



An alternative path for the evolution of biological nitrogen fixation

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Nitrogenase catalyzed nitrogen fixation is the process by which life converts dinitrogen gas into fixed nitrogen in the form of bioavailable ammonia. The most common form of nitrogenase today requires a complex metal cluster containing molybdenum (Mo), although alternative forms exist which contain vanadium (V) or only iron (Fe). It has been suggested that Mo-independent forms of nitrogenase (V and Fe) were responsible for N₂ fixation on early Earth because oceans were Mo-depleted and Fe-rich. Phylogenetic- and structure-based examinations of multiple nitrogenase proteins suggest that such an evolutionary path is unlikely. Rather, our results indicate an evolutionary path whereby Mo-dependent nitrogenase emerged within the methanogenic archaea and then gave rise to the alternative forms suggesting that they arose later, perhaps in response to local Mo limitation. Structural inferences of nitrogenase proteins and related paralogs suggest that the ancestor of all nitrogenases had an open cavity capable of binding metal clusters which conferred reactivity. The evolution of the nitrogenase ancestor and its associated bound metal cluster was controlled by the availability of fixed nitrogen in combination with local environmental factors that influenced metal availability until a point in Earth's geologic history where the most desirable metal, Mo, became sufficiently bioavailable to bring about and refine the solution (Mo-nitrogenase) we see perpetuated in extant biology.

Keywords: nitrogenase, metalloenzyme, evolution, great oxidation event, oxygen molybdenum, vanadium, iron, sulfide

INTRODUCTION

Biological nitrogen fixation, the reduction of dinitrogen (N₂) to ammonia, accounts for roughly two-thirds of the fixed nitrogen (N) produced on Earth today (Rubio and Ludden, 2008). The emergence of biological N₂ fixation therefore enabled life to access the vast reserves of N present as N₂ gas in our atmosphere (Rees, 1993), a feature that would have profoundly impacted the history of life on earth and the biogeochemical cycles that it modulates (Falkowski et al., 2008; Canfield et al., 2010). Today, biological N₂ fixation is catalyzed by at least three genetically distinct but evolutionarily related nitrogenases. The majority of present-day biological nitrogen fixation is catalyzed by the molybdenum-nitrogenase (encoded by *nifHDK*), an oxygen-sensitive, metalloenzyme complex composed of the Fe protein (product of *nifH*) and the MoFe heterotetramer (products of *nifDK*; Rubio and Ludden, 2008). The Fe protein is a homodimer bridged by an intersubunit [4Fe-4S] cluster that serves as the obligate electron donor to the MoFe protein (Georgiadis et al., 1992). The MoFe protein is a $\alpha_2\beta_2$ heterotetramer that houses the P-cluster, an [8Fe-7S] cluster that shuttles electrons to the FeMo-cofactor, a [Mo-7Fe-9S-homocitrate] cluster that provides the substrate reduction site (Kim and Rees, 1992). Two "alternative" forms of nitrogenase have also been identified in the genomes of organisms that encode for Nif (Joerger and Bishop, 1988; Raymond et al., 2004; Soboh et al., 2010; Boyd et al., 2011). The nitrogenase encoded by the *vnfHDK* genes is believed to contain vanadium in place of molybdenum in the active site cofactor, whereas the nitrogenase encoded by the *anfHDK* genes appears

to contain only Fe as the metal constituent of its active site cofactor (Hales et al., 1986; Chisnell et al., 1988). When fixed nitrogen is limiting, the expression and activity of the alternative forms is regulated by the availability of Mo or V (Joerger and Bishop, 1988; Kessler et al., 1997; Hamilton et al., 2011).

Chemical stratigraphic measurements indicate that ancient oceans were limited in soluble Mo prior to the rise of oxygen ~2.5 Ga (Anbar et al., 2007) due to the insolubility of Mo-sulfides under anoxic conditions (Helz et al., 1996). This prompted the proposal that Anf and Vnf represent primitive forms of nitrogenase that predate Nif (Anbar and Knoll, 2002; Raymond et al., 2004). Past phylogenetic analyses of the nitrogenase structural gene products have failed to provide convincing evidence for the trajectory of specific metal incorporation into the active site cofactor of nitrogenase during its evolution (Raymond et al., 2004; Soboh et al., 2010; Boyd et al., 2011). Here, we examine concatenations of protein homologs of the structural components shared between all known nitrogenases (H, D, and K; Raymond et al., 2004; Mehta and Baross, 2006; Dekas et al., 2009; Boyd et al., 2011). The results of our phylogenetic- and structure-based examination indicate an evolutionary path whereby Mo-dependent nitrogenase gave rise to the alternative forms suggesting that they arose later, perhaps in response to local Mo limitation. These results, when coupled with considerations of the physiology and the biochemistry of nitrogen fixation, lead to a new model for the stepwise evolution of nitrogenase and other related complex metalloproteins.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

PHYLOGENETIC ANALYSIS

Representative homologs of Anf/Vnf/NifHDK and uncharacterized HDK (Table A1 in Appendix) were compiled as previously described (Soboh et al., 2010; Boyd et al., 2011). Individual H, D, and K homologs were aligned using CLUSTALX (version 2.0.8) specifying the Gonnet 250 protein substitution matrix and default gap extension and opening penalties (Larkin et al., 2007) as previously described (Boyd et al., 2011) with ChlLNB/BchLNB from *Anabaena variabilis* ATCC 29413 and *Chlorobium limicola* DSM 245 serving as outgroups. The individual alignment blocks were concatenated, subjected to evolutionary model prediction, and the phylogeny of each concatenated protein sequence evaluated using MrBayes (version 3.1.2; Huelsenbeck and Ronquist, 2001) and PhyML (version 3.0; Guindon and Gascuel, 2003) employing the WAG + I + G evolutionary model (Appendix) as identified by ProtTest (version 2.0; Abascal et al., 2005). In phylogenetic reconstructions using MrBayes, tree topologies were sampled every 500 generations over 450,000 generations (after a burnin of 50,000) at likelihood stationarity and after convergence of two separate Markov chain Monte Carlo runs (average SD of split frequencies <0.05). A consensus phylogenetic tree was projected from 1,800 trees using FigTree¹ (version 1.2.2). One hundred bootstrap replicates were performed in phylogenetic reconstructions using PhyML. Matrices describing the Rao phylogenetic dissimilarity of concatenated HDK homologs, inferred using both MrBayes and PhyML, were generated using Phylocom (version 4.0.1; Webb et al., 2008).

STRUCTURAL ANALYSES

The structures of the representative H, D, and K homologs selected for phylogenetic analysis were inferred using the CPH homology server for protein homology modeling (Nielsen et al., 2010) using the NifH (Georgiadis et al., 1992), NifD (Peters et al., 1997; Chiu et al., 2001; Mayer et al., 2002), and NifK (Peters et al., 1997; Chiu et al., 2001; Mayer et al., 2002) crystal structures from *Azotobacter vinelandii* AvOP. The inferred structures for each H, D, and K homolog were imported into PyMol² (version 1.4). The root-mean-square-deviations (RMSD) in the C^αi positions were calculated for each individual inferred H, D, and K homolog structure in relation to the other inferred H, D, or K homolog structures resulting in a pairwise matrix describing the structural RMSD (e.g., structural dissimilarity) for H, D, and K homologs. RMSDs generated for H, D, and K homologs, were normalized to compensate for differing HDK protein lengths, and the normalized H, D, and K matrices were then averaged to produce an HDK RMSD matrix for use in statistical analyses. PyMol was also used to generate images of sequence conservation in the active site cavity of Anf/Vnf/NifDK homologs.

STATISTICAL ANALYSES

Mantel regressions of dissimilarity matrices were performed using XL Stat (version 2009.5.01). Ten thousand permutations employing two-tailed *t*-tests were used to determine the strength and

significance of the relationships between dissimilarity matrices, respectively.

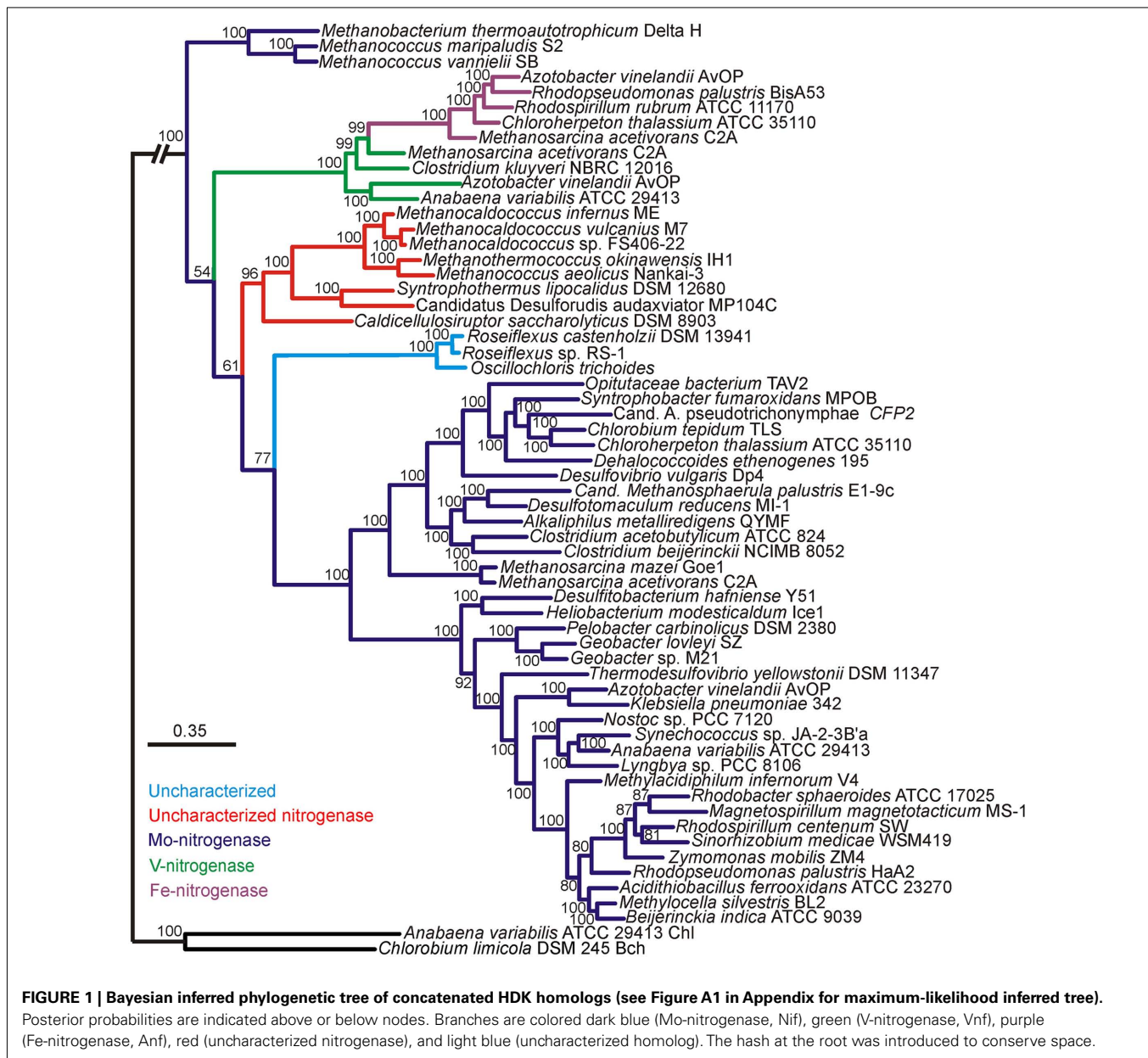
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Bayesian and maximum-likelihood phylogenetic analyses of concatenated protein homologs of the required structural components (H, D, and K) encoded by characterized and putative *anf*, *vnf*, and *nif* regulons (Raymond et al., 2004; Mehta and Baross, 2006; Dekas et al., 2009; Boyd et al., 2011) yielded congruent topologies (Figure A1 in Appendix) with well-supported lineages that correspond to the nitrogenase active site metal content (Figures 1 and A2 in Appendix). *nif*-Encoded HDK protein homologs formed two distinct lineages, one of which was comprised of proteins derived solely from hydrogenotrophic methanogens that branched at the base of the tree. The second Nif lineage was comprised of more recently evolved NifHDK homologs from both bacterial and methanogen genomes. These findings are consistent with the results of a recent phylogenetic analysis which indicate that Nif emerged within the hydrogenotrophic methanogen lineage ~2.2 Ga (Boyd et al., 2011), at a time when Mo concentrations in oceans are thought to have begun to increase (Anbar et al., 2007).

Nested within the two Nif sublineages is a monophyletic lineage comprised of Vnf and Anf nitrogenase, indicating that Vnf and Anf are derived from Nif. It is likely that the ancestor of the Anf/Vnf lineage resulted from gene duplication within the hydrogenotrophic methanogen lineage and was not singly laterally transferred, a finding that is consistent with the observation that *anf* and *vnf* have yet to be identified in a genome that does not also encode for *nif* (Raymond et al., 2004; Boyd et al., 2011). VnfHDK homologs nest AnfHDK homologs with strong statistical support, providing evidence that Anf is derived from Vnf, both of which are derived from Nif. The latter conclusion appears to be supported by the results of a recent transcriptomic profiling of *A. vinelandii*, which indicated that a number of *nif*-encoded genes are up-regulated under conditions favoring the expression of Vnf and Anf (Hamilton et al., 2011). The observation that VnfHDK and AnfHDK from *Methanosarcinales* branch closely, coupled with the fact that these operons are located proximal in the genomes of these organisms, may suggest that *anf* is the result of a recent duplication of the *vnf* operon within the *Methanosarcinales* lineage. The acquisition of *vnf* within the *Methanosarcinales* lineage may have been the result of a lateral gene transfer (LGT) event with a firmicute, a finding that is consistent with the close spatial proximity noted between members of the *Methanosarcinales* and *Firmicutes* in a variety of anoxic environments (Stams, 1994) and with previous reports of LGT of individual genes and metabolic pathways between these two anaerobic lineages (Beiko et al., 2005; Fournier and Gogarten, 2008; Boyd et al., 2011). Importantly, evidence presented here and elsewhere (Raymond et al., 2004; Boyd et al., 2011) indicates that *nif* may have been acquired in the *Methanosarcinales* via LGT; however, it is unclear based on this dataset if that event predates the acquisition of *vnf* in this lineage and the subsequent duplication of *vnf* that resulted in *anf*. Nevertheless, considering that the biosynthesis of Anf and Vnf examined to date require *nif*-encoded gene products (Joerger et al., 1986; Kennedy and Dean, 1992; Hamilton et al., 2011), the acquisition of *vnf* and the duplication of *vnf* that led to *anf* are most likely to postdate the acquisition of *nif* within

¹<http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/UH>

²<http://www.pymol.org/>



this lineage. Collectively, the evidence suggests that both Nif and Anf evolved in the methanogenic archaea, a guild of organisms which typically inhabit anoxic environments where Mo is in limited supply (Helz et al., 1996). Together with the fact that the expression of Anf and Vnf is tightly regulated by the availability of Mo and V (Joerger and Bishop, 1988; Hamilton et al., 2011), this set of observations suggests that the transient fluctuations in metal availability in anoxic environments may have been the impetus to incorporate new metals into the active site cluster of nitrogenase.

We also examined the evolutionary history of HDK homologs from the genomes of organisms that have been shown to fix N₂ (Mehta and Baross, 2006; Dekas et al., 2009), but for which detailed biochemical analysis of the active site cofactor has yet to be performed (denoted as “uncharacterized nitrogenase” in Figures 1 and A2 in Appendix). These proteins formed a monophyletic

lineage that branched after Nif derived from hydrogenotrophic methanogens and the Anf/Vnf lineages (Figure 1) indicating they emerged after Nif and Vnf, and possibly Anf. The “uncharacterized nitrogenase” lineage is comprised of proteins derived from strictly anaerobic taxa within the *Firmicutes*, as well as the methanogenic and methanotrophic archaea (Figure 1). A separate lineage comprised of uncharacterized HDK homologs that have only been identified in the genomes of filamentous anoxygenic phototrophic bacteria, branches after Nif, Vnf, and the uncharacterized nitrogenases indicating that they are the most recently evolved lineage of putative nitrogenase. A physiological or biochemical role for these proteins has yet to be conclusively demonstrated.

We inferred the protein structures of HDK homologs from *anf*, *vnf*, *nif*, and uncharacterized operons using homology modeling based on the structures of NifHDK from *A. vinelandii*

(Georgiadis et al., 1992; Kim and Rees, 1992). Pairwise comparisons of the inferred protein structures enabled the generation of a matrix that describes their structural dissimilarity. A regression of this matrix and a matrix describing the phylogenetic dissimilarity of the concatenated HDK proteins revealed a significant and positive relationship (Mantel $R^2 = 0.23$, $p < 0.01$; **Figure A3** in Appendix). This indicates that the structure of nitrogenase has evolved significantly through time. Conserved residues that line the active site pocket in Anf/Vnf/NifD inferred through homology modeling (**Figure A4** in Appendix) suggest that once the active site cavity evolved, the majority of the residues in the cavity and the cluster-coordinating ligands were maintained despite differences in the metal composition of the cofactor (**Figure A5** in Appendix).

We examined phylogenetic and structural relationships among proteins that are evolutionarily related to nitrogenase, including those required to biosynthesize bacteriochlorophyll (BchN; Hearst et al., 1985; Burke et al., 1993) and those that have been proposed to catalyze an analogous reaction in Ni porphyrin F₄₃₀ biosynthesis (NifD; Staples et al., 2007). Phylogenetic reconstruction of Anf/Vnf/NifD, BchN, and NifD revealed three lineages, with NifD proteins forming a lineage that bisects a lineage comprising Anf/Vnf/NifD and a lineage comprising ChlN/BchN (**Figure 2**). These findings are consistent with a previous phylogenetic analysis of concatenated Anf/Vnf/NifHD, BchLN, and NifHD proteins (Raymond et al., 2004), which together suggest that Nif is ancestral to Anf/Vnf/Nif and Bch (Staples et al., 2007). Intriguingly, NifD proteins share little sequence conservation with the active site cavity of Anf/Vnf/NifD and BchN. Likewise, the cofactor coordinating ligands in Anf/Vnf/NifD are not conserved in BchN sequences, although the crystal structure of BchN reveals an open cavity for the binding of protochlorophyllide instead of the bound cofactor observed in nitrogenase (Muraki et al., 2010). Homology modeling of NifD from *Methanocaldococcus jannaschii* DSM 2661 threaded on the structure of BchN (Muraki et al., 2010) revealed an open cavity that is similar to that of BchN that may serve as the substrate binding site. Thus, the two derived states (Anf/Vnf/NifD and BchN) have maintained similar structural architecture to that of the inferred ancestral state (e.g., NifD) but appear to have fine-tuned cavity residues to bind target substrates as the paralogs diversified. This leads to a model for the emergence of nitrogenase (**Figure 3**) whereby a gene encoding for an ancestral protein complex with a cavity similar to that observed in the inferred structure of NifD duplicated, leading to the evolutionary precursor of BchN and Anf/Vnf/NifD. Serendipitously, metals (e.g., Fe) or metal clusters (e.g., 4Fe-4S) were bound in the cavity of the ancestor in a non-specific manner, resulting in an enzyme complex with altered reactivity, perhaps toward N₂ reduction. In response to selective pressure of limited fixed nitrogen on early Earth, genes and associated gene products were presumably recruited to improve the enzyme stepwise through the modification of the metal cofactor (Rubio and Ludden, 2008; Hu and Ribbe, 2011). In parallel, the active site was refined to yield a cavity that binds the active site cofactor FeMo-co thereby fine-tuning the structural determinants for nitrogenase catalysis. In this mechanism, it is not inconceivable that the size and dimension of the nitrogenase cofactor were constrained somewhat by the structure of the ancestor. This might be supported by the observation that the end-to-end dimensions

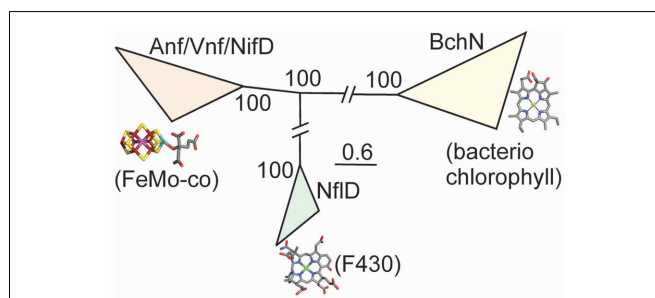


FIGURE 2 | Bayesian inferred phylogenetic reconstruction of Anf/Vnf/NifD, BchN, and NifD proteins. The putative substrates and cofactors for each protein lineage are indicated below each respective clade. Posterior probabilities for each collapsed node are indicated. Nodes have been collapsed and hashes introduced to conserve space.

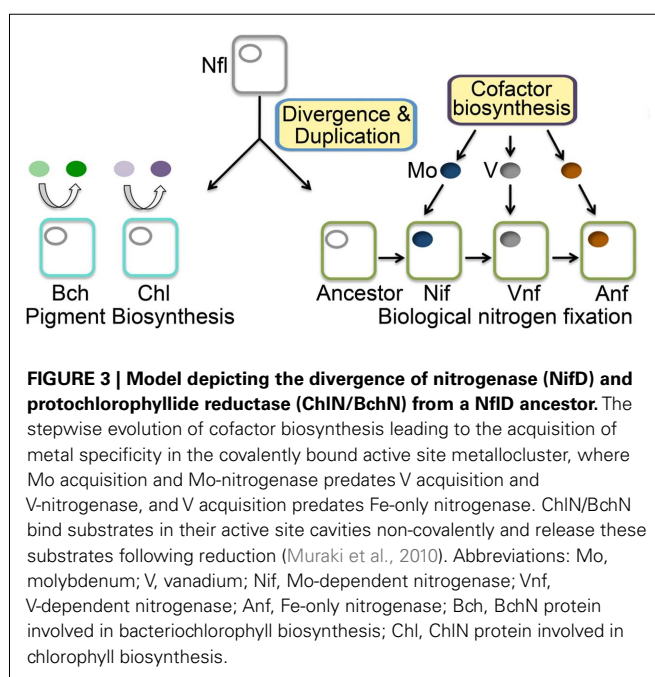


FIGURE 3 | Model depicting the divergence of nitrogenase (NifD) and protochlorophyllide reductase (ChlN/BchN) from a NifD ancestor. The stepwise evolution of cofactor biosynthesis leading to the acquisition of metal specificity in the covalently bound active site metallocluster, where Mo acquisition and Mo-nitrogenase predates V acquisition and V-nitrogenase, and V acquisition predates Fe-only nitrogenase. ChlN/BchN bind substrates in their active site cavities non-covalently and release these substrates following reduction (Muraki et al., 2010). Abbreviations: Mo, molybdenum; V, vanadium; Nif, Mo-dependent nitrogenase; Vnf, V-dependent nitrogenase; Anf, Fe-only nitrogenase; Bch, BchN protein involved in bacteriochlorophyll biosynthesis; Chl, ChlN protein involved in chlorophyll biosynthesis.

of the FeMo-cofactor of Mo-nitrogenase are not that different from those of bacteriochlorophyll or F₄₃₀. Given that the as isolated FeMo-cofactor is not reactive toward N₂ on its own, the aforementioned stepwise evolution of nitrogenase may be the only mechanism by which the biochemical pathway for cofactor biosynthesis could have evolved in response to the selective pressure of fixed nitrogen limitation.

In summary, the Mo-nitrogenase we see today in extant biology is not likely to be the first nitrogenase associated with early life on Earth, a finding that is in line with the dogma supported by geochemistry (Anbar and Knoll, 2002; Anbar, 2008). However, in contrast with what has been proposed previously (Anbar and Knoll, 2002; Raymond et al., 2004; Anbar, 2008), the results indicate that alternative nitrogenases (V- and Fe-only forms) are not ancestors of the Mo-nitrogenase but rather are derived from Mo-nitrogenase. The common ancestor of Nif/Vnf/Anf, Bch/Chl,

and Nif had a cavity capable of binding certain porphyrins and/or metal cluster fragments. The nature of the ancestral nitrogenase enzyme and its associated bound metal cluster was likely controlled by the selective pressure imposed by fixed nitrogen limitation in combination with local environmental metal availability until a point in Earth history (e.g., the “Great Oxidation Event”) when Mo became sufficiently bioavailable (Anbar and Knoll, 2002; Anbar, 2008) and the most favorable solution for biological nitrogen fixation (Mo-nitrogenase) emerged that is reflective of today’s extant enzyme. These results reveal a new paradigm for the evolution of biological nitrogen fixation and provide key insights into the manner in which early life forms might have exploited the reactivity of their mineral environment prior to evolving the refined complex metalloenzymes observed today.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Eric S. Boyd designed the study and performed phylogenetic and statistical analyses. Trinity L. Hamilton generated the inferred protein structures. John W. Peters supervised the work. All authors contributed to the writing of the manuscript.

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APPENDIX

METHODS

Phylogenetic Analyses

Representative homologs of Anf/Vnf/NifHDK (Table A1), as well as representative homologs of uncharacterized HDK, were compiled as previously described (Soboh et al., 2010; Boyd et al., 2011) and were aligned as previously described (Boyd et al., 2011). The H, D, and K alignment blocks were concatenated and the alignment block was subjected to evolutionary model prediction using ProtTest (version 2.0; Abascal et al., 2005). ProtTest identified the Whelan and Goldman (WAG) evolutionary model with gamma distributed rate variation with a proportion of invariable sites (I + G) as the best fit model for the data. In phylogenetic reconstructions using MrBayes, tree topologies were sampled every 500 generations over 450,000 generations (after a burnin of 50,000) at likelihood stationarity and after convergence of two separate Markov chain Monte Carlo runs (average SD of split frequencies <0.05). A consensus phylogenetic tree was projected from 1800 trees using FigTree (version 1.2.2; <http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/UH>). One hundred bootstrap replicates were performed in phylogenetic reconstructions using PhyML.

RESULTS

The protein structures of HDK homologs from *anf*, *vnf*, *nif*, and uncharacterized operons were inferred using homology modeling based on the NifHDK from *A. vinelandii*. Pairwise comparisons of the inferred protein structures enabled the generation of a matrix that describes their structural dissimilarity. A regression of this matrix and a matrix describing the phylogenetic dissimilarity of the concatenated HDK proteins revealed a significant and positive relationship (Mantel $R^2 = 0.23$, $p < 0.01$). This indicates that the structure of nitrogenase has evolved significantly through time. However, the slope of the linear regression indicated that a ~ 2 unit increase in phylogenetic dissimilarity resulted in only a ~ 1 unit increase in structural dissimilarity, suggesting that deviation in inferred tertiary structure is constrained to a greater extent than that observed in the primary sequence. Therefore, we examined the conservation of residues that line the active site pocket in Anf/Vnf/NifD to determine if the active site cavity has evolved to accommodate the varying cluster compositions associated with Anf, Vnf, Nif, and to potentially uncover evidence that could provide insight into the composition of the active site cofactor in uncharacterized nitrogenase homologs. This analysis revealed a number of residues that line the active site cavity that are conserved among Anf, Vnf, Nif, and uncharacterized nitrogenase including the two covalent ligands to the FeFe-, FeV-, and FeMo-cofactors Cys-275 and His-442 (numbered according to *A. vinelandii* NifD). In addition to ligands, a number of other residues in the binding cavity are conserved, including Val-70, Gln-191, His-195, and Phe-391. Together, these results suggest that once the active site cavity was evolved, it was maintained despite differences in the metal composition of the cofactor.

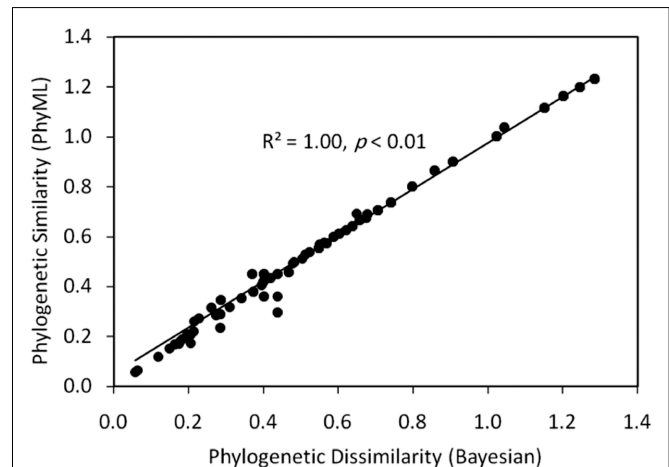


FIGURE A1 | Plot of a Mantel regression of a matrix describing the Rao phylogenetic dissimilarity of concatenated HDK homologs inferred by PhyML as a function of the Rao phylogenetic dissimilarity of concatenated HDK homologs inferred by MrBayes. The strong positively trending correlation suggests that the topologies of the two trees are congruent.

We next compared the conservation in these residues with NifD, a nitrogenase homolog that has been hypothesized to be involved in F_{430} biosynthesis (Staples et al., 2007), and BchN, a homolog involved in bacteriochlorophyll biosynthesis (Muraki et al., 2010). A previous phylogenetic reconstruction of Anf/Vnf/NifHD, BchLN, and NifHD revealed three lineages, with NifHD proteins forming a lineage that bisected the a lineage comprising Anf/Vnf/NifHD and a lineage comprising BchLN (Raymond et al., 2004), suggesting that that NifHD is ancestral to Anf/Vnf/NifHD and BchLB (Staples et al., 2007). Intriguingly, the active site cavity of NifD proteins shared little sequence conservation with that of Anf/Vnf/NifHD and BchLN. Likewise, the FeMo-co ligands in Anf/Vnf/NifD are not conserved in BchN sequences, although the crystal structure of BchNB reveals an open cavity for the binding of protochlorophyllide that is in the same position as to where FeMo-co is bound in nitrogenase. Thus, the two derived states (Anf/Vnf/NifD and BchN) have maintained similar structural architecture, but appear to have fine-tuned cavity residues to bind target substrates. To examine whether the open cavity architecture was a structural property of the ancestor of Anf/Vnf/NifD and BchN, we generated homology models of NifD from *Methanocaldococcus jannaschii* DSM 2661 (Accession no. NP_248427) threaded on *A. vinelandii* NifD and BchN from *Rhodobacter capsulatus* SB 1003 (Accession no. YP_003576837). The inferred structures reveal a cavity in NifD that is similar to that of BchN, the size of which would be capable of binding F_{430} . These analyses suggest that nitrogenase evolved from an ancestral protein that exhibited an open cavity and adapted that cavity to covalently ligate the FeMo-co necessary for N_2 reduction.

Table A1 | Accession numbers of representative sequences used in the present study.

ANF/VNF/NIF/UNCHARACTERIZED NITROGENASE HDK HOMOLOGS			
Taxon	NifH homologs	NifD homologs	NifK homologs
<i>Acidithiobacillus ferrooxidans</i> ATCC 23270	YP_002219685	YP_002219684	YP_002219683
<i>Alkaliphilus metalliredigens</i> QYMF	YP_001321310	YP_001321307	YP_001321306
<i>Anabaena variabilis</i> ATCC 29413 vnf	YP_324416	YP_324526	YP_324527
<i>Anabaena variabilis</i> ATCC 29413 nif	YP_324741	YP_324742	YP_324743
<i>Azotobacter vinelandii</i> AvOP nif	YP_002797378	YP_002797379	YP_002797380
<i>Azotobacter vinelandii</i> AvOP anf	YP_002801975	YP_002801974	YP_002801972
<i>Azotobacter vinelandii</i> AvOP vnf	YP_002797502	YP_002797497	YP_002797495
<i>Beijerinckia indica</i> subsp. <i>indica</i> ATCC 9039	YP_001831615	YP_001831616	YP_001831617
<i>Caldicellulosiruptor saccharolyticus</i> DSM 8903	YP_001181234	YP_001181231	YP_001181230
<i>Candidatus Azobacteroides pseudotrichonymphae</i> CFP2	YP_002309219	YP_002309222	YP_002309223
<i>Candidatus Desulfurudis audaxviator</i> MP104C	YP_001716343	YP_001716346	YP_001716347
<i>Candidatus Methanosphaerula palustris</i> E1-9c	YP_002465657	YP_002465654	YP_002465653
<i>Chlorobium tepidum</i> TLS000	NP_662417	NP_662420	NP_662421
<i>Chloroherpeton thalassium</i> ATCC 35110	YP_001996732	YP_001996735	YP_001996737
<i>Chloroherpeton thalassium</i> ATCC 35110	YP_001995946	YP_001995943	YP_001995942
<i>Clostridium acetobutylicum</i> ATCC 824	NP_346894	NP_346897	NP_346898
<i>Clostridium beijerinckii</i> NCIMB 8052	ABR34169	ABR34172	ABR34173
<i>Clostridium kluyveri</i> NBRC 12016	YP_001395138	YP_001395137	YP_001395135
<i>Dehalococcoides ethenogenes</i> 195	YP_181872	YP_181869	YP_181868
<i>Desulfitobacterium hafniense</i> Y51	YP_520504	YP_520503	YP_520502
<i>Desulfotomaculum reducens</i> MI-1	YP_001114150	YP_001114147	YP_001114146
<i>Desulfovibrio vulgaris</i> subsp. <i>vulgaris</i> DP4	YP_009055	YP_961292	YP_009051
<i>Geobacter lovleyi</i> SZ	YP_001950896	YP_001950895	YP_001950894
<i>Geobacter</i> sp. M21	YP_003021955	YP_003021954	YP_003021953
<i>Heliobacterium modesticaldum</i> Ice1	YP_001679706	YP_001679707	YP_001679708
<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i> 342	YP_002237565	YP_002237564	YP_002237563
<i>Lyngbya</i> sp. PCC 8106	ZP_01620768	ZP_01620767	ZP_01620766
<i>Magnetospirillum magnetotacticum</i> MS-1	YP_420937	ZP_00054386	ZP_00054385
<i>Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum</i> str. Delta H	NP_276673	NP_276676	NP_276677
<i>Methanococcus aeolicus</i> Nankai-3	YP_001325622	YP_001325619	YP_001325618
<i>Methanococcus maripaludis</i> strain S2	NP_987973	NP_987976	NP_987977
<i>Methanococcus vannielii</i> SB	YP_001322591	YP_001322588	YP_001322587
<i>Methanosarcina acetivorans</i> str. C2A	NP_618766	NP_618769	NP_618770
<i>Methanosarcina acetivorans</i> str. C2A	NP_616152	NP_616155	NP_616157
<i>Methanosarcina acetivorans</i> str. C2A	NP_616144	NP_616149	NP_616147
<i>Methylacidiphilum infernorum</i> V4	YP_001940528	YP_001940526	YP_001940525
<i>Methylocella silvestris</i> BL2	YP_002363879	YP_002363878	YP_002363877
<i>Nostoc</i> sp. PCC 7120	NP_485497	NP_485484	NP_485483
<i>Opiritaceae bacterium</i> TAV2	ZP_03723745	ZP_03723746	ZP_03723747
<i>Pelobacter carbinolicus</i> DSM 2380	YP_357508	YP_357509	YP_357510
<i>Rhodobacter sphaeroides</i> ATCC 17025	YP_001167452	YP_001167453	YP_001167454
<i>Rhodopseudomonas palustris</i> BisA53	YP_782790	YP_782789	YP_782787
<i>Rhodopseudomonas palustris</i> HaA2	YP_484590	YP_484591	YP_484592
<i>Rhodospirillum centenum</i> SW	YP_002299844	YP_484591	YP_002299842
<i>Rhodospirillum rubrum</i> ATCC 11170	YP_426483	YP_426482	YP_426480
<i>Roseiflexus castenholzii</i> DSM 13941	YP_001434094	YP_001434092	YP_001434091
<i>Roseiflexus</i> sp. RS-1	YP_001275558	YP_001275556	YP_001275555
<i>Sinorhizobium medicae</i> WSM419	YP_001314762	YP_001314761	YP_001314760
<i>Synechococcus</i> sp. JA-2-3B'a	YP_475238	YP_476681	YP_476682
<i>Syntrophobacter fumaroxidans</i> MPOB	YP_845148	YP_845145	YP_845144
<i>Thermodesulfobacterium yellowstonii</i> DSM 11347	YP_002249508	YP_002249507	YP_002249506

(Continued)

Table A1 | Continued

<i>Zymomonas mobilis</i> subsp. <i>mobilis</i> ZM4	ZP_04760608	YP_163559	YP_163560
<i>Methanocaldococcus infernus</i> ME	YP_003615677	YP_003615674	YP_003615673
<i>Syntrophothermus lipocalidus</i> DSM 12680	YP_003703438	YP_003703435	YP_003703434
<i>Methanocaldococcus vulcanius</i> M7	YP_003247421	YP_003247424	YP_003247425
<i>Methanosarcina mazei</i> strain Goe1	NP_632743	NP_632746	NP_632747
<i>Methanocaldococcus</i> sp. FS406-22	YP_003457468	YP_003457471	YP_003457472
<i>Methanothermococcus okinawensis</i> IH1	ZP_07330063	ZP_07330060	ZP_07330059
<i>Oscillochloris trichoides</i>	ZP_07684114	ZP_07684112	ZP_07684111
<i>Anabaena variabilis</i> ATCC 29413	YP_322845	YP_322843	YP_323968
<i>Chlorobium limicola</i> DSM 245	YP_001944195	YP_001944197	YP_001944196
NFL HOMOLOGS			
Taxon	NflH homologs	NflD homologs	
<i>Methanobacterium thermoautotrophicum</i>	AAB85148	AAB85997	
<i>Methanobrevibacter smithii</i>	YP_001274280	YP_001273733	
<i>Methanocaldococcus jannaschii</i>	NP_247874	NP_248427	
<i>Methanocaldococcus</i> sp. FS406-22	YP_003458692	YP_003458054	
<i>Methanococcoides burtonii</i>	YP_565723	YP_565722	
<i>Methanococcus aeolicus</i>	YP_001325412	YP_001325501	
<i>Methanococcus maripaludis</i> C5	YP_001098039	YP_001097721	
<i>Methanococcus maripaludis</i> C6	YP_001548852	YP_001548533	
<i>Methanococcus maripaludis</i> C7	YP_001330364	YP_001330639	
<i>Methanococcus maripaludis</i> S2	CAF29703	CAF29984	
<i>Methanococcus vannielii</i>	YP_001323663	YP_001323921	
<i>Methanocorpusculum labreanum</i>	YP_001029608	YP_001029961	
<i>Methanopyrus kandleri</i>	AAM02629	AAM02598	
<i>Methanosaeta thermophila</i>	YP_843600	YP_842548	
<i>Methanosarcina acetivorans</i>	AAM05043	AAM06983	
<i>Methanosarcina barkeri</i>	YP_303736	YP_303910	
<i>Methanosarcina mazei</i>	AAM30210	AAM30211	
<i>Methanospaera stadtmanae</i>	YP_448145	YP_448474	
CHL/BCH HOMOLOGS			
Taxon	ChlL/BchL homologs	ChlN/BchN homologs	ChlB/BchB
<i>Bradyrhizobium</i> sp. BTAi1	YP_001242230	YP_001242233	YP_001242232
<i>Methylobacterium populi</i> BJ001	YP_001927985	YP_001927988	YP_001927987
<i>Erythrobacter</i> sp. NAP1	ZP_01041680	ZP_01041677	ZP_01041678
<i>Hoeflea phototrophica</i> DFL-43	ZP_02167537	ZP_02167540	ZP_02167539
<i>Halorhodospira halophila</i> SL1	YP_001003200	YP_001003203	YP_001003202
<i>Prochlorococcus</i> sp. CC9311	YP_731178	YP_731176	YP_731177
<i>Synechococcus</i> sp. RCC307	YP_001227822	YP_001227820	YP_001227821
<i>Prochlorococcus marinus</i> MIT 9515	YP_001010923	YP_001010925	YP_001010924
<i>Roseobacter</i> sp. AzwK-3b	ZP_01902759	ZP_01902756	YP_002464757
<i>Chloroflexus aggregans</i> DSM 9485	YP_002464754	YP_002464757	YP_002464756
<i>Roseiflexus castenholzii</i> HLO8, DSM 13941	YP_001431649	YP_001431647	YP_001431648
<i>Chlorobium phaeobacteroides</i> DSM 266	YP_912798	YP_912800	YP_912799
<i>Cyanothece</i> sp. CCY 0110	ZP_01730952	ZP_01730955	ZP_01728917
<i>Synechococcus</i> sp. JA-2-3B	YP_477257	YP_477255	YP_478401
<i>Gloeobacter violaceus</i> PCC 7421	NP_925316	NP_925315	NP_923161
<i>Heliobacterium modesticaldum</i> Ice1	YP_001679876	YP_001679877	YP_001679878
<i>Anabaena variabilis</i> ATCC 29413	YP_322845	YP_322843	YP_323968
<i>Chlorobium limicola</i> DSM 245	YP_001944195	YP_001944197	YP_001944196

Representative sequences were selected to sample the primary lineages of each homolog, using approaches as outlined in Boyd et al. (2011). A full list of nitrogenase and Bch homologs can be found in Boyd et al. (2011).

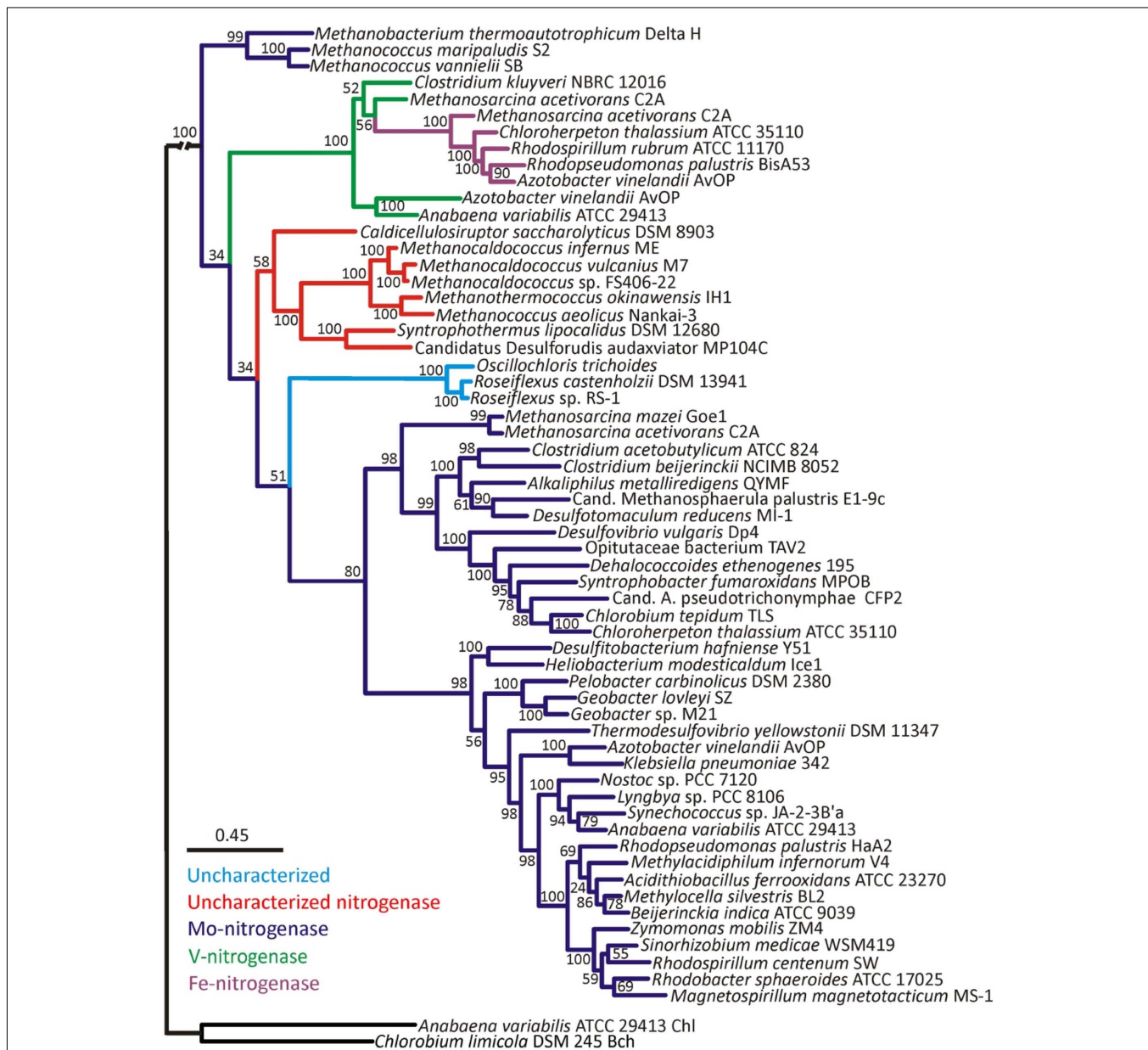


FIGURE A2 | Maximum-likelihood inferred phylogenetic tree of

concatenated HDK homologs. Bootstrap values based on 100 replicates are indicated at each node. Branches are colored dark blue (Mo-nitrogenase, Nif,

green (V-nitrogenase, Vnf), purple (Fe-nitrogenase, Anf), red (uncharacterized nitrogenase), and light blue (uncharacterized homolog). The hash at the root was introduced to conserve space.

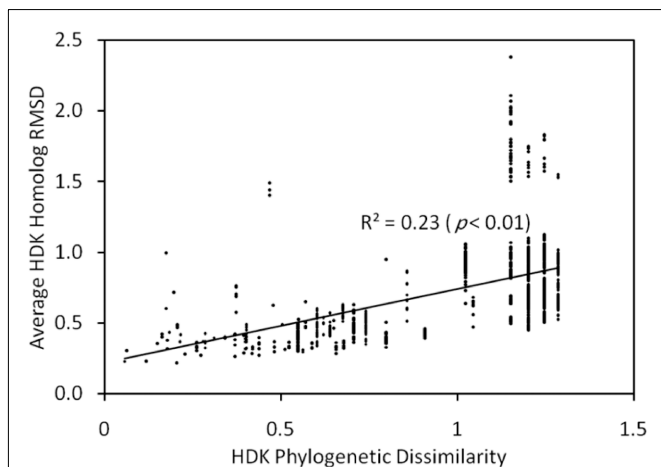


FIGURE A3 | Plot of a Mantel regression of a matrix describing the average RMSD for H, D, and K protein structures inferred using homology modeling as a function of the Rao phylogenetic dissimilarity of concatenated HDK homologs inferred by MrBayes. The strong correlation suggests a relationship between the evolution of sequences and their inferred structures, implying that the HDK structure is evolving. The slope of the line linear regression (~ 2) suggests that the evolution of protein structure is constrained to a greater extent than the evolution of the primary sequences.

A.v. AnfD	CGAKHVI	KRY	SQSGGHH	CARS	FGH	HAY
M.a. VnfD	CGAKLVI	KRY	SQSKGHH	CARS	FGH	HAY
M.m. NifD	AGVKGVI	KRY	TQSKGHH	CQRS	FEH	HSY
R.s. UncD	AGCRGVV	RPH	SQSMGHH	CQRS	FGH	HTY
M.c. UncD	AGGRGVV	RRN	SQSKGHH	CQRS	FAH	HSY
A.v. NifD	AGSKGVV	RRN	SQSLGHH	CYRS	FAH	HSW
	65	71	96 98	190	196 275 277	381 383 442 444

FIGURE A5 | Amino acid sequence conservation in selected residues that ligate FeMo-co (Cys-275, red box, and His-442, blue box) and that have been implicated as important in the FeMo-co binding pocket (indicated by a gray box). Representative NifD, VnfD, AnfD, and UncD (uncharacterized nitrogenase). Numbering is based on NifD from *Azotobacter vinelandii* AvOP. Abbreviations: A.v., *Azotobacter vinelandii* AvOP; M.a., *Methanosarcina acetivorans* str. C2A; M.m., *Methanococcus maripaludis* strain S2; R.s., *Roseiflexus* sp. RS-1; M.c. *Methanocaldococcus* sp. FS406-22. The conservation in the active site environment and active site cluster ligands between classes of nitrogenase suggest that once the active site cavity evolved, it was maintained through time.

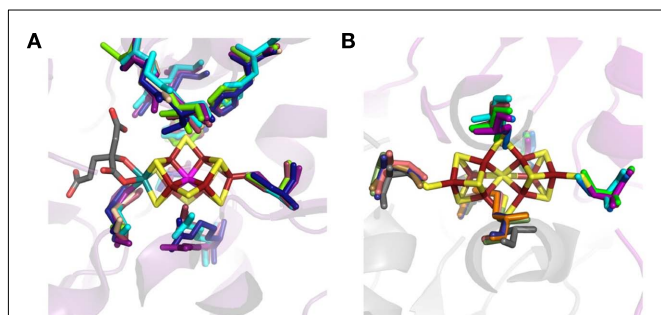


FIGURE A4 | Structural alignment of the inferred structures of DK homologs indicating conservation in the active site (A) and P-cluster binding cavity (B). Ribbon diagram of the superimposition of NifDK from *Azotobacter vinelandii* AvOP (D, violet and K, gray), NifDK from *Methanococcus maripaludis* strain S2 (D, wheat and NifK, blue), UncDK from *Methanocaldococcus* sp. FS406-22 (D, cyan and K, orange), UncDK from *Roseiflexus* sp. RS-1 (D, marine, and K, sand), VnfDK from *Methanosarcina acetivorans* str. C2A (D, raspberry, and K, pale green), and AnfDK from *Azotobacter vinelandii* AvOP (D, green, and K, salmon), with the FeMo-co (A) and P-cluster (B) depicted as stick representations. Dark red, Fe; yellow, S; gray, C; red, O; teal, Mo; unknown, magenta. Protein Data Bank ID for *Azotobacter vinelandii* AvOP 1MIN.