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Nitrogenase Reactivity: Azide Reduction[†]

Judith F. Rubinson, Barbara K. Burgess,* James L. Corbin, and Michael J. Dilworth[‡]

Battelle-Charles F. Kettering Research Laboratory, Yellow Springs, Ohio 45387

Received June 1, 1984

ABSTRACT: We have examined the reduction of azide by the purified component proteins of nitrogenase (Av1 and Av2). One of the two species present in azide solutions, HN_3 , was shown to be a potent substrate $(K_m = 12 \,\mu\text{M})$ which is reduced by six electrons to $N_2H_4 + NH_3$. HN_3 reduction does not yield any less highly reduced products, which implies the presence of tightly bound intermediates. HN_3 appears to be an effective inhibitor of H_2 evolution and to bind to a redox state of the enzyme more oxidized than that responsible for N_2 fixation or H_2 evolution. The other species present in solution, N_3^- , was shown to be the substrate reduced by two electrons to yield $N_2 + NH_3$. N_3^- is the only known anionic nitrogenase substrate, and its reduction is the only example of a nitrogenase reaction requiring inequivalent numbers of protons and electrons. Infinite $[N_3^-]$ cannot eliminate H_2 evolution, and N_3^- may bind to and be reduced by both high and low redox states of the enzyme. Some of the N_2 formed appears to be further reduced by six electrons to two NH_3 in a reaction that is inhibited by D_2 . The N_2 formed from N_3^- reduction, which is subsequently reduced to $2NH_3$, is not in equilibrium with N_2 in the gas phase. This suggests strongly that the N_2 must be formed at or near the N_2 reduction site.

I itrogenase is composed of two separately purified proteins called the molybdenum-iron protein (MoFe protein) and the iron protein (Fe protein), whose physical properties have been reviewed recently (Orme-Johnson et al., 1977; Mortenson & Thorneley, 1979; Burgess, 1984). The MoFe protein contains the site of substrate reduction (Hageman & Burris, 1979; Shah et al., 1973) while the Fe protein is generally accepted as a

specific electron donor for the MoFe protein (Hageman & Burris, 1978a; Ljones & Burris, 1978a,b). In addition to these two proteins, a source of reducing equivalents, MgATP, protons, and an anaerobic environment are required for all substrate reductions (Bulen & LeComte, 1966). Nitrogenase catalyzes not only the reduction of the physiological substrates dinitrogen and protons but also the reductions of the alternative substrates, nitrous oxide, acetylene, azide, cyanide, alkyl cyanides, alkyl isocyanides, hydrazine, cyclopropene, allene, and diazirine. Alternative substrates have often been studied as probes for the number and nature of sites of substrate interaction on nitrogenase and the types of intermediates that might be formed during N_2 reduction. This paper will describe recent studies on the reduction of azide by the purified component proteins of Azotobacter vinelandii nitrogenase.

[†]Contribution No. 844. This study was supported by Project 82-CRCR-1-1029 from SEA/CRGO of the U.S. Department of Agriculture.

^{*} Address correspondence to this author at the Department of Molecular Biology and Biochemistry, University of California, Irvine, CA 92717.

[‡]Present address: School of Environmental and Life Sciences, Murdoch University, Murdoch, Western Australia, 6153 Australia.

Azide reduction by nitrogenase was first demonstrated by Schöllhorn & Burris (1967). Using crude preparations of nitrogenase from Clostridium pasteurianum (Cp) and Azotobacter vinelandii (Av), they showed that azide was apparently reduced by two electrons to give stoichiometric amounts of N₂ and NH₃. Like N₂ reduction, the formation of both products required MgATP and a reductant and was inhibited by CO. These results were confirmed and extended by Hardy & Knight (1967). Although the latter group supported the one N₂ to one NH₃ stoichiometry proposed earlier, they did observe a one N2 to two NH3 stoichiometry at low azide concentrations, and they suggested that the excess NH3 arose from the further reduction of the N₂ formed. It was not until 1981, when Dilworth and Thorneley examined azide reduction using purified nitrogenase from Klebsiella pneumoniae (Kp) and Av, that it became clear that the stoichiometry was not one N₂ to one NH₃ and that there was a large relative excess of NH₃ formed. They further identified N₂H₄ as an additional product of azide reduction by nitrogenase. Electron balance was achieved in this study demonstrating that all major products were accounted for with the molar ratio of the products shown to be $\sim 1 N_2 H_4 / 2 N_2 / 5 - 6 N H_3$. This information led the authors to propose that nitrogenase catalyzes reactions 1-3.

$$N_3^- + 3H^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow N_2 + NH_3$$
 (1)

$$N_3^- + 7H^+ + 6e^- \rightarrow N_2H_4 + NH_3$$
 (2)

$$N_3^- + 9H^+ + 8e^- \rightarrow 3NH_3$$
 (3)

As azide is present as two species in solution, N_3 and HN_3 , the question arises as to which of the two species is serving as substrate for each of the azide reduction reactions. Because N₃⁻ is by far the major species in solution, it is generally believed to be the substrate [e.g., see Schöllhorn & Burris (1967), Hardy & Knight (1967), and Dilworth & Thorneley (1981)]. Dilworth & Thorneley (1981) performed azide concentration dependence experiments at pH 6.8 and 7.5. The data show that the apparent values for $K_m(N_3^-)$, as measured by either N₂H₄ or total NH₃ production, decreased with decreasing pH. The general direction, but not the magnitude, of the change suggested HN₃ as the substrate or cosubstrate (Dilworth & Thorneley, 1981; Li et al., 1982). Although apparent $K_m(N_3)$ values for azide reduction vary with the product being measured, the pH, the organism, and the Fe protein to MoFe protein ratio, reported values are on the order of 0.6-3.0 mM (Schöllhorn & Burris, 1967; Hardy & Knight, 1967; Parejko & Wilson, 1971; Hermann & Wilson, 1975; Dilworth & Thorneley, 1981) and quite similar to those of other alternative substrates. Dilworth & Thorneley (1981) pointed out that if HN_3 were the substrate, its apparent K_m would be in the range 1-15 μ M. As this value is much lower than the apparent K_m for N_2 reduction, they argued that HN_3 was unlikely to be the substrate.

In general the rate of total electron flow through nitrogenase is believed to be essentially independent of the substrate being reduced [e.g., see Watt & Burns (1977)]. An early study of azide reduction showed that high concentrations of azide inhibited the rate of NH₃ production (Schöllhorn & Burris, 1967). Electron balance studies were not performed, however, and it was not clear if this substrate self-inhibition phenomenon was due to inhibition of electron flow. In 1967, Hardy and Knight reported that the rate of nitrogenase turnover (measured as products) was independent of azide concentration for crude preparations of nitrogenase from Cp (pH 6.5) and Av (pH 7.0). Interpretation of these early results is difficult because the azide reduction product, N_2H_4 , was not measured

(Dilworth & Thorneley, 1981). In detailed product balance studies with purified Kp nitrogenase (pH 6.8), it was demonstrated that total electron flow was independent of azide concentration at least up to 20 mM at pH 6.8 (Dilworth & Thorneley, 1981). Ljones' (1973) direct measurements, however, showed that azide was a weak inhibitor of dithionite utilization by Cp nitrogenase at pH 8.0. One report suggested that azide inhibited the rate of MgATP hydrolysis by nitrogenase (Hardy & Knight, 1967), although this result was not confirmed by others (Hwang et al., 1973). In the absence of added substrates, nitrogenase catalyzes an H₂-evolution reaction and all substrates are competing for a fixed number of electrons which would otherwise be used to evolve H₂. Dilworth & Thorneley (1981) demonstrated that, at pH 6.8, infinite azide concentration should not eliminate H₂ evolution completely and results in about 75% of the electrons reducing azide and the remainder going to H₂ evolution. They further suggested, however, that, at high pH (8.2) and infinite azide concentrations, azide should be able to suppress H₂ evolution completely.

A number of studies have focused on the effects of other substrates and inhibitors on azide reduction by nitrogenase. CO was shown to be a noncompetitive inhibitor of azide reduction to total NH₃ (Hwang & Burris, 1973; Rivera-Ortiz & Burris, 1975). C₂H₂ reduction is inhibited noncompetitively by azide, and azide reduction to total NH₃ is inhibited noncompetitively by C₂H₂ (Hwang & Burris, 1973). Studies of combinations of cyanide, azide, and CH₃NC show that cyanide and CH3NC are competitive inhibitors of azide reduction to total NH₃ and that azide is a competitive inhibitor of cyanide reduction to CH₄ (Hwang & Burris, 1973; Rivera-Ortiz & Burris, 1975). These results were interpreted as evidence that cyanide, azide, and CH₃NC were reduced at a common site which was distinct from the N₂-reduction site. More recent reports, however, have questioned this interpretation (Li et al., 1982; Rubinson et al., 1983) because the earlier studies did not consider the numerous problems of (1) pH control, (2) CN⁻ and CH₃NC inhibition of total electron flow, (3) azide relief of CN- and CH3NC inhibition, and (4) multiple products for the reduction of all three substrates. In addition, Dilworth & Thorneley (1981) demonstrated that N₂ was a competitive inhibitor of azide reduction to N₂H₄, which suggests that dinitrogen and azide reduction occur at the same site.

Further studies of azide reduction by the purified component proteins of Av nitrogenase are reported here.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Reagents and Chemicals. ATP,¹ creatine phosphate, creatine phosphokinase, and Tes¹ were obtained from Sigma Chemical Co. NaN₃ labeled in one terminal nitrogen atom (99 atom % excess ¹⁵N) was from Stohler Isotope Chemicals. NaN₃ labeled in the central and one terminal nitrogen atom (91.9 atom % excess ¹⁵N) was from MSD Isotopes. Ultrahigh purity argon and N₂/Ar mixtures were purchased from AGA Burdox. Zero-grade N₂, D₂, and C₂H₂/Ar mixtures were obtained from Matheson.

Nitrogenase Assay. Azotobacter vinelandii MoFe and Fe proteins, designated Av1 and Av2, respectively, were purified and analyzed as described elsewhere (Burgess et al., 1980). Specific activities of the proteins were ca. 1900 nmol of H_2 min⁻¹ (mg of Av2)⁻¹ and 2900 nmol of H_2 min⁻¹ (mg of Av1)⁻¹. All assays were performed at 30 °C in 9.5-mL calibrated vials,

¹ Abbreviations: ATP, adenosine 5'-triphosphate; Tes, 2-[[tris(hydroxymethyl)methyl]amino]ethanesulfonic acid; HPLC, high-performance liquid chromatography; EDTA, ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid.

fitted with butyl rubber serum caps, containing the appropriate gas mixtures. The 2.0-mL reaction mixture contained 50 mM Tes-KOH (at the desired pH), 2.5 mM ATP, 5.0 mM MgCl₂, 30 mM creatine phosphate, 15 mM neutralized $\rm Na_2S_2O_4$, and 5.0 units of creatine phosphokinase. It was necessary to treat a solution of Tes with Dowex-50 (H⁺ form) before pH adjustment and dilution to avoid problems with background NH₃.

The vessel containing the reaction mixture was either degassed and filled with the appropriate gas mixture on a previously described apparatus (Corbin, 1978) or degassed with ultrahigh purity Ar and an appropriate amount of inhibitor gas added. Na₂S₂O₄ was added, and the mixture was incubated with shaking at 30 °C for 5 min. Av1 was added, and the reaction was started by adding Av2 to give the appropriate molar ratio of the two components. A total of 2 mg of protein per 2-mL reaction was used to avoid complications introduced by large protein concentrations (Wherland et al., 1981). Unless otherwise indicated, all experiments were performed at an Av2/Av1 molar ratio of 8. Molar ratios are based on molecular weights of 64 000 for Av2 and 230 000 for Av1. Molar ratio experiments were performed as described elsewhere (Wherland et al., 1981). All reactions were run with shaking for 6 min, and all product formation was linear with time. Reactions were terminated with 0.2 mL of 37% HCHO when dithionite was to be determined. For all other experiments, reactions were terminated with 0.4 M EDTA, pH 7.4 (0.2 mL). Both termination methods were equally effective.

Preparation of NaN₃ Stock Solution. Solid NaN₃ was weighed out and diluted with demineralized water to produce a stock solution. NaN₃ was added to reaction vials before degassing by one of two methods. All concentration dependence experiments were performed by addition of 200 μ L of various stock solutions which were 10 times the desired concentration. Other experiments involved addition of varying amounts of the same stock solution. The addition of azide stock solutions did not affect the pH of the reaction mixture. Experiments involving C₂H₂, CO, and N₂, added as inhibitors, used doubly labeled azide. All other experiments used azide labeled in one terminal position.

Product Analysis. With the exception of dithionite-utilization studies, all products were measured on the same reaction vial. All data points represent means of (typically) triplicate determinations (see paragraph at end of paper regarding supplementary material). For H₂ analysis (if D₂ was not present), gas samples, 200 µL at bottle pressure, were taken with a pressure-lock syringe (Precision Sampling). H₂ was detected by using a home-built gas chromatograph with a thermal conductivity detector (5-Å molecular sieve column, Ar). N₂ formation was determined mass spectrometrically to avoid contamination with atmospheric N2. Where inhibitors were not present, ²⁹N₂ formation from the terminally labeled azide was monitored; where inhibitors were added and/or other products led to interference at mass 29, it was necessary to monitor ³⁰N₂ formation from centrally and terminally ¹⁵N labeled azide. For ²⁹N₂ and ³⁰N₂ analysis, gas samples, 1 mL at bottle pressure, were taken with a pressure-lock syringe (Precision Sampling) and were expanded to a fixed volume in a Finnigan mass spectrometer, and the spectrum was recorded at a preset time after expansion. For ²⁹N₂ experiments, Ar was used as an internal standard. The relative instrumental sensitivies were obtained by using a 40% N₂-60% Ar mixture. For ³⁰N₂ experiments, a 0.1-mL sample of ³⁰N₂ (98%+) was injected as a standard. When D2 was present, H2 was measured by mass spectrometry on the same vial mixtures of known concentration as standards (Wherland et al., 1981).

In order to obtain low, reproducible backgrounds for NH₃ analysis, it was necessary to clean all reaction vials and serum stoppers by heating for at least 2 h in hot Micro (International Products Corp.) and then rinsing in demineralized water and absolute ethanol. Clean vials (oven dried) and stoppers were then stored in closed containers until used.

Attempts to scavenge N_2H_2 with 5 mM fumarate made no significant difference in electron allocation to azide at pH 6.8, which indicates that N_2H_2 is not released as an intermediate in azide reduction.

Since azide interferes with the Fiske & Subbarow (1925) method for phosphate and N₂H₄ interferes with the Ennor (1957) method for phosphocreatine consumption, ATP/2e⁻ ratios are not reported.

Ammonia was determined by an HPLC-fluorescence method described elsewhere (Corbin, 1984). Dithionite was determined by using a published procedure (Li et al., 1982). In these experiments, H_2 , N_2 , and $S_2O_4^{2-}$ were measured on the same reaction vial.

Data Treatment. Calculations of the total amounts of H_2 and N_2 were based on the calibrated vial volume minus 2.2 mL of liquid phase and then expressed as nanomoles per minute per milligram of total protein. No correction for solubility of gases in the liquid phase was applied. Total electron flow was obtained either by the amount of dithionite consumed or by the amounts of products formed. The relationship $2e^-/H_2$, $2e^-/N_2$, $6e^-/N_2H_4$, or $2.67e^-/excess\ NH_3$ is used in calculating electron flow from products formed (Dilworth & Thorneley, 1981). Excess NH_3 is calculated as total $NH_3 - (N_2 + N_2H_4)$.

Because N_3^- is a weak base (p $K_a^{30^{\circ}\text{C}}$ = 4.6; Boughton & Keller, 1966), the relative amounts of N_3^- and HN_3 in buffered solutions of NaN_3 are determined by pH. N_3^- is by far the dominant species at the pH values of interest. For 1 mM NaN₃ added, the N₃⁻ concentration ranges from 0.9829 mM at pH 6.5 to 0.9986 mM at pH 7.6. Although HN₃ concentrations are low, they are dramatically changed by pH, ranging from 17.1 μ M at pH 6.5 to 1.38 μ M at pH 7.6 (for 1 mM NaN₃ added). The initial concentrations of both N₃⁻ and HN₃ were calculated from the amounts of NaN₃ added in each reaction by

$$[HN_3] = \frac{[NaN_3]}{antilog (4.6 - pH) + 1}$$

which comes from the relationship of pK_a to pH, $pK_a^{30^{\circ}C} = 4.6 = pH + log ([N_3^-]/[HN_3])$ and $[NaN_3] = [N_3^-] + [HN_3]$. In the text, N_3^- and HN_3 will be used to refer to the actual species ("azide ion" and the neutral "hydrazoic acid" molecule), while the term "azide" will be used in a general sense, e.g., azide reduction, without regard to the actual species involved. In all experiments, at low NaN_3 concentrations, a large proportion of the substrate is consumed in our 6-min reactions. Thus, for increased accuracy, we use the average NaN_3 concentration [(initial + final)/2] instead of the initial NaN_3 concentration for all calculations [e.g., see Rubinson et al. (1983)].

The rate of nitrogenase turnover is also dependent on pH. When data obtained at different pH values are compared, it is desirable to "normalize" to a constant electron flow. The simplest way to do this is to report the data in terms of the percentage of the total electron flow (at each point) that was used to produce a particular product.

RESULTS

Electron Balance. Using Av purified component proteins, we have confirmed the finding of Dilworth & Thorneley

Table I:	Product/Electron Balance	

products ^a (nmol·mg ⁻¹)			g ⁻¹)	electron pairs as products ^b	nmol of S ₂ O ₄ ²⁻	
H ₂	N ₂ H ₄	N ₂	NH ₃	(nmol·mg ⁻¹)	consumed ^c	
1212	272	624	1350	3252	3288 ± 156	

^aThe following conditions were used: 20 mM NaN₃, pH 7.3, Ar atmosphere, 6-min reactions, average of six reactions. ^bSee Materials and Methods. ^cBy titration (Li et al., 1982).

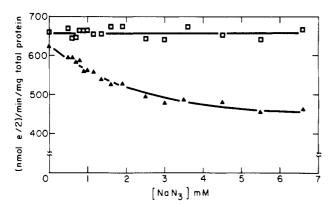


FIGURE 1: Plot of rate of total electron flow through nitrogenase vs. initial NaN₃ concentration: (\square) pH 6.9; (\triangle) pH 7.6. Total electron pairs were calculated from products as described under Materials and Methods. In the same NaN₃ concentration range, electron flow was constant at 464 \pm 15 (pH 6.5), 533 \pm 17 (pH 6.7), 644 \pm 30 (pH 7.1), and 616 \pm 15 (pH 7.3) all in nmol of electron pairs min⁻¹ (mg of total protein)⁻¹.

(1981) with Kp that azide is reduced by six electrons to give N_2H_4 and NH_3 and by two electrons to give N_2 and NH_3 and that there is a large relative excess of NH_3 formed. Table I clearly shows the equivalence of products formed to electrons consumed, and thus all major products are accounted for. The product ratio for this experiment was $1N_2H_4/2.3N_2/5NH_3$ which also is quite similar to that previously reported for Kp at pH 6.8.

A control experiment, performed under the same conditions but with no azide present, gave 3270 ± 66 (nmol of H₂ formed in 6 min) (mg of total protein)⁻¹, which demonstrates that azide concentrations, at least up to 20 mM (Av, pH 7.3), do not affect the rate of total electron flow through nitrogenase as previously reported for Kp at pH 6.8 (Dilworth & Thorneley, 1981). As shown in Figure 1, however, azide does appear to weakly inhibit the rate of total electron flow through nitrogenase at high (>7.3) pH. This has also been observed for Cp nitrogenase (at pH 8.0), in dithionite-utilization studies, and attributed to irreversible inactivation of Cp2 (Ljones, 1973). In contrast to our previous studies of CN⁻ (Li et al., 1982) and CH₃NC (Rubinson et al., 1983) inhibition we were unable to relieve azide inhibition of total electron flow by addition of CO. This observation supports the idea that the inhibition is nonspecific. Thus, in order to avoid the problems of variable electron flow, all other experiments were performed in the pH range 6.5-7.3, where such inhibition was not ob-

Reduction of Azide to N_2H_4 . In order to determine which species, HN_3 or N_3^- , is a substrate for nitrogenase, we have performed azide concentration dependence experiments at several pH values. Figure 2a is a plot of the percentage of the total electrons used to reduce azide to N_2H_4 as a function of the calculated HN_3 concentration at five different pH values. A definite correlation is found. At any given HN_3 concentration, the same value of percent electrons to N_2H_4 is obtained, independent of the N_3^- concentration and the pH. Figure 2b is the same data as in Figure 2a but plotted vs. the

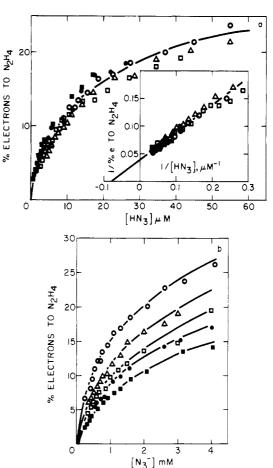


FIGURE 2: (a) Plot of percentage of total electrons being used to produce N_2H_4 vs. the calculated HN_3 concentration. Inset: Double-reciprocal plot using HN_3 concentrations in the range $(0.2-2)K_m$ (Segal, 1975). The line is a computer fit of data points at all pH values to the Michaelis-Menten equation giving $K_m = 12.3 \pm 0.4 \, \mu \text{M HN}_3$; $V_{\text{max}} = 25.4 \pm 1.3\%$. (b) Percentage of total electrons being used to produce N_2H_4 vs. N_3^- concentration. Assay conditions and calculations are as described under Materials and Methods: (O) pH 6.5; (\triangle) pH 6.7; (\square) pH 6.9; (\blacksquare) pH 7.1; (\blacksquare) pH 7.3.

 N_3^- concentration. At any given N_3^- concentration, five different values of percentage electrons to N_2H_4 are obtained and the higher the pH the lower the percentage electrons to N_2H_4 . Since $[HN_3]$ decreases with increasing pH, this is the expected result if HN_3 is the source of N_2H_4 . We conclude that HN_3 is evidently the substrate and is reduced by nitrogenase in a six-electron reaction to N_2H_4 plus NH_3 . A plot of $1/(\text{percentage electrons to }N_2H_4)$ vs. $[HN_3]$ is linear and yields an apparent K_m of $12.2 \pm 0.41 \, \mu\text{M}$ HN₃ and a V_{max} of $25.4 \pm 1.3\%$ (inset of Figure 2a). We did not observe any less highly reduced products of HN_3 reduction, and attempts to trap a diazine-level intermediate were unsuccessful (see Materials and Methods).

Reduction of Azide to N_2 . Since HN_3 is the substrate for the N_2H_4 pathway, is it also the substrate for the two-electron reduction to N_2 ? Apparently not, as Figure 3 shows a good correlation between the percentage of the total electrons used to reduce azide to N_2 vs. the calculated N_3 —concentration at five pH values. At any given N_3 —concentration, about the same value of percent electrons to N_2 is obtained, essentially independent of the HN_3 concentration or pH (but see excess NH_3 section below). If HN_3 were the substrate, a plot of the same data, but when $[HN_3]$ is used instead of $[N_3]$, should have resulted in a single curve for the same reasons given above. In fact, one gets five very different curves (Figure 1 of supplementary material). This result is again consistent

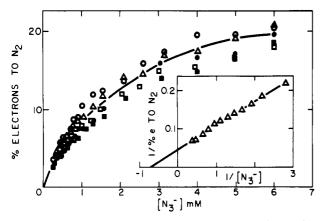


FIGURE 3: Plot of percentage of total electrons being used to produce N_2 vs. the N_3 -concentration. Assay conditions and calculations are as described under Materials and Methods: (O) pH 6.5; (Δ) pH 6.7; (\square) pH 6.9; (\bullet) pH 7.1; (\blacksquare) pH 7.3. Inset: Double-reciprocal plot of pH 6.7 data using N_3 -concentration in the range $(0.2-2)K_m$ (Segal, 1975). The line is a computer fit to the Michaelis-Menten equation. $K_m = 1.35 \pm 0.031$ mM N_3 -; $V_{max} = 21.4 \pm 0.93\%$. Slight pH trend discussed in excess NH₃ section.

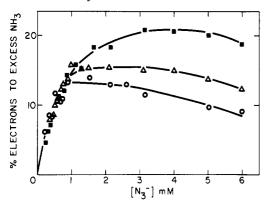


FIGURE 4: Plot of percentage of total electrons being used to produce excess NH₃ [NH₃ total – $(N_2H_4 + N_2)$] vs. the calculated N₃-concentration: (O) pH 6.5; (\triangle) pH 6.7; (\blacksquare) pH 7.3.

with N_3^- being the substrate. At any given value for $[HN_3]$, the amount of N_3^- present would depend on the pH; for example, at $[HN_3] = 15 \,\mu\text{M}$, $[N_3^-]$ would be 5.44 mM at pH 7.3 but only 0.86 mM at pH 6.5. The percentage electrons going to N_2 production should, therefore, be higher at the higher pH and it is (18% vs. 9%) (Figure 1 of supplementary material). These data demonstrate then that N_3^- is the substrate which is reduced by two electrons to give N_2 plus NH_3 .

Reduction of Azide Leading to Excess NH₃. Excess NH₃ is the amount of the total NH3 formed that cannot be accounted for by the six-electron reduction of HN₃ to N₂H₄ plus NH₃ plus the two-electron reduction of N₃⁻ to N₂ plus NH₃. Figure 4 is a plot of the percentage of total electrons being used to produce excess NH₃ vs. the calculated N₃⁻ concentration at three pH values. Figure 4 shows a good correlation of excess NH₃ with [N₃⁻] below about 1 mM. If the data in this range are plotted vs. [HN₃], three very different lines are observed for the three pH values (not shown). Thus, the rate of production of excess NH3 is dependent either directly or indirectly on [N₃⁻] and definitely not on [HN₃]. The data shown in Figure 4 do not follow Michaelis-Menten kinetics, with the curves at all pH values leveling off prematurely and even decreasing at high azide concentrations. Although this effect is less dramatic if total NH₃ is considered, especially at high pH, it is still noticeable, as previously observed by Schöllhorn & Burris (1967). The data in Figure 4 cannot therefore be used to obtain K_m and V_{max} values for excess NH₃ production. Interestingly, the inhibition of the formation of

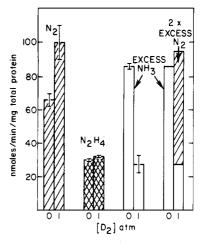


FIGURE 5: Effect of D_2 on products of azide reduction. Identical trend seen in separate experiments with 2 mM NaN_3 (Table I of supplementary material). The shaded area in the fourth set of bar graphs is 2 times the increase in N_2 seen when D_2 is added. This assumes that in the absence of D_2 that N_2 was reduced to two NH_3 . H_2 evolution was 240 ± 13 under Ar (1 atm) and 214 ± 9 under D_2 (1 atm) both in nanomoles of electron pairs per minute per milligram of total protein. $[NaN_3] = 4$ mM.

excess NH₃ depends not only on increasing azide concentration but also on the pH. Much more inhibition is observed at low pH than at high pH, which strongly suggests that, whatever the mechanism for excess NH₃ formation, the reaction is dramatically inhibited by HN₃.

The simplest explanation for these observations (Hardy & Knight, 1967) is that the excess NH₃ arises from the reduction of the N₂ formed during azide reduction experiments. As the production of N₂ depends on the N₃⁻ concentration, the excess NH_3 should similarly depend on $[N_3^-]$. It does (Figure 4). N₂ is a weak competitive inhibitor of N₂H₄ production (Dilworth & Thorneley, 1981), which we have shown arises from the reduction of HN₃. Conversely, one would expect HN₃ to be a competitive inhibitor of N₂ reduction, and in fact, HN₃ does appear to inhibit strongly the formation of excess NH₃. This observation would also explain the slight trend toward lower observed rates of N₂ production as the pH is raised (Figure 3). At high pH, there is less HN₃ present to inhibit the reduction of N2 to excess NH3 so that more N2 should be reduced and the observed N2 should be lower. These are the trends observed.

In order to determine definitively whether or not the excess NH₃ arises from the reduction of the N₂ formed, we have performed azide reduction experiments in the presence of D₂. H₂(D₂) is known to specifically inhibit the reduction of N₂ to $2NH_3$ but does not inhibit the reduction of any other nitrogenase substrate [e.g., see Guth & Burris (1983)]. As shown in Figure 5 and supplemental Table I, the addition of D₂ to an azide reduction system does not affect N₂H₄ production but does cause a large decrease in excess NH₃ and a corresponding increase in N₂ production. The decrease in excess NH₃ formation is completely offset by the increase in N₂ which is exactly what is expected from the stoichiometry of the H₂(D₂) inhibition reaction (eq 4; Burgess et al., 1981), where

$$N_2 + 2H^+ + 2e^- + H_2(D_2) \rightarrow N_2 + H_2(2HD)$$
 (4)

every time N_2 is intercepted by $H_2(D_2)$, it is prevented from being reduced to $2NH_3$. Taken together, these data suggest strongly that excess NH_3 is not a direct product of azide reduction but rather a side product of the further reduction of the N_2 formed. Inhibition studies with CO (see inhibitor section below) are also consistent with this view.

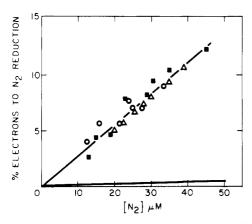


FIGURE 6: Plot of percentage electrons to N_2 reduction vs. micromolar $[N_2]$. Bottom line is theoretical curve for typical N_2 fixation experiment as discussed in the text. Top line is experimental showing percent electrons to N_2 reduction vs. $[N_2]$ during azide reduction experiments assuming that all excess NH_3 arises from reaction 5 under Results. Thus, one-third of excess NH_3 comes from two-electron reduction of N_3^- to N_2 , and the rest comes from six-electron reduction of that N_2 to $2NH_3$: (O) pH 6.5; (Δ) pH 6.7; (\blacksquare) pH 7.3.

The question then arises as to whether or not the N₂ formed that is, subsequently reduced to give excess NH₃, is in equilibrium with N₂ in the gas phase over the reaction. Reported values for $K_m(N_2)$ are on the order of 0.1 atm of N_2 (Hardy, 1979) which would be about 4 mM N_2 in the gas phase of the reaction vial. On the basis of this $K_{\rm m}$ and a reported $V_{\rm max}$ of about 75% electrons during N₂-reduction experiments (Rivera-Ortiz & Burris, 1975; Simpson & Burris, 1984), we have constructed a theoretical curve of percentage electrons to give NH₃ vs. N₂ at extremely low [N₂] for the N₂-fixation reaction (bottom line in Figure 6). In Figure 6, we have also plotted our excess NH3 data as a function of the average N2 concentration (final $N_2/2$) present in the gas phase of our reaction vials during the course of the experiments. The points used are those below about 1 mM N₃⁻ from Figure 4 or before the reaction is inhibited significantly by HN₃. Clearly, the amount of excess NH₃ formed cannot be explained if the N₂ produced is released from the enzyme and equilibrated with the gas phase prior to its being reduced to NH₃. Nonetheless, dissociation of the N₂ from the enzyme is indicated by HN₃ and CO inhibition studies (see inhibition section below).

A Second Look at the Reduction of N_3^- to N_2 . As indicated above, a significant proportion of the N_2 produced from N_3^- reduction appears to be further reduced to give excess NH_3 . If that is the case, then Figure 3 is not an accurate representation of the kinetics of N_3^- reduction to N_2 by nitrogenase. Figure 7 shows the kinetics of this reaction if one assumes that all of the excess NH_3 arises from reaction 5. As expected,

$$N_3^- \xrightarrow{+3H^+, 2e^-} NH_3 + N_2 \xrightarrow{+6H^+, 6e^-} 2NH_3$$
 (5)

the data in Figure 7 follow Michaelis-Menten kinetics when plotted vs. N_3^- , and there is no trend with pH. The double-reciprocal plot is linear, giving an apparent $K_m = 0.86 \pm 0.06$ mM N_3^- and a $V_{\rm max} = 40 \pm 2.7\%$ for the two-electron reduction of N_3^- to N_2^- + NH₃.

Hydrogen Evolution. In 1981, Dilworth and Thorneley reported that the ability of azide to compete successfully with the H_2 -evolution reaction was dependent on pH. By extrapolation to infinite azide concentration, they concluded that H_2 evolution could be eliminated at pH 8.0 but not at pH 6.8. That study, however, did not measure the products of azide reduction but rather the change in H_2 evolution as increasing azide is added. This approach is not valid if total electron flow is inhibited by increasing azide as appears to be the case at

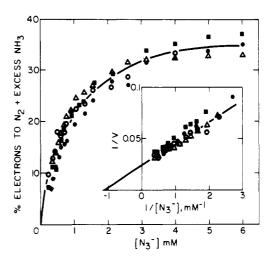


FIGURE 7: Plot of percentage of total electrons being used to reduce $[N_3^-]$ to N_2 and excess NH_3 vs. the calculated $[N_3^-]$. Inset: Double-reciprocal plot using $[N_3^-]$ in the range $(0.2-2)K_m$ (Segal, 1975). The line is a computer fit of data points at all pH values to the Michaelis-Menten equation giving $K_m = 0.86 \pm 0.06$ mM N_3^- and $V_{max} = 40 \pm 2.7\%$. Assay conditions and calculations are as described under Materials and Methods: (O) pH 6.5; (\triangle) pH 6.7; (\square) pH 6.9; (\blacksquare) pH 7.1; (\blacksquare) pH 7.3.

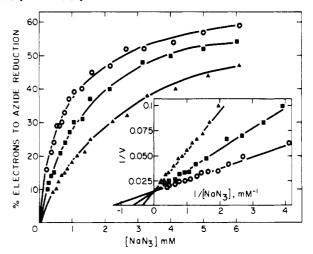


FIGURE 8: Plot of percentage electrons to azide reduction to all products (with the remainder of electrons going to H_2 evolution) vs. [NaN₃] at (O) pH 6.5, (\blacksquare) pH 7.3, and (\triangle) pH 7.6. Inset is double-reciprocal plot giving the following: $K_{\rm m}=0.68\pm0.04$ and $V_{\rm max}=63\pm2.2$ at (O) pH 6.5; $K_{\rm m}=1.46\pm0.05$ and $V_{\rm max}=68\pm5$ at (\blacksquare) pH 7.3; $K_{\rm m}=2.64\pm0.06$ and $V_{\rm max}=65\pm3.8$ at (\triangle) pH 7.6.

high pH (Figure 1; Ljones, 1973).

Figure 8 is a plot of the percentage electrons to azide reduction (all products) vs. [NaN₃]. We have included the pH 7.6 data because high pH was of particular interest (Dilworth & Thorneley, 1981). Even though total electron flow was not constant at pH 7.6, we knew the electron flow at each point and thus could calculate the percentage electrons to azide reduction products. As shown in Figure 8, the $K_{\rm m}$ values for total azide reduction increase as the pH is increased. This is expected because, at high pH, much more [NaN₃] is required to maximize HN₃ reduction. As shown in the inset to Figure 8, however, the V_{max} is independent of pH. This result is also expected because at infinite [NaN3], regardless of pH, the system will be saturated with both $[N_3^-]$ and $[HN_3]$. The V_{max} of 65% electrons going to azide reduction (with the remainder going to H₂ evolution) from Figure 8 is the same as the sum of the $V_{\text{max}}[\text{HN}_3]$ (Figure 2a) and $V_{\text{max}}[\text{N}_3^-]$ (Figure 7) and is also the value we determined experimentally at 25 mM NaN_3 (pH 6.7, 7.6). Thus, H_2 evolution cannot be eliminated by azide with about 35% of the electrons still going to H₂

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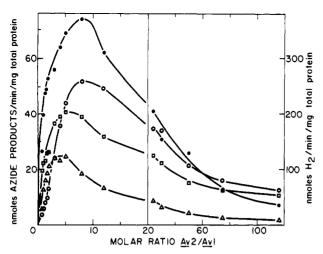


FIGURE 9: Plot of nanomoles of products per minute per milligram of total protein vs. the molar component ratio Av2/Av1: (O) H_2 ; (\square) N_2 ; (\triangle) N_2H_4 ; (\bullet) excess NH_3 . All assays and calculations are as described under Materials and Methods. Assays contained 2 mM NaN_3 at pH 7.1.

evolution at infinite [NaN₃] at Av2/Av1 = 8.

Component Ratio Titration. Figure 9 shows the rate of product formation vs. the molar component ratio of Av2 to Av1. In this experiment, HN_3 reduction to $N_2H_4 + NH_3$ peaks at the lowest ratio of about three while N_3 —reduction to $N_2 + NH_3$ peaks at a ratio of about 5. H_2 evolution and excess NH_3 formation peak at the highest ratio of about 8. This observation is consistent with the observation of Dilworth & Thorneley (1981) where N_2H_4 formation was favored over total NH_3 production at low Kp2/Kp1 ratios. The trends observed in Figure 9 are different from those seen in previous experiments for H_2 evolution, N_2 fixation, and HD formation where all products peak at the same ratio (Whereland et al., 1981) but similar to those for HCN (Li et al., 1982) and CH_3NC (Rubinson et al., 1983).

Previous studies (Silverstein & Bulen, 1970; Davis et al., 1975) with nitrogenase have led to the suggestion that, in general, H_2 evolution is favored over other substrate reductions (especially N_2) at low Fe/MoFe protein molar ratios where the system is electron limited. For N_2 reduction (Wherland et al., 1981), the higher the Av2/Av1 ratio the greater the percentage of total electrons going to N_2 reduction. A different trend is seen for HCN reduction (Li et al., 1982), CH₃NC reduction (Rubinson et al., 1983), and azide reduction (Figure 2 of supplementary material) where high ratios favor H_2 evolution over HCN, CH₃NC, HN₃, and N_3 reductions.

The data shown in Figure 9 and Figure 2 of supplementary material) indicate that the ability of azide to compete successfully with H_2 evolution should increase as the Av2/Av1 ratio is lowered. To test this indication, we performed an azide concentration dependence experiment (pH 6.9) at an Av2/Av1 molar ratio of 1.5 (data not shown). HN₃ is a markedly better substrate at this ratio. The apparent $K_{\rm m}$ for HN₃ reduction to (N₂H₄ + NH₃) decreases from 12 μ M at Av2/Av1 = 8 (Figure 2a) to 6.8 μ M \pm 0.06 at Av2/Av1 = 1.5. The $V_{\rm max}$ increases dramatically from 25% at Av2/Av1 = 8 (Figure 2a) to 40.2 \pm 4.8% at Av2/Av1 = 1.5.

The effect of component protein ratio on the production of N_2 is less dramatic. Although the apparent K_m is lowered from about 1.3 mM at Av2/Av1 = 8 (Figure 3) to 0.78 mM \pm 0.05 at Av2/Av1 = 1.5, the V_{max} is unaffected at 21.4% (Figure 3) vs. 20.6 \pm 1.4%. When the reduction of N_3^- to both N_2 and excess NH₃ is considered (data not shown, pH 6.9), the V_{max} decreases from about 40% to 35% at the lower ratio. This

	pe	rcent inhil	bition of
inhibitor ^a	N_2H_4	N ₂	excess NH ₂
CO (0.06%)	59	63	80
N. (40%)	30	20	ND^b

 C_2H_2 (5%) C_2H_2 (15%)

^a Balance Ar. Conditions used were 2 mM NaN₃, pH 7.1, in triplicate determinations. ^b Not determined.

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38

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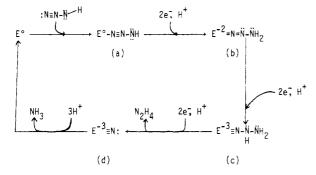
result is consistent with the trend shown in Figure 9 where excess NH₃ production peaks at a higher ratio than does N₂ formation. When all azide reduction products are considered together, the $V_{\rm max}$ increases from 65% at Av2/Av1 = 8 (Figure 8) to 75.2 \pm 2.4% (Figure 3 of supplementary material) at Av2/Av1 = 1.5, with the remainder of the electrons going to H₂ evolution. Thus, although the ability of azide to compete successfully with H₂ evolution is improved by lowering the Av2/Av1 ratio to 1.5, H₂ evolution still cannot be eliminated by infinite concentration of azide at this ratio.

Inhibition of Azide Reduction. HN₃ and N₃ are reduced by nitrogenase to give different products, and it is of interest to know whether each of these substrates inhibits the reduction of the other. As shown in Figure 2a, the reduction of HN₃ to $N_2H_4 + NH_3$ is unaffected by the presence of N_3 . For example, N_2H_4 formation is constant at $[HN_3] = 25 \mu M$, even though the $[N_3^-]$ ranges from 0.14 (pH 6.5) to 9.07 mM (pH 7.3). Thus, N₃⁻ does not inhibit HN₃ reduction at least in the concentration range tested. If HN₃ were to inhibit N₃ reduction to give $N_2 + NH_3$, then one would expect less N_2 to be formed as the pH is lowered (i.e., the [HN₃] is increased). As shown in Figure 3, however, we actually see somewhat more N₂ formed as the [HN₃] is increased (pH is lowered). Thus, HN_3 does not appear to inhibit $[N_3^-]$ reduction to $(N_2 + NH_3)$ in the concentration range tested. The data shown in Figure 4, however, show that HN₃ does appear to inhibit dramatically the formation of excess NH₃ (see excess NH₃ section above).

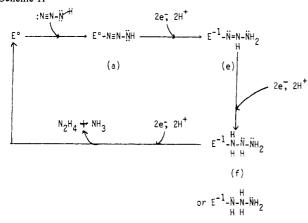
We have tested the effects of other substrates and inhibitors on azide reduction in order to determine if they inhibit the HN₃ and N₃ reduction pathways to different extents. In 1981, Dilworth and Thorneley reported that, for Kp nitrogenase, CO was a noncompetitive inhibitor of N₂H₄ production, which we have shown arises from the reduction of HN₃. We observe the same noncompetitive inhibition pattern for CO inhibition of HN₃ reduction (to $N_2H_4 + NH_3$) for Av nitrogenase (data not shown). As shown in Table II, CO also inhibits the production of both N₂ and excess NH₃, but its effect on excess NH₃ formation is much greater. If, as discussed in the excess NH₃ section, the excess NH₃ arises from the further reduction of the N₂ formed, then when CO inhibits the reduction of that N_2 , it should cause both a decrease in the observed excess NH_3 and a corresponding increase in observed N2. When we examined the inhibition pattern of CO on N₂ formation, we were surprised to see a competitive-type inhibition pattern (Figure 4 of supplementary material). This result is probably not meaningful because the observed N2 is lowered by CO inhibition of N_3 reduction (to $N_2 + NH_3$) while simultaneously being raised by the more dramatic CO inhibition of the reduction of that N_2 to excess NH_3 . When the reduction of N_3 to N₂ and excess NH₃ is considered, however, the inhibition pattern appears noncompetitive (Figure 5 of supplementary material) as it is for all other nitrogenase substrates.

Dilworth & Thorneley (1981) demonstrated that N_2 was a weak competitive inhibitor of N_2H_4 formation by Kp nitrogenase, a result we have confirmed for Av (data not shown). As shown in Table II, N_2 also inhibits the reduction of N_3





Scheme II



(to $N_2 + NH_3$). If only N_2 formation is considered, a competitive-type inhibition pattern is observed (data not shown) as it was for CO. Unfortunately, excess NH_3 could not be determined in this experiment with added N_2 , and the competitive-type inhibition pattern may not be meaningful for the same reasons given above for CO. As shown in Table II, C_2H_2 inhibits HN_3 reduction (to $N_2H_4 + NH_3$), N_3^- reduction (to $N_2 + NH_3$) and the formation of excess NH_3 . Like CO, C_2H_2 has the most pronounced effect on the production of excess NH_3 .

DISCUSSION

Reduction of HN_3 . In 1981, Dilworth and Thorneley reported a previously unrecognized nitrogenase reaction, the six-electron reduction of azide to give $N_2H_4 + NH_3$. That report included a proposal for the chemical mechanism of azide reduction to $N_2H_4 + NH_3$ which relied on N_3^- as the substrate. This cannot be correct because our data demonstrate that HN_3 is the substrate for that reaction. Schemes I and II shown here are mechanisms that rely on HN_3 as the substrate. The substrate

(unlike N_3^- ; see below) is expected to bind to a metal atom in the enzyme to give species (a) which has the N_2 triple bond closest to the metal atom. Both Schemes I and II involve sequential two-electron reductions of that triple bond. Scheme I involves an inequivalent number of protons and electrons transferred to yield N_2H_4 and a nitride species, which would then be protonated to yield NH_3 . This scheme is similar in some respects to the mechanism proposed by Dilworth & Thorneley (1981) for this reaction and that proposed by the Sussex group [e.g., see Chatt (1980) and Thorneley & Lowe (1982)] for N_2 reduction. Scheme II involves three sequential, two-electron, two-proton reductions and is similar to mechanisms we have proposed for the six-electron reductions of N_2 (Burgess et al., 1981), HCN (Li et al., 1982), and CH_3NC

Scheme III

$$\vdots \overset{\text{N}}{=} \overset{\text{N}}{=} \overset{\text{N}}{:} \overset{\text{N}}{=} \overset{\text{N}}{:} \overset{\text{N}}{=} \overset{\text{N}}{:} \overset{\text{N}}{:} \overset{\text{N}}{=} \overset{\text{N}}{:} \overset{\text{N}}$$

(Rubinson et al., 1983). It also involves coupled protonelectron transfer which has been suggested to occur at all enzymic molybdenum sites, including nitrogenase (Stiefel, 1973).

To the enzyme, the substrate

probably looks quite similar to the physiological substrate :N \equiv N: which might explain the extremely low K_m for HN₃ reduction to $N_2H_4 + NH_3$. Also like N_2 reduction, the sixelectron reduction of HN₃ does not yield any lesser reduced products, which indicates that the intermediates formed remain tightly bound. This is not the case for CH₃NC or HCN reduction both of which yield significant amounts of fourelectron-reduced products (Li et al., 1982; Rubinson et al., 1983). Our attempts to trap a diazene-level intermediate in this reaction were unsuccessful. Pre-steady-state kinetic studies have shown that N₂H₄ appears upon acid quenching the reaction following about three electron transfers (Dilworth & Thorneley, 1981). Although both Schemes I and II do not allow for the appearance of free N₂H₄ prior to six electron transfers, intermediates b, c, e, and f all would be expected to yield N₂H₄ upon acid quenching, thus explaining the presteady-state kinetic data.

As previously demonstrated by Dilworth & Thorneley (1981) for Kp and now confirmed for Av, N_2 appears to be a competitive inhibitor of HN_3 reduction, and thus, the two reactions are likely to occur at the same site. On the other hand, N_2 is a weak inhibitor of HN_3 reduction with a K_i about 5-fold greater than its K_m (Dilworth & Thorneley, 1981). This could be explained if HN_3 and N_2 have different affinities for different redox states of the enzyme. The component protein ratio titration data shown here strongly suggest that, like HCN (Li et al., 1982) and CH_3NC (Rubinson et al., 1983), HN_3 binds to a redox state of the enzyme more oxidized than that reactive toward N_2 reduction or H_2 evolution. This is also consistent with the observations that, like HCN and CH_3NC , but unlike N_2 , HN_3 appears to be a fairly good inhibitor of H_2 evolution (see below).

Reduction of N_3^- . The two-electron reduction of azide to give $N_2 + NH_3$ was the earliest reaction to be recognized (Schöllhorn & Burris, 1967). Our data demonstrate N_3^- to be the substrate for that reaction. Unlike HN_3 , the substrate N_3^- (: $\ddot{N}=N=\ddot{N}$:) is symmetrical and is expected to be polarized on binding to a metal site in the enzyme to yield species g (Scheme III), where the N_2 triple bond is now remote from the metal. Species g could be readily reduced by two electrons and two protons to yield N_2 and a bound amido species (h), which would rapidly be protonated to yield NH_3 . The reduction of N_3^- is the only example of nitrogenase reduction requiring unequal numbers of protons and electrons.

The data presented here strongly support the suggestion (Hardy & Knight, 1967) that some of the N_2 formed (Scheme III) is further reduced by six electrons to give NH_3 (excess NH_3). The evidence includes the observations that (a) both N_2 and excess NH_3 formation depend on $[N_3^-]$ and not $[HN_3]$, (b) the excess NH_3 reaction is strongly inhibited by HN_3 which, in turn, is competitively inhibited by N_2 , (c) inhibition of the excess NH_3 reaction by HN_3 and CO (and possibly N_2 and C_2H_2) causes a corresponding increase in the observed N_2 ,

and most importantly, (d) like N_2 reduction, but unlike any other nitrogenase—substrate reduction, the formation of excess NH_3 is inhibited by D_2 , which gives a corresponding increase in observed N_2 .

Figure 6 shows that the N_2 formed from N_3 reduction, which appears to be further reduced to two NH₃, is not in equilibrium with N_2 in the gas phase as previously suggested (Hardy, 1979). Thus, the N₂ must be formed close enough to the N_2 -reduction site to be rapidly trapped at that site. If N_3 and N_2 both bind to an identical site and if N_3 reduction occurs as shown in Scheme III, then the N₂ formed should be within about 2 Å of the site, when the site is vacated by NH₃ (Hardy, 1979). The data presented here, however, cannot be used to establish definitively whether or not N₃⁻ and HN₃ (or N₂) bind to the same or different sites. Both reactions are inhibited by N_2 and C_2H_2 (although to different extents) which might suggest a common site. On the other hand, N_3 is the only known anionic substrate for nitrogenase, and HN₃ and N₃⁻ do not appear to inhibit the reduction of each other which might suggest different sites exist for the two forms. Previous studies of the effects of azide on cyanide and CH₃NC reduction systems also suggest different sites, an interpretation we currently prefer (Li et al., 1982; Rubinson et al., 1983). If two sites are involved, however, they must be close enough to each other to allow the N₂ formed from N₃⁻ reduction to bind to the N₂-reduction site.

An equally important point is whether or not the N2-reduction site, at the time of N₂ release following N₃-reduction, is in a redox state that would allow N_2 to bind and be reduced. The component protein ratio titration data (Figure 9) show that N_3 reduction to N_2 peaks at a ratio intermediate between HN₃ reduction and H₂ evolution (or excess NH₃). This observation suggests that N₃ is reactive toward a state of the enzyme more reduced than that reactive toward HN₃ reduction. The simplest explanation, which is consistent with all the avilable data, is that N₃ can bind to several different redox states of the enzyme at least one of which is the state reactive toward N₂ reduction. For example, if N₃ were to bind to the resting state of the enzyme (E⁰ in Scheme III), then the enzyme would return to that state following the two-electron reduction to yield $N_2 + NH_3$. If the N_2 could not bind to that state, it would be released to the atmosphere to give the N₂ observed during azide reduction experiments. If, however, N₃ were to bind to a more reduced state of the enzyme [e.g., E⁻³ (Thorneley & Lowe, 1982)], it would also return to that state upon release of $N_2 + NH_3$. In this case, the enzyme would be at the appropriate redox state to bind and subsequently reduce the N₂ formed. The binding of N₃⁻ to that state might occur with concomitant H₂ evolution (see below) as has been suggested for N₂ binding (Thorneley & Lowe, 1982). The important point here is that the N₂-reduction site must already be in the appropriate redox state when N_2 is evolved from N_3 reduction as it is unlikely that the N₂ would remain trapped at the site, while the enzyme goes through additional, slow, catalytic cycles involving Fe protein/MoFe protein dissociation (Thorneley & Lowe, 1983).

Inhibition of H_2 Evolution. In 1969, Hadfield and Bulen, using Av nitrogenase, found that H_2 evolution could not be eliminated during N_2 reduction. This observation was later confirmed by a number of studies, which attempted to eliminate H_2 evolution by extrapolation of N_2 concentration dependence data (Rivera-Ortiz & Burris, 1975) or by direct measurements of the H_2 evolved to N_2 reduced ratio at extremely high (6-50 atm) N_2 concentrations (Bulen, 1976; Simpson & Burris, 1984). Others have presented data showing

that the ratio of H₂ evolved to N₂ reduced varies with Fe protein/MoFe protein ratio [e.g., see Wherland et al. (1981) and Guth & Burris (1983)], the pH (Hageman & Burris, 1980), and the ADP/ATP ratio (Mortenson & Upchurch, 1981). None of these reports, however, demonstrated that H₂ evolution can ever be completely eliminated during N₂ reduction. Thus, it is generally accepted that, during N₂ reduction catalyzed by nitrogenase, some electrons will always be lost to H₂ evolution. For a number of alternative substrates, for example, C₂H₂ (Rivera-Ortiz & Burris, 1975), HCN (Li et al., 1982), and CH₃NC (Rubinson et al., 1983), H₂ evolution can be eliminated completely. Thus, N₂ is sometimes considered to be unique among nitrogenase substrates in its inability to eliminate the H₂-evolution reaction.

Dilworth & Thorneley (1981) demonstrated that, at physiological pH values, azide could not completely eliminate H₂ evolution, with about 75% of the electrons being used to reduce azide and the remainder going to H₂ evolution. They further suggested, however, at high pH (8.2) and infinite concentration of azide, that unlike N2, azide should be able to suppress H₂ evolution completely. That study did not measure the products of azide reduction but rather ΔH_2 and assumed that no inhibition of nitrogenase turnover occurs with increasing azide concentration at pH 8.2. The data in Figure 1 and previous studies (Ljones, 1973) question the validity of that assumption. The data shown in Figure 8 clearly demonstrates that the ability of infinite concentration of azide to compete with H₂ evolution is independent of pH. Our extrapolation of azide concentration dependence data and actual measurements at extremely high (25 mM) azide concentrations demonstrate that H₂ evolution cannot be eliminated by azide with about 35% of the electrons still going to H_2 evolution at Av2/Av1 = 8 (Figure 8) and 25% at Av2/Av1 = 1.5 (Figure 3 of supplementary material). Whatever the reason for this phenomenon, the observation is in dramatic contrast to the situation with the alternative substrates C₂H₂, HCN, and CH_3NC while quite similar to observations for the N_2 -fixation

For the N₂-fixation reaction, Hadfield & Bulen (1969) interpreted their observation as evidence that H₂ evolution was, in some way, an intimate part of the chemical mechanism of N_2 reduction. Expanding on this concept, Newton et al. (1976) suggested that the minimum stoichiometry of the reaction might be one H₂ evolved per N₂ reduced. Rivera-Ortiz & Burris (1975) give values of 0.56-0.9 H₂ evolved per N₂ reduced by extrapolation to infinite N₂, while Simpson & Burris (1984) most recently reported values of 0.99-0.73 at 50 atm of N_2 . Others have reported values of $\sim 1:1$ (Bulen, 1976; Mortenson & Upchurch, 1981). Although published values could be used to argue for or against a minimum 1:1 stoichiometry, some proposed mechanisms for N₂ reduction include an obligatory H₂ evolution step [e.g., see Thorneley & Lowe (1982) and Guth & Burris (1984)]. It is of interest, therefore, to determine the ratio of H₂ evolved to azide reduced for each of the azide reduction pathways.

Table III gives a compilation of the $V_{\rm max}$ values, shown under Results, for the individual reductions of HN₃, N₃-, N₂, and H⁺ during azide-reduction experiments and the theoretical numbers of molecules of substrate reduced that those $V_{\rm max}$ values represent. This information was used to construct Table IV, which gives the ratio of H₂ evolved per azide reduced for the various azide-reduction reactions. It should be noted that, if the chemical mechanism of any pathway of azide reduction requires H₂ (as has been suggested for N₂ reduction; Newton et al., 1976; Thorneley & Lowe, 1982), then a stoichiometry

Table III: V_{max} Values and Theoretical Numbers of Molecules of Substrate Reduced That Those V_{max}	V Values Represent
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reaction no.	reaction ^c	$V_{\text{max}} (\% \text{ e}),$ $Av2/Av1 = 8$	molecules ^a reduced, $Av2/Av1 = 8$	$V_{\text{max}} \ (\% \ e),$ Av2/Av1 = 1.5	molecule ^a reduced, $Av2/Av1 = 1.5$
1	HN3 6 N2H4 + NH3	25	8.3	40	13.3
2	$N_3^- \xrightarrow{2} NH_3 + N_2 \xrightarrow{6} 2NH_3$	40		35	
3	$N_3 - \frac{2}{N_2} + NH_3$	20	26.76 ^b	20	25 ^b
4	N3 8 3NH3	20		15	
5	N ₂ 6 2NH ₃		4.56^{b}		3.3^{b}
6	2H ⁺	35	35	25	25

^aAssumes total electron pairs = 100. ^bAssumes all excess NH₃ (4) arises from reaction 2; thus, one-third of excess NH₃ must be added to reaction 3 with the remaining two-thirds going to reaction 5. ^cNumbers on arrows indicate number of electrons.

Table IV: Ratio of H₂ Evolved per Azide Reduced for the Various Azide-Reduction Reactions

azide reactions ^a considered	H_2 /azide reduced, Av2/Av1 = 8	$H_2/azide$ reduced, Av2/Av1 = 1.5
reactions 1 + 3 + 5	0.89	0.60
reactions 1 + 3	1.00	0.65
reactions 3 + 5	1.12	0.88
reaction 3	1.31	1.00

significantly less than 1:1 should never be obtained regardless of reaction conditions (e.g., Av2/Av1 ratio). Thus, H₂ evolution cannot be a part of the chemical mechanism for all azide-reduction reactions, where a ratio of 0.6 is obtained at Av2/Av1 = 1.5 (Table IV). Likewise, H₂ evolution cannot be part of the chemical mechanism of both HN₃ reduction to N_2H_4 and N_3 reduction to N_2 , where a ratio of 0.65 is obtained. As the Av2/Av1 ratio is lowered, the V_{max} for N_2H_4 formation increases from 25% to 40% and the $V_{\rm max}$ for the remaining H₂ evolution decreases from 35% to 25%. These observations indicate that of all azide reactions the six-electron reduction of HN₃ to N₂H₄ + NH₃ is least likely to require H₂ evolution as an intimate part of its chemical mechanism. The data in Table IV could be used to argue that the twoelectron reduction of N_3^- to $N_2 + NH_3$ does require H_2 , where a 1:1 stoichiometry is observed at Av2/Av1 = 1.5. There are not enough molecules of that N2 further reduced to give excess NH₃ to suggest whether or not H₂ evolution might be required. It should be noted that, if we only had the Av2/Av1 = 8 data available, the interpretation would have been different (Table IV) and that further variation in reaction conditions for either N_3 or N_2 might yield ratios significantly less than 1:1. It can be stated definitively, however, that unlike the alternative substrates C₂H₂, HCN, and CH₃NC but like the physiological substrate N_2 , N_3 is not a very effective inhibitor of H_2 evolution.

Similar careful examination of other substrates may well yield results that will further clarify the complexities of azide reduction. In addition, it is hoped that biophysical techniques may soon provide some direct evidence concerning the sites and states of interaction of HN₃, N₃⁻, and other substrates and inhibitors on nitrogenase or the types of intermediates formed during HN₃ reduction.

Conclusions

In summary, our studies have shown the following: (1) HN_3 is an extremely "good" substrate for nitrogenase ($K_m = 12 \,\mu\text{M}$ at Av2/Av1 = 8) which is reduced by six electrons to give $N_2H_4 + NH_3$; (2) HN_3 reduction does not yield any lesser reduced products; (3) HN_3 appears to bind to and be reduced by a redox state of the enzyme more oxidized than that reactive

toward N₂ reduction or H₂ evolution; (4) HN₃ is an effective inhibitor of H₂ evolution; (5) N₂ is a weak competitive inhibitor and CO is a noncompetitive inhibitor of HN₃ reduction by Av nitrogenase, and C_2H_2 inhibits HN_3 reduction, while N_3 and D_2 do not inhibit HN₃ reduction; (6) N_3 is the substrate (the only known anionic substrate) reduced by two electrons to yield $N_2 + NH_3$ (the only known nitrogenase reaction which requires an inequivalent number of protons and electrons); (7) N_3^- is not an effective inhibitor of H_2 evolution and may bind to and be reduced by a number of different redox states of the enzyme; (8) N_3^- reduction is inhibited by CO, N_2 , and C_2H_2 but not by HN₃ or D₂ both of which cause an increase in the amount of N₂ observed; (9) the N₂ formed from N₃ reduction appears to be further reduced to give excess NH₃; (10) the N₂ formed, which is further reduced, is *not* in equilibrium with N₂ in the gas phase and thus must be produced in close proximity to the N_2 -reduction site; (11) the formation of excess NH_3 is strongly inhibited by CO, C_2H_2 , HN_3 and D_2 ; (12) previous reports of high concentrations of azide inhibiting total NH₃ formation (substrate self-inhibition) are due to HN₃ inhibition of excess NH₃ formation.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We are pleased to acknowledge the talents of Deloria Jacobs and Dorothy Lyons in cell growth and protein purification. We also thank Dr. William E. Newton for helpful discussions concerning possible chemical mechanisms of HN_3 and N_3 -reduction.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL AVAILABLE

Ten tables showing all results in terms of number of replicates, means, and standard deviations and five figures (16 pages). Ordering information is given on any current masthead page.

Registry No. HN₃, 7782-79-8; azide, 14343-69-2; nitrogenase, 9013-04-1.

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