed extensively with deionized water. Ten-g batches were ground in a chilled mortar and pestle with three volumes grinding medium [50 mm K-phosphate (pH 6.8) made ²⁰⁰ mm with sodium ascorbate] and $1/3$ weight acid-washed polyvinylpolypyrollidone. The macerate was fitered through four layers of cheesecloth and the filtrates were centrifuged 10 min at $5000g$. The supernatant was discarded. The pellet was resuspended and centrifuged as above three times with assay buffer (50 mm MOPS, 2.5 mm $MgCl₂$, 1 mm K-phosphate [pH 7.5 with KOH)]. The final pellet was resus-

¹ Abbreviation: PEP, phosphoenolpyruvate; MOPS, morpholinopropane sulfonic acid.

Table I. The Effects of Substrates on Acetylene Reduction and $O₂$ Uptake by Isolated R. japonicum Bacteroids

Acetylene reduction. Assays were performed in triplicate over the same O₂ range as in Figure 3 except with highly stimulatory substrates. Each assay contained 3.4-4.2 mg dry wt bacteroids, depending on the preparation used. The ratios of acetylene reduction were calculated from the highest mean values obtained with and without added substrate. Some experiments were repeated with different bacteroid preparations and replicate values are presented. Data from Figs. ¹ to 4 are incorporated in the table. In most cases the P02 of maximum activity with added substrate was estimated by interpolation (e.g. Figs. 3-6).

Oxygen uptake. Assays were as described in "Materials and Methods" with 6.4 to 7.0 mg dry wt bacteroids. Initial rates of O₂ uptake ranged from 0.092-0.264 μ mol/ml min. Values are means of four determinations. Substrates were added when O₂ concentration was between 190 and 150 μ M (254) /LM saturating concentration) and 02 uptake was followed to zero detectable 02. Treatments giving definite rate increases also gave increases in rate at the lowest detectable (about 10 μ M) concentration.

^a Treatments giving transient (1-4 min) rate increases.

FIG. 1. Effect of acetaldehyde on acetylene reduction in R. japonicum bacteroids. Assays were in triplicate. Standard errors are indicated by error bars. The O_2 concentration is that in the vials at the beginning of the incubation.

pended in assay buffer (1 ml/g nodules used) and frozen in 7- to 8-ml aliquots by dropping into liquid N_2 . Bacteroids stored at -80 C retained approximately 70% of their initial acetylene-reducing activity. Bacteroids prepared with hypotonic buffers in this fashion have been shown to be free of mitochondria (4, 8).

Assays for Nitrogenase Activity. The method was similar to that described by Emerich et al., (8). Assays were performed in 22-ml serum vials in ^a water bath-shaker at 23.5 C and ¹⁵⁰ rpm. Reaction mixtures were prepared by flushing the vials with Ar followed by addition of 2.4 ml (Ar-flushed) assay buffer (see above), acetylene to make 0.1 atm, and O_2 . Substrate was usually added in a volume of 25 μ l or less and the reactions were initiated with addition of 0.10 ml bacteroid suspension. Samples (0.5 ml) of the gas phase were taken at 20 and 40 min intervals and assayed for ethylene by GC.

02 Uptake Assays. Bacteroids were prepared as for nitrogenase assays except the washing procedures were done under air instead of under Ar. The nitrogenase is destroyed by O_2 . Assays were performed in 2.0 ml of the assay buffer described above. Each assay contained 0.20 ml bacteroid suspension and substrates were usually added in a volume of 20 μ l. O₂ was measured with a YSI 5331 O₂ probe (Yellow Springs Instrument Co., Yellow Springs, OH) in a water-jacked cuvette (23.5 C) equipped with a stir bar for rapid equilibrations.

FIG. 2. Effect of acetaldehyde on acetylene reduction in R. japonicum bacteroids.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A series of alcohols, aldehydes and acids have been tested for their effects on acetylene reduction, O_2 optimum for acetylene reduction, and O_2 uptake. Results are summarized in Table I.

Bacteroids have an endogenous metabolism which permits reduction of acetylene; the activity varies with O_2 concentration. Acetaldehyde, and to a lesser extent ethanol, supported an increased C_2H_2 reduction when supplied to bacteroids at low concentrations (Figs. 1-3). The effect is similar to that of succinate (Fig. 5) and malate. Our results with succinate and malate are similar to observations reported by others $(2, 8, 23)$.

Acetaldehyde and ethanol also cause an upward shift in the level of O_2 at which maximum acetylene reduction is observed though not as much as malate and succinate. This effect has been reported for several carbon compounds $(8, 23)$ and for $H₂ (8)$. It is attributed to an apparent respiratory protection: compounds supporting oxidative phosphorylation reduce the intercellular concentration of $O₂$ which would otherwise denature nitrogenase. Stimulation of soybean bacteroid O_2 uptake by a wide range of carbon substrates, including ethanol, has been observed (17).

Ethanol and acetaldehyde are interconverted by alcohol dehydrogenase (E.C. 1.1.1.71). Acetaldehyde may be converted to acetate which then can enter the tricarboxylic acid cycle via acetyl CoA synthetase (E.C. 6.2.1.1). Acetate also supports acetylene reduction (Fig. 4). How acetaldehyde could be converted to acetate in bacteroids is unknown. In mammalian or microbial systems, the reaction may be catalyzed by aldehyde oxidase (E.C. 1.2.3.1), aldehyde dehydrogenase (E.C. 1.2.1.3), xanthine oxidase (E.C. 1.2.3.2) or xanthine dehydrogenase (E.C. 1.2.1.37) (7).

To determine if metabolism was specific for acetaldehyde, structurally related compounds were tested (Table I). The ketones acetone and 2-butanone did not increase nitrogenase activity nor offer apparent respiratory protection. Acetylene reduction and apparent respiratory protection was increased by 1-butanol. Ben-

FIG. 3. Effect of ethanol on acetylene reduction in R. *japonicum* bacteroids.

FIG. 4. Effect of sodium acetate on acetylene reduction in R. japonicum bacteroids.

zyl alcohol produced a slight increase and 2-butanol was without effect; presumably the bulky substitutions prevent enzyme action.

The aldehydes glyoxylate, acetaldehyde, propionaldehyde, bu-

tyraldehyde, succinic semialdehyde and benzaldehyde all increased acetylene reduction above endogenous levels. Each of these increased $O₂$ uptake and apparently provided at least some respiratory protection. Hypoxanthine was without effect, suggesting that acetaldehyde was not oxidized via xanthine oxidase or xanthine dehydrogenase.

Alanine and lactate, possible anaerobic products of pyruvate, did not increase the level of acetylene reduction. At 2.0 mm, they gave a significant increase in apparent respiratory protection. Among the carboxylic acids, succinate and malate were most effective at supporting acetylene reduction and raising the optimum O_2 for activity. Acetate, pyruvate, butyrate, β -hydroxybutyrate and α -hydroxybutyrate were less effective while formate and benzoate were inactive.

02 uptake was measured for bacteroids prepared aerobically. Their nitrogenase was therefore inactive. Measurements were made at O_2 concentrations higher than exist in the nodule. The stimulations of O_2 uptake (Table I) correlated well with apparent respiratory protection, except in the case of 0.0010% benzaldehyde. Benzaldehyde, as well as propionaldehyde and butyraldehyde at this concentration gave a temporary increase in respiration rate. The brief period of effectiveness may have been due to their being used up in the experiment. Benzaldehyde at 0.0010% stimulated $O₂$ uptake as well as at the ten-fold higher concentration. Therefore, it may be that under the conditions of acetylene reduction assay, the benzaldehyde is metabolized before it can have a noticeable effect on the assay. The same situation may exist with propionaldehyde and butyraldehyde but their products might be further metabolized. Alternatively, affinities for these compounds may change when the O_2 concentration is lowered. The presence of various terminal oxidases with greatly different $O₂$ affinities has been established (2). Nevertheless, it is clear that correlations of 02-uptake and apparent respiratory protection were good.

The effects of aldehydes added with tricarboxylic acid cycle precursors were examined. Acetaldehyde did not increase acetylene reduction over the values obtained with succinate (Fig. 5); and benzaldehyde did not increase values over those for acetate (Fig. 6). There was an increase in the $O₂$ optimum. This suggests that electrons from the aldehydes and citric acid cycle precursors

FIG. 5. Effect of acetaldehyde on succinate-stimulated acetylene reduction in R. japonicum bacteroids.

FIG. 6. Effect of sodium acetate on benzaldehyde-stimulated acetylene reduction in R. japonicum bacteroids.

entered ^a common pool from which reductant for nitrogenase and oxidative phosphorylation was drawn. This concept is consistent with extensive data, summarized by Evans and Phillips (10), that reduced nicotinamide nucleotides can support nitrogenase activity in reconstituted electron transport systems. Interestingly, Emerich et al., (8) obtained similar results with H_2 and succinate. Addition of H₂ was shown to elevate ATP levels in their system. Other interpretations of our data are possible, especially since the source of endogenous reductant is not known.

The data show that acetaldehyde and ethanol may be utilized by soybean bacteroids. The metabolism of acetaldehyde seems to be via enzymes of broad specificity, since other aldehydes behave similarly. Acetaldehyde and ethanol are more lipophilic than carboxylic acids, and their movement across the bacteroid membrane may require less energy than the transport of substrates such as succinate and malate. This is consistent with the relative lack of inhibition of acetylene reduction at low O_2 concentrations with acetaldehyde and ethanol (Figs. 1-3). Succinate at ¹⁰ mm (Fig. 5) and lower concentrations gave a much greater inhibition than acetaldehyde and ethanol. At the suboptimal O_2 concentrations, ATP is apparently limiting to nitrogenase activity. Therefore, energy required for transport or activation of carbon compounds might be reflected in this inhibition. The inhibitory effect was also noted for H_2 and succinate by Emerich et al. (8).

This is the first report of a wide range of compounds supporting acetylene reduction by bacteroids. It was already known that isolated bacteroids have a broad capacity to utilize various carbon substrates in oxidative metabolism (3, 16, 17, 19). Assignment of a physiological significance to any compound requires demonstration of its presence, synthesis, and utilization. For compounds to be sources of carbon for bacteroids, synthesis must occur in plant cells. Malate is one such compound. It has been detected in nodules (6, 21) at mm concentrations. It can be synthesized fermentatively with plant cytoplasm enzymes (5, 6, 13, 15) and can support nitrogenase activity in bacteroids (Table I). Acetaldehyde

and ethanol have been detected in nodules (24, Tajima and LaRue, unpublished data). Our studies have demonstrated that acetaldehyde and ethanol can support acetylene reduction and O₂ uptake. Their biosynthesis in plant cells as well as pathways of energy coupling to bacteroid oxidative phosphorylation and nitrogenase are under current investigation.

Our experiments support the concept of De Vries et al. (6) of an anaerobic plant cytosol with a fermentative metabolism providing substrate for oxidation by bacteroids. De Vries demonstrated the involvement of malic acid in bacteroids. Our data indicate that ethanol and acetaldehyde also could be involved as substrates for bacteroid metabolism.

Acknowledgments-We wish to thank R. Glenister and B. Kneen for laboratory assistance.

LITERATURE CITED

- 1. BERGERSEN FJ 1962 Oxygenation of leghemoglobin in soybean root nodules in relation to the external oxygen tension. Nature 194: 1059-1061
- 2. BERGERSEN FJ, GL TURNER ¹⁹⁶⁷ Nitrogen fixation by the bacteroid fraction of breis of soybean root nodules. Biochim. Biophys Acta 141:507-515
- 3. BERGERSEN FJ, GL TURNER ¹⁹⁸⁰ Properties of terminal oxidase systems of bacteroids from root nodules of soybean and cowpea and of N_2 fixing bacteria grown in continuous culture. J Gen Microbiol 118: 235-252
- 4. CHING TM, S HEDTKE, W NEWCOMB 1977 Isolation of bacteria, transforming bacteria and bacteroids from soybean nodules. Plant Physiol 60: 771-774
- 5. CHRISTELLER JT, WA LAING, WD SUTTON ¹⁹⁷⁷ Carbon dioxide fixation by legume nodules. Plant Physiol 60: 47-50
- 6. DE VRIEs GE, P IN'TVELD, JW KUNE ¹⁹⁸⁰ Production of organic acids in Pisum sativum root nodules as a result of oxygen stress, Plant Sci Lett 20: 115-123
- 7. DIXON M, EC WEBB ¹⁹⁷⁹ The Enzymes, Academic Press, New York
- 8. EMERICH DW, T RuIz-ARGuEso, TM CHING, HJ EVANS ¹⁹⁷⁹ Hydrogen-dependent nitrogenase activity and ATP formation in Rhizobium japonicum bacteroids. J Bact 137: 153-160
- 9. EVANS HJ, JB KOCH, R KLUCAS ¹⁹⁷² Preparation of nitrogenase from nodules and separation into components. Methods Enzymol. 24: 470-476
- 10. EVANS HJ, DA PHILLIPS ¹⁹⁷⁵ Reductants for nitrogenase and relationships to cellular electron transport. In WDP Stewart, ed, Nitrogen Fixation by Free-Living Microorganisms, International Biological Programme Ser, Vol 6. Cambridge Univ. Press, pp. 389-420
- 11. JOHNSON GV, HJ EVANS, TM CHING 1966 Enzymes of the glyoxylate cycle in Rhizobia and nodules of legumes. Plant Physiol 41: 1330-1336
- 12. KIDBY DK ¹⁹⁶⁶ Activation of ^a plant invertase by inorganic phosphate. Plant Physiol 41: 1139-1144
- 13. LAWRIE AC, CT WHEELER 1975 Nitrogen fixation in the root nodules of Vicia faba L. II. New Phytol 74: 437-445
- 14. PATE JS 1975 Exchange of solutes between phloem and xylem and circulation in the whole plant. In U. Lüttge, M. G. Pitman, eds, Encylopedia of Plant Physiology, Vol 1, Springer, Berlin, pp. 451-473
- 15. PETERSON JB, HJ EVANS 1979 Phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase from soybean nodule cytosol. Evidence for isoenzymes and kinetics of the most active component. Biochim Biophys Acta 567: 445-452
- 16. RAWSTHORNE S, FR MINCHIN, RJ SUMMERFIELD, C COOKSON, ^J COOMBS ¹⁹⁸⁰ Carbon and nitrogen metabolism in legume root nodules. Phytochemistry 19: 341-355
- 17. RUIZ-ARGUESO T, DW EMERICH, HJ EVANS 1979 Characteristics of the H₂ oxidizing system in soybean nodule bacteroids. Arch Microbiol 121: 199-206 18. SMITH AM, T AP REEs ¹⁹⁷⁹ Effects of anaerobiosis on carbohydrate oxidation
- by roots of Pisum sativun. Phytochemistry 18: 1453-1458
- 19. STOVALL I, M COLE ¹⁹⁷⁸ Organic acid metabolism by isolated Rhizobium japonicum bacteroids. Plant Physiol 61: 787-790
- 20. STREETER JG, ME BOSLER ¹⁹⁷⁶ Carbohydrates in soybean nodules: identification of compounds and possible relationships to nitrogen fixation. Plant Sci Lett 7: 321-329
- 21. STUMPF DK, RH BURRIS 1979 A micromethod for the purification and quantification of organic acids of the tricarboxylic acid cycle in plant tissues. Anal Biochem 95: 311-315
- 22. TJEPKEMA JD, CS YOCUM ¹⁹⁷⁴ Measurement of oxygen partial pressure within soybean nodules by oxygen microelectrodes. Planta 119: 351-360
- 23. TRINCHANT J-C, ^J RIGAUD 1979 Sur les substrats energetiques utilises, lors de la reduction de C₂H₂, par les bacteroides extraits des nodosites de Phaseolus vulgaris L. Physiol Veg 17: 547-556
- 24. VAN STRATEN J, EL SCHMIDT 1974 Volatile compounds produced during acetylene reduction by detached soybean nodules. Soil Biol Biochem 6: 347-351