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# Copper Homeostasis in *S. meliloti*

Jacquelyn Marie Nemet-Sousa  
*Worcester Polytechnic Institute*

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Bioinformatic and Metal Analysis of Copper  
Homeostasis in *Sinorhizobium meliloti*

A Major Qualifying Project Report:

Submitted to the Faculty

Of the

WORCESTER POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE

In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

Degree of Bachelor of Science

by

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Jacquelyn Nemet-Sousa

Date: October 10, 2013

Approved:

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Professor José Argüello, Project Advisor

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## Abstract

The *Sinorhizobium meliloti* genome encodes five Cu<sup>+</sup>-ATPases that aid in detoxification and regulate copper homeostasis via the efflux of copper from the cytoplasm to the periplasmic space. Bioinformatic analysis concluded that additional cuproproteins found in *S. meliloti* genome might interact with Cu<sup>+</sup>-ATPases to aid in copper homeostasis. Atomic Absorption Spectroscopy (AAS) was used to determine the concentration of copper in subcellular fractionation of wild type and mutant strains. Results suggest that copper distribution in different subcellular fractions is linked to the dynamic of copper transporters and cuproproteomes.

# Acknowledgements

I would like to thank Professor José Argüello for helping me prepare for my future and for encouraging me to excel. I would also like to thank Sarju Patel for devoting his time to teach and assist me in the lab, along with Teresita Padilla-Benavides, Courtney McCann, and Jessica Collins.

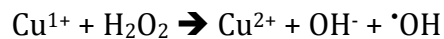
Additionally, I would not have made it this far without the help of my Faculty Advisor, Kristin Wobbe.

# 1. Introduction

## 1.1. Copper

Copper is an essential nutrient used in many biochemical processes by bacteria and eukaryotes as an enzymatic cofactor. Such processes include energy transduction, iron mobilization, oxidative stress response, and many others. Copper may also act as a signaling molecule. On the other hand, too much copper is extremely toxic to living organisms. Excess copper damages iron-sulfur clusters, interacts with free thiol groups in proteins, and competes with other metals for binding sites in proteins (2) (3).

Copper is a transition metal that has two oxidative states,  $\text{Cu}^+$  and  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$ , pertaining to the number of electrons in its outer shell and its ability to accept and donate an electron. The ion participates in Fenton reactions that lead to reactive oxygen species (ROS):



This reaction produces hydroxyl radicals ( $\cdot\text{OH}$ ) that can damage lipids, proteins, and nucleic acids. Therefore, ROS can be detrimental to all life forms (4).

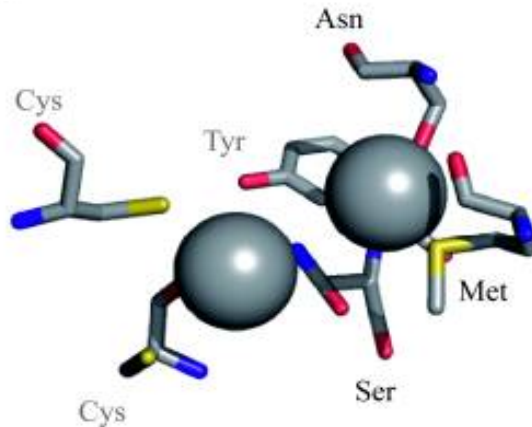
Copper needs a way to move around the cell. Free copper within the cell is toxic and therefore specific chaperone proteins bind copper ions in order to reduce the amount of free copper in the cell. Additionally, copper ATPases help regulate homeostasis by transporting  $\text{Cu}^+$  out of the cytoplasm.

## 1.2. Copper ATPases

Living cells regulate copper homeostasis in order to prevent toxic levels of copper and its consequences. The proteins that help to regulate the cytosolic copper concentrations are known as copper P-type ATPases. Copper P-type ATPases drive the

efflux of copper from the cytoplasm and translocate the ion across the plasma membrane into the periplasmic compartment of the bacterial cell, via ATP hydrolysis. Additionally, they functionally interact with other cuproproteins located in the periplasmic space or within the plasma membrane. Other proteins involved in copper homeostasis include chaperones, transporters, transcription factors, and metallothioneins. Chaperones and chelators bind to copper within the cytoplasm to reduce the amount of free copper. These cuproproteins transport the copper ion to efflux systems located in the plasma membrane, such as copper ATPases (1).

Copper P-type ATPases have eight transmembrane helices. Two copper ions bind to the protein in a trigonal planar geometry between helices six and eight (Fig. 1). More specifically, two cysteines and an asparagine make up the first binding site, while a tyrosine, methionine, and a serine make up the second binding site. Both metal binding domains (MBDs) have to be occupied in order to activate ATP hydrolysis. As previously stated, ATP hydrolysis drives the copper ions across the membrane. The ATP binding domain is located between helices six and seven. The highly specific phosphorylation motif of DKTGT is prominent in every heavy-metal ATPase's sequence. More specifically the asparagine amino acid is phosphorylated by ATP (1).

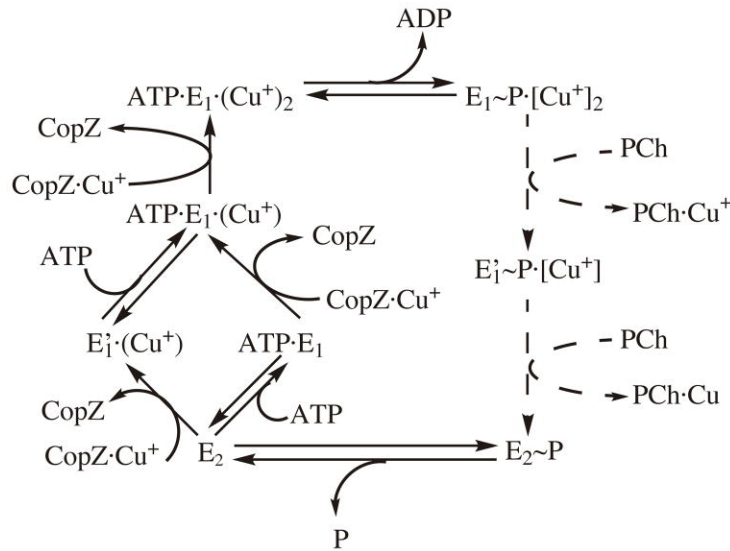


**Figure 1:** Metal Binding Domain of Copper ATPases. This figure shows the metal binding domain of the copper ATPase efflux system. The figure correctly displays the amino acids associated with the binding of two copper ions, and their conformations.(1)

These ATPases undergo E1/E2 conformational transitions during their transport cycle. In the Albers-Post mechanism, the enzyme adopts two basic conformations (E1 $\longleftrightarrow$ E2), the phosphorylated intermediate (E1P $\longleftrightarrow$ E2P), and occluded ion-bound forms. The proposed catalytic cycle for Cu<sup>+</sup>-ATPase is shown in Fig. 2. The central event of unidirectional metal transport is the irreversible ion binding to TM-MBSs. In case of Cu<sup>+</sup>-ATPase, amphiphatic kinked TM2b might serve as the docking point for cytoplasmic Cu<sup>+</sup>-chaperone (*CopZ*) (5). Previous studies have shown that the ATPase has high affinity for the Cu<sup>+</sup>~*CopZ* complex along with the lack of interaction of the apo-chaperone with the TM-MBS access sites (6). Upon docking of the Cu<sup>+</sup>-chaperone, the ion would be transfer unidirectionally to the entry site formed by three invariant residues (Met, Glu and Asp located at the cytoplasmic end of M3, M4 and M5 respectively). The full occupancy of TM-MBSs (2 Cu<sup>+</sup> ions per ATPase) requires the presence of ATP. ATP hydrolysis driven conformational changes are required for metal translocation across the permeability barrier. It has been hypothesized that P<sub>1B</sub>-ATPases requires specific periplasmic/luminal



“partners” in order to release the metal. Upon metal release, the enzyme phosphorylated E2P form is dephosphorylated to E2 state and enters into the next cycle (1).



**Figure 2:** The Catalytic cycle of Copper P<sub>1b</sub>-type ATPases. This is also known as the Albers-Post transport cycle. Copper ATPases are dependent upon ATP hydrolysis. Copper ions are transported to the copper ATPases via copper chaperones, such as CopZ.

Mutated copper ATPases have major effects that can be detrimental to the organism’s existence that include decreased metal resistance due to the enzyme improperly working to excavate copper from within the cell. This can affect the homeostasis of copper between the periplasmic space and the cytoplasm. Limited enzymatic function can also prevent the transfer of copper from a chaperone to an ATPase, depending on where the mutation is. For example, different amino acids may occupy the entrance site and therefore the chaperone may not be able to dock itself in order to transfer the copper ion to the enzyme. In addition, limited enzymatic function may be caused by no phosphorylation of ATP, which also prevents the transport of copper through the membrane.

Several studies have suggested that the host organisms use metal ions (overload of Cu and Zn) as an innate immune response against invading pathogens. Thus, pathogenic

bacteria are required to overcome the host immune responses during infection. Since  $\text{Cu}^+$ -ATPases translocate metal ions across the plasma membrane, it is likely that  $\text{Cu}^+$ -ATPases play a role in virulence.

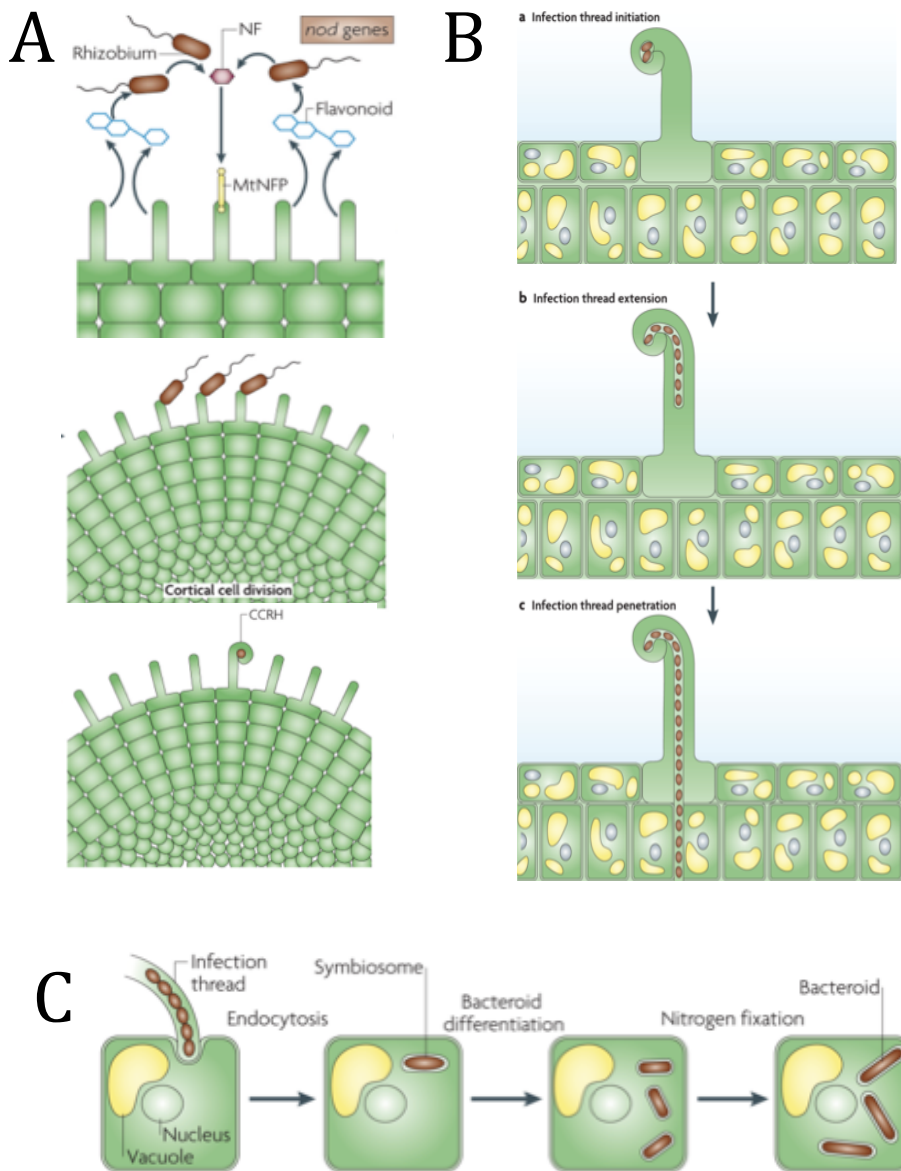
### 1.3. Symbiosis

*S. meliloti* is a gram-negative bacterium belonging to the *Rhizobia* family. It lives independently in soil or in nodules on the roots of leguminous plants, such as alfalfa, forming a symbiosis (7). In these nodules the bacterium fixes atmospheric nitrogen into a more applicable form that can be used by the plant. In return, the plant provides the bacterium with energy and a microaerobic environment (8).

*S. meliloti* is drawn to the root hairs of leguminous plants, such as *Medicago sativa* (alfalfa) by flavonoids, which are aromatic compounds released by the plant. This signal activates the production of nod factors by activating *S. meliloti's nod* genes (9). The plant responds to these nod factors by curling its root hairs that enclose the bacteria. The bacteria gains access into deeper tissues of the plant by creating infection threads that allows the bacteria to successfully invade the plant (10). The bacteria are enclosed in symbiosomes by endocytosis located in the inner cortex of the plant. From here, the symbiosome differentiates into a bacteroid form that fixes nitrogen.

As in any other infection, the host initiates an innate immune response. Relative to the symbiosis of *S. meliloti* and alfalfa plants, the plant host invades the bacterium with excess amounts of copper. This environment becomes extremely toxic to the cells viability.  $\text{Cu}^+$ -ATPases are programmed defense mechanisms that functions to deplete the excess copper inside the cell. Additionally, plant hosts produce oxidative bursts that lead to ROS. Multiple copies of ATPases encoded in the *S. meliloti* genome are beneficial to bacterial

virulence. In such ways that particular subfamilies of copper ATPases, like CopA2/FixI ATPases, that are associated with cytochrome c oxidases, can help reduce oxygen levels in order to prevent ROS (1).



**Figure 3:** The Rhizobia-Legume symbiosis. Part **A** shows the activation of *nod* genes by the aromatic flavonoid compound, and the initiation of invading the host plant via root hairs. Part **B** shows how the bacteria is taken up by the plant through the curling of the root hairs and the production of the infection thread spreading into the inner tissues of the plant. Part **C** illustrates the endocytosis of the symbiosome and its formation into a nitrogen-fixing bacteroid.

*S. meliloti* genome is encoded in a chromosome and two megaplasmids, pSymA and pSymB. The first replicon is a single chromosome that is the largest of the three containing 3.6 million base pairs (Mb). This replicon houses genes that are associated with biosynthetic pathways including metabolic pathways, plant interaction, chemo taxis processes, mobility, and responding to external stress (7).

The pSymB replicon has 1.68 Mb and encodes genes that are involved with the absorption of nutrients from the soil and more importantly the viability of the bacterium (11). The pSymA replicon contains 1.35 Mb of DNA, which encode genes required for nodulation and the symbiosis with leguminous plants. These genes are mainly involved with nitrogen and carbon metabolism, transport, and stress (12).

Using bioinformatics tools we have explored the list of cuproproteins used for copper homeostasis in the *S. meliloti* genome. Experimental procedures involving extracting subcellular fractions of *S. meliloti* and Atomic Absorption Spectroscopy (AAS) show where the copper is directed in correlation to the localization of the cuproproteins, by determining the concentration of copper in each subcellular fraction. As previously stated, free copper is mainly located within the cytoplasm of the cell, it is assumed that the majority of the cuproproteins involved with copper homeostasis reside in the cytoplasm or the cytoplasmic membrane. Thus, these proteins can bind copper and transport it to the periplasmic space, out of the cell, or to other cuproproteins.

## 2. Materials and Methods

### 2.1. Bioinformatics

A list of viable copper associated proteins, also known as cuproproteins, was obtained from (13). Additional proteins were obtained from unpublished work. Protein sequences were obtained in FASTA format from the NCBI website using the Protein database.

Homologous proteins were determined by using the BLAST search on the NCBI website (<http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>) and the KEGG website (<http://www.genome.jp/tools/blast/>). The FASTA sequence obtained from the NCBI protein database (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/protein/>) was inserted into the Query box. The organism chosen was *Sinorhizobium meliloti 1021* for NCBI and *sme* for KEGG. The results were displayed in ascending order of E value, where the smallest E value was at the top and the largest was at the bottom. Only the first five E values that were less than  $10^{-3}$  were considered as homologous proteins.

These sequences were aligned with the initial sequences using the MAFFT alignment software, version 7.055b (<http://mafft.cbrc.jp/alignment/software/>). The sequences were aligned using the more accurate G-INT-I algorithm (option 4), also known as the Needleman-Wunsch algorithm. This algorithm aligns sequences of similar lengths and places gaps throughout the sequence. The output format was in sorted Clustal format (option 1), where asterisks were displayed when amino acid residues were the same throughout all the aligned sequences. Two dots were displayed if the aligned sequences

had similar amino acid properties and one dot was displayed when a few aligned sequences had similar amino acid side chain properties.

Domains and motifs were identified using the PROSITE database on the ExPASy website (<http://prosite.expasy.org>). The cellular co-localization was determined using the ClubSub-P database on the Max-Planck website (<http://toolkit.tuebingen.mpg.de/clubsubp>). This shows the location of the protein within the bacterial cell as well as if it is transported via either the secretory (sec) pathway or the twin-arginine translocation (tat) pathway, or both.

## 2.2. Bacterial strains and growth conditions

*S. meliloti* wild type strain WSM419 and mutant strain  $\Delta actP$  was grown in 1 L of TY media at 220 rpm, at 30 °C. Wild type strain RM2011 and mutant strain  $\Delta Cut5$  was grown in 1 L of Rhizobium Defined Medium (RDM) at 200 rpm, at 30 °C. Cells were harvested at 1.5-3.0 OD<sub>600nm</sub>.

The RDM contained 100 mL of a 10X RDM A stock that included 6 g of KNO<sub>3</sub>, 1 g of CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 2.5 g of MgSO<sub>4</sub>, and 0.1 g of FeCl<sub>3</sub>. It also contained 100 mL of a 10X RDM B stock that included 10 g of K<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub> and 10 g of KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>. Additionally the RDM contained 4 mL of Biotin (0.25 mg/mL), 1 mL of Thiamine (10 mg/mL), 5 g Sucrose, and distilled water up to 1 L.

## 2.3. Subcellular Protein Fractionation

This procedure was adopted from Raimunda, et al. (14) with the following modifications. Two 10 mL whole cell samples were taken from both the wild type and mutant cultures. The cells were sonicated three times each at 8 (unit) for 10 sec in order to whole cell lysate. Both the wild type and mutant cultures were divided so that 70 percent of the culture was used to extract the periplasm and 30 percent was used to extract the

cytosol. The periplasmic fraction was obtained by hypo-osmotic shock as described previously by Raimunda, et al. (15). The periplasmic fraction was concentrated down in 3 kDa Millipore filtering devices.

The pellet left over from the periplasmic extraction was resuspended in 50 mM Tris-Cl pH 7.4. The cells were passed through a French press at 20,000 psi three times. The broken cells were centrifuged at 9000 rpm for 30 min, and the resulting supernatant contained the membrane. The supernatant was ultracentrifuged at 33,000 rpm for 1 hr. The supernatant was decanted and the membrane pellet was resuspended in 0.5 mL of 50 mM Tris-Cl and was transferred to a homogenizer. An additional 0.5 mL of the same buffer was added to the final in the obtained membrane fractions.

Cytosolic fractions were collected after incubating the cells with the Tris-sucrose-EDTA buffer and lysozyme, and centrifuging them at 11000 rpm for 20 min. The supernatant was decanted and the pellet was resuspended in 10 mM Tris-Cl pH 8. The cells incubated for 15 min at room temperature. Following this, 4 mM of MgCl<sub>2</sub> and DNAase was added to the tubes preceding an incubation of 10 min. These tubes were centrifuged at 11000 rpm for 20 min and the resulting supernatant contained the cytosolic fraction.

## 2.4. Copper Concentration Determination

The subcellular fractions obtained previously included the whole cell, membrane, periplasmic, secreted, and cytoplasmic were prepared for copper determination using the Atomic Absorption Spectroscopy (AAS). After determining the concentration of protein of each fraction by Bradford assay (16), it was calculated how much of each fraction to add to the AAS prep sample to ensure a final protein concentration of 50 µg. The volume was brought up to 200 µL with deionized water. Another 200 µL of nitric acid was added to the

samples preceding boiling for 1 hr. The samples cooled down and 100  $\mu\text{L}$  of hydrogen peroxide was added. The samples for the AAS contained 100  $\mu\text{L}$  of the protein/acid/peroxide mixture and were brought up to a final volume of 500  $\mu\text{L}$  with deionized water. The samples and standards were placed into the well of the AAS and the machine ran to determine the concentration of copper in each sample.



## 3. Results

### 3.1. Bioinformatics

**Table 1:** List of Cuproproteins and the organism to which they were derived from and used as a template in order to determine homologous proteins in *S. meliloti*.

Enzymes: redox

| #  | Gene | Function                        | Gene Number | Organism                            | References                   |
|----|------|---------------------------------|-------------|-------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 2  | ndh  | NADH dehydrogenase 2            | 299877527   | <i>Escherichia coli</i>             | (17)                         |
| 4  | NC   | nitrosocyanin                   | 499423326   | <i>Nitrosomonas europaea</i>        | (18)                         |
| 6  | nirK | Cu containing nitrite reductase | 21623660    | <i>Hyphomicrobium denitrificans</i> | (19)                         |
| 7  | CotA | laccase                         | 1708638     | <i>Bacillus subtilis</i>            | (20)                         |
| 8  | mel  | tyrosinase                      | 153523      | <i>Streptomyces antibioticus</i>    | (21)                         |
| 13 | pcoA | multicopper oxidase             | 619128      | <i>Escherichia coli</i>             | (22)                         |
| 14 | CueO | multicopper oxidase             | 388476242   | <i>Escherichia coli</i>             | (23)                         |
| 15 | pcoC | copper resistance protein       | 619130      | <i>Escherichia coli</i>             | (22)                         |
| 22 | ptrA | transcriptional activator       | 119524024   | <i>Pseudomonas chlororaphis</i>     | de Kievit et al. unpublished |

Chaperones

| #  | Gene Name | Function                  | Gene Number | Organism                         | References |
|----|-----------|---------------------------|-------------|----------------------------------|------------|
| 1  | ctaB      | cytochrome c oxidase      | 1653266     | <i>Synechocystis PCC 6803</i>    | (24)       |
| 3  | sodC      | superoxide dismutase      | 485718255   | <i>Escherichia coli</i>          | (25)       |
| 5  | petE      | plastocyanin              | 47402       | <i>Synechocystis PCC 6803</i>    | (26)       |
| 17 | copZ      | copper chaperone          | 1652317     | <i>Synechocystis PCC 6803</i>    | (27)       |
| 18 | copC      | copper resistance protein | 151190      | <i>Pseudomonas syringae</i>      | (28)       |
| 19 | copD      | copper resistance protein | 499586270   | <i>Pseudomonas syringae</i>      | (29)       |
| 20 | mauC      | amicyanin                 | 113693      | <i>Paracoccus denitrificans</i>  | (30)       |
| 21 | CopG      | Copper resistance protein | 94152520    | <i>Cupriavidus metallidurans</i> | (31)       |

Transporters

| #  | Gene Name | Function                   | Gene Number | Organism                      | References |
|----|-----------|----------------------------|-------------|-------------------------------|------------|
| 9  | PacS      | ATPase                     | 2493001     | <i>Synechocystis PCC 6803</i> | (32)       |
| 10 | CopA      | ATPase                     | 298280327   | <i>Escherichia coli</i>       | (33)       |
| 11 | CopB      | ATPase                     | 290643      | <i>Enterococcus hirae</i>     | (34)       |
| 12 | cutC      | copper homeostasis protein | 388477948   | <i>Escherichia coli</i>       | (35)       |
| 16 | cusCFBA   | copper efflux system       | 378261079   | <i>Escherichia coli</i>       | (36)       |

Out of the 31 proteins used to determine homology in the *S. meliloti* genome, only 22 resulted in feasible outcomes as listed in Table 1. Seventy-three percent of these results

had more than one homologous protein as shown in Table 2. The proteins that only had one result were superoxide dismutase, nitrosocyanin, tyrosinase, cutC, pcoC, and copD. PcoC and copD are both copper resistance proteins that are involved in the detoxification of the cell during symbiosis. Both these proteins had the same result, SMA1198. The nitrosocyanin protein derived from *Nitrosomonas europaea* is homologous to nitrous oxide reductase, *nosZ*. *NosZ* catalyzes the redox reaction of nitrous oxide. It also has a cox2 domain in its C-terminus, suggesting it is associated with the cytochrome *c* oxidase protein (37).

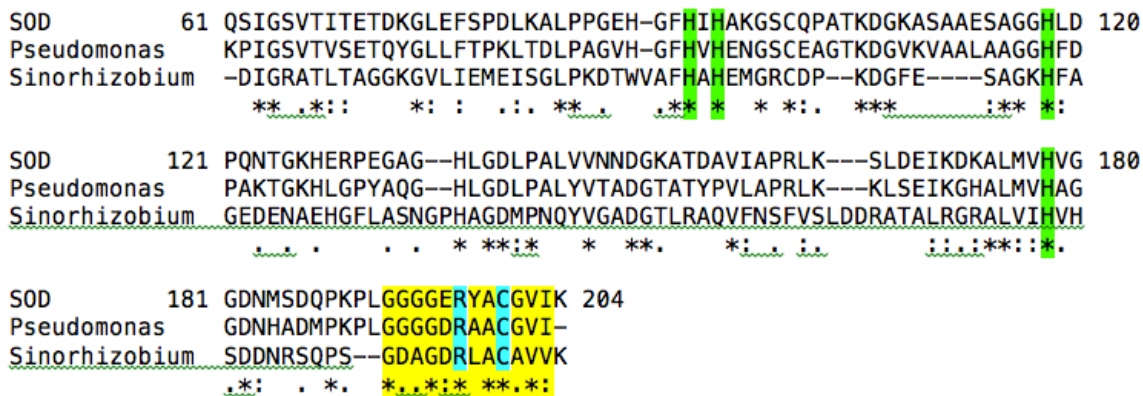
Table 2. List of cuproproteins in *S. meliloti* genome.

| Gene Name | Function   | Gene Number | Cellular localization | Homologous # (Table 1) | GI       | Reference |
|-----------|--|-------------|-----------------------|------------------------|----------|-----------|
| ctaB      | Protoheme IX farnesyltransferase   | SMc00450    | Cytoplasmic membrane  | 1                      | 15964659 | (24)      |
| ubiA      | 4-hydroxybenzoate polyprenyltransferase                                      | SMc00988    | Cytoplasmic membrane  | 1                      | 15964617 | (24)      |
| ndh       | NADH dehydrogenase transmembrane protein                                     | SMc04452    | Cytoplasm             | 2                      | 15965832 | (7)       |
|           | dehydrogenase, oxidoreductase FAD flavoprotein                               | SMb20861    | Cytoplasm             | 2                      | 16264903 | (11)      |
|           | oxidoreductase   | SMc00914    | Cytoplasm             | 2                      | 15964544 | (7)       |
| lpdA1     | dihydrolipoamide dehydrogenase   | SMc01035    | Cytoplasm             | 2                      | 15965203 | (7)       |
| sodC      | superoxide dismutase Cu-Zn precursor (bacteriocuprein) transmembrane protein | SMc02597    | Cytoplasmic membrane  | 3                      | 15964850 | (7)       |
| nosZ      | nitrous oxide reductase  | SMA1182     | Periplasmic           | 4                      | 16263096 | (37)      |
| azu1      | pseudoazurin (blue copper protein)   | SMA1243     | Periplasmic           | 5, 20                  | 16263131 | (12)      |
| azu2      | pseudoazurin (blue copper protein)   | SMc04047    | Periplasmic           | 5, 20                  | 15966583 | (7)       |
| amcY      | amicyanin precursor protein  | SMb20594    | Periplasmic           | 5, 20                  | 16265254 | (11)      |
|           | copper oxidase   | SMA1041     | Periplasmic           | 5                      | 16263017 | (12)      |
| nirK      | nitrite reductase  | SMA1250     | Periplasmic           | 6, 13                  | 16263134 | (12)      |
|           | copper-containing oxidoreductase   | SMc02282    | Periplasmic           | 6, 7, 13, 14           | 15964339 | (7)       |
|           | copper-containing oxidase  | SMA1038     | Periplasmic           | 6, 7, 13, 14           | 16263016 | (12)      |
|           | oxidoreductase   | SMc01754    | Periplasmic           | 7, 13, 14              | 15964945 | (7)       |
|           | oxidoreductase   | SMc03287    | Periplasmic           | 8                      | 15966886 | (7)       |
| FixI2     | (E1/E2 type) ATPase  | SMA0621     | Cytoplasmic membrane  | 9, 10, 11              | 16262778 | (12)      |
| fixI1     | ATPase   | SMA1209     | Cytoplasmic           | 9, 10                  | 16263112 | (12)      |

|       |   |          |                      |            |           |      |
|-------|---|----------|----------------------|------------|-----------|------|
|       |   |          | membrane             |            |           |      |
|       | heavy metal transporting ATPase               | SMc04128 | Cytoplasmic membrane | 9, 10, 11  | 15963877  | (7)  |
|       | cation transport p-type ATPase                | SMa1163  | Cytoplasmic membrane | 9, 10      | 193782642 | (12) |
|       | cation transport p-type ATPase                | SMa1155  | Cytoplasmic membrane | 9, 10      | 16263078  | (12) |
|       | cation transport p-type ATPase                | SMa1087  | Cytoplasmic membrane | 11         | 16263042  | (12) |
| actP  | ATPase  | SMa1013  | Cytoplasmic membrane | 11         | 16263001  | (12) |
| atcU2 | copper-transporting P-type ATPase             | SMb21578 | Cytoplasmic membrane | 11         | 16264766  | (11) |
| cutC  | hypothetical protein                          | SMc02879 | Cytoplasm            | 12         | 15963957  | (7)  |
|       | copper protein                                | SMa1007  | Periplasmic          | 13         | 16262996  | (12) |
|       | copper export protein                         | SMa1198  | Cytoplasmic membrane | 15, 18, 19 | 16263107  | (12) |
| acrE  | acriflavin resistance protein                 | SMb21497 | Cytoplasmic membrane | 16         | 16265075  | (11) |
| mexE1 | multidrug efflux system transmembrane protein | SMc1094  | Cytoplasmic membrane | 16         | 15964180  | (7)  |
| NolF  | NolF secretion protein                        | SMa0876  | Cytoplasmic membrane | 16         | 16262934  | (38) |
|       | efflux protein                                | SMb20346 | Cytoplasmic membrane | 16         | 16264080  | (11) |
| mexE2 | multidrug efflux system transmembrane protein | SMc03972 | Cytoplasmic membrane | 16         | 15966509  | (7)  |
|       | heavy metal binding protein                   | SMa1009  | Cytoplasm            | 17         | 193782627 | (12) |
|       | hypothetical protein                          | SMb20560 | Cytoplasm            | 17         | 16264287  | (39) |
| argD  | acetylornithine transaminase                  | SMc02138 | Cytoplasm            | 18         | 15964270  | (7)  |
|       | hypothetical protein                          | SMc00509 | Cytoplasmic membrane | 18         | 15965511  | (7)  |
|       | hypothetical protein                          | SMb20881 | Periplasmic          | 21         | 16264923  | (11) |
|       | hypothetical protein                          | SMa1008  | Periplasmic          | 21         | 193782626 | (12) |
|       | transcriptional regulator                     | SMc02984 | Cytoplasmic          | 22         | 15966629  | (7)  |
|       | transcriptional regulator                     | SMc00831 | Cytoplasmic          | 22         | 15964529  | (7)  |
|       | LysR family transcriptional regulator         | SMa1602  | Cytoplasmic          | 22         | 193782691 | (12) |
|       | transcriptional activator                     | SMa1828  | Cytoplasmic          | 22         | 16263460  | (12) |
| gstR  | gstR-like transcriptional regulator protein   | SMb20004 | Cytoplasmic          | 22         | 16263755  | (11) |

There was only one hit for a superoxide dismutase protein, *sodC*. Superoxide dismutase is also a part of the organism's defense mechanism during symbiosis. The enzyme destroys radicals that have been produced by ROS by the host-plant. It is located within the cytoplasmic membrane (7). The *sodC* protein sequence was aligned with homologous proteins of two different organisms, *E. coli* and *Pseudomonas syringae*. When

these sequences were imputed into the PROSITE database on the ExPASy website (<http://prosite.expasy.org>), only one domain became prominent. The Cu/Zn superoxide dismutase domain (ref: PS00332) is highlighted in yellow in Figure 4. Within this domain Arg197 and Cys200, highlighted in blue, are important for function. Additionally, copper ions bind to the protein via histidine residues, highlighted in green.



**Figure 4:** Protein sequence alignment of superoxide dismutase in *Escherichia coli* (SOD), in *Pseudomonas syringae*, and in *S. meliloti*. Copper binding sites are highlighted in green. The Cu/Zn superoxide dismutase domain is highlighted in yellow. A disulfide bond is highlighted in blue.

Significant copper transport proteins, such as *pacS*, *copA*, and *copB*, from organisms *Synechocystis PCC 6803*, *E. coli*, and *E. hirae*, respectively, have obtained similar outcomes of homologous proteins. These proteins are known as copper ATPases, and it is known that the *S. meliloti* genome encodes only five. However, the outcomes from the BLAST database resulted in eight possible ATPase genes. Both *pacS* and *copA* had the exact same BLAST results that included *FixI1*, *FixI2*, SMc04128, SMA1163, and SMA1155. Furthermore, *copB* had three other possible outcomes that *pacS* and *copA* did not. These three proteins are SMA1087, *actP*, and *atcU2*. Some of these proteins are labeled as cation or heavy metal ATPases, which can be construed as not only transporting copper but also other metals like zinc, iron, and magnesium.

One characteristic that *copB* lacks compared to *pacS* and *copA* is the heavy metal associated (HMA) domain. On the other hand, it still contains the specific phosphorylation site bearing the DKTGT motif, which characterizes the protein as a P-type ATPase. The heavy metal associated domain is relatively seventy residues long and contains two cysteine residues that bind copper.

There are other proteins that contain the HMA domain, but are not characterized as ATPases. *CopZ* of *Synechocystis PCC 6803* is a chaperone located within the cytoplasm of the bacterial cell. This protein binds free copper and transports it to copper ATPases. Therefore, as a result of copper chaperones and copper ATPases having similar domains suggests they interact with one another. The HMA domain is practically displayed as the entire sequence, including residues two through seventy-four. The alignment of *copZ* and the two *S. meliloti* homologous proteins are shown in Figure 5. The metal binding site is highlighted in green. The copper ion binds to both cys12 cys15. The alignment shows how similar the protein sequences of Sma1009 and Smb20560.

```

copZ      1 MTIQLTVPTIACEACAEAVTKAVQNEAQAQTVQVDLTSKKVTITSALGEEQLRTAIASAG 60
Sma1009   M-YHLNIPEMTCGHCVSAVEKAVKSVDPNKVVVNLEAKTASIDSQAASEAFVAAIEDAG
Smb20560  M-YHLNVEDVTCGHCAATVEKAVKAADPKAKVAVNLEAKTASIESDIGPDVFIAAIEDAG
          *  :*:  :*:  *  !*  ***:  *.:*. *:*  :*.:* *  .  !:  !*:  **  .**

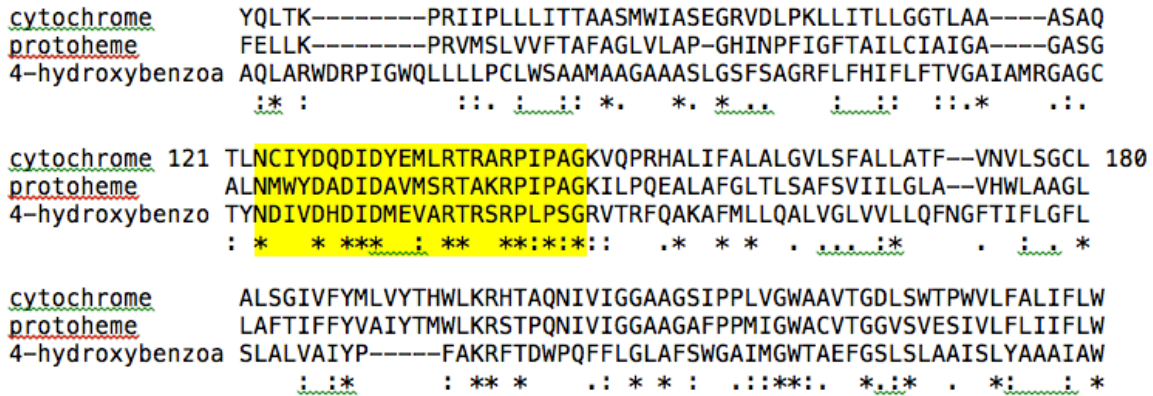
copZ      61 HE-----VE 74
Sma1009   YKASFAKSCCSHVA
Smb20560  YRASFKKSCCSHVD
          !:  *

```

**Figure 5:** Protein sequence alignment of *copZ* from *Synechocystis sp. PCC 6803* and genes Sma1009 and Smb20560 from *S. meliloti*. The copper binding site is highlighted in green.

The BLAST results of a cytochrome *c* oxidase protein only produced two hits. Proteins *ctaB* and *ubiA* are homologous to cytochrome *c* oxidase in the organism *Synechocystis PCC 6803*. These proteins all encode the same ubiA prenyltransferase family domain, highlighted in yellow. This protein is involved with the transfer of electrons, and

reduces oxygen to water (24). This protein, along with nitrosocyanin, belongs to a super family of proteins called cupredoxins. Other proteins included in this family are plastocyanins (*azu1*, *azu2*, *amcY*, and SMa1041), and multicopper oxidases (*nirK*, SMc02282, SMa1038, and SMc01754).



**Figure 6:** Protein sequence alignment of cytochrome c oxidase from *Synechocystis PCC 6803*, and *ctaB* and *ubiA* in *S. meliloti*. The *ubiA* prenyltransferase family domain is highlighted in yellow.

Multicopper oxidases are involved with electron transfer within the periplasmic space of the bacterial cell. These proteins can bind copper ions, given three characteristic copper centers, type 1, type 2, and type 3. Type 1 copper centers display an electron absorption band near 600 nm, emitting a blue light. These blue copper proteins, also known as pseudoazurins, genes *azu1* and *azu2*, transfer electrons to and from nitrite reductase (*nirK*). Other homologous proteins encoded in the *S. meliloti* genome include *amcY* and SMa1041. These proteins were derived from plastocyanin (*petE*) of *Synechocystis PCC 6803* and amicyanin (*mauC*) of *Paracoccus denitrificans* (40).

Nitrite reductase (*nirK*) catalyzes the reduction of nitrite to nitric oxide. The copper ion binds to the type 1 center from which nitrite binds to the copper ion. These ions are transferred to the type 2 center where nitrite is reduced. These ions are bound to histidine rich residues, which have positively charged side chains in order to bond with the

negatively charged  $\text{Cu}^+$  ion. This protein contains a plastocyanin domain because it accepts electrons from such proteins. Additionally, this protein accepts electrons from cytochrome *c* oxidase (*ctaB* and *ubiA*) (19).

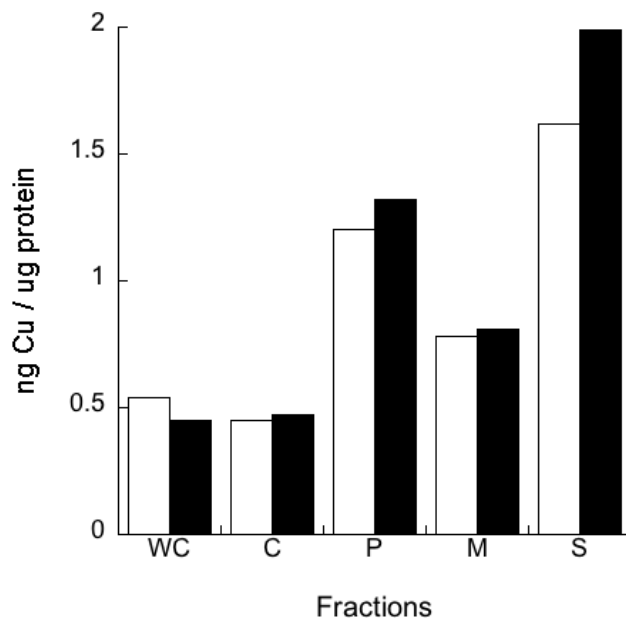
These multicopper oxidase proteins are derived from *nirK* of *Hyphomicrobium denitrificans*, *pcoA* and *cueO* of *Escherichia coli*, and *cotA* of *Bacillus subtilis*. It is proposed that these proteins are involved with either translocating cytoplasmic  $\text{Cu(I)}$  to the periplasmic space via the TAT pathway, or by reducing  $\text{Cu}^+$  ions to  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$ , which is less toxic for the cell. Additionally, these proteins may be involved with preventing the formation of damaging free radicals due to the ROS species produced by the host plant.

### 3.2. Copper concentration determination

The concentration of copper in the membrane, periplasmic, cytosolic, and secreted fractions would add up to the concentration of copper in the whole cell fraction. Moreover, it is proposed the concentration of copper of the cytosolic fraction of the copper ATPase mutant strain ( $\Delta actP$ ) would be greater than that of the wild type strain (WSM419). Possibly due to the copper ATPases of the mutant strain having a lower enzymatic function, and are incompetent of transporting the copper in the cytoplasm to the periplasmic space.

The WSM419 and  $\Delta actP$  strains were initially grown in TY media. The cells inoculated to an  $\text{OD}_{600\text{nm}}$  of 1.5 and 1.7, respectively. The fractions that were used in determining the copper concentration were the whole cell, membrane, secreted, periplasmic space, and the cytoplasm. According to Figure 7, the secreted fraction of the  $\Delta actP$  strain had almost three times as much copper than the whole cell fraction, and the WSM419 strain had at least double the amount. Additionally, there was more copper in the periplasmic space for both strains compared to half that amount in the cytoplasmic

fraction. It is questionable as to why the whole cell fraction and the cytoplasmic fraction have the lowest copper concentrations compared to the other cell fractions in both strains, when they should have the highest.



**Figure 7:** The amount of copper per microgram of protein for each subcellular fraction of the WSM419 (white bars) strain and the  $\Delta actP$  (black bars) strain. Fractions include whole cell (WC), cytoplasmic (C), periplasmic space (P), membrane (M), and secreted (S). TY media was used to harvest cells.

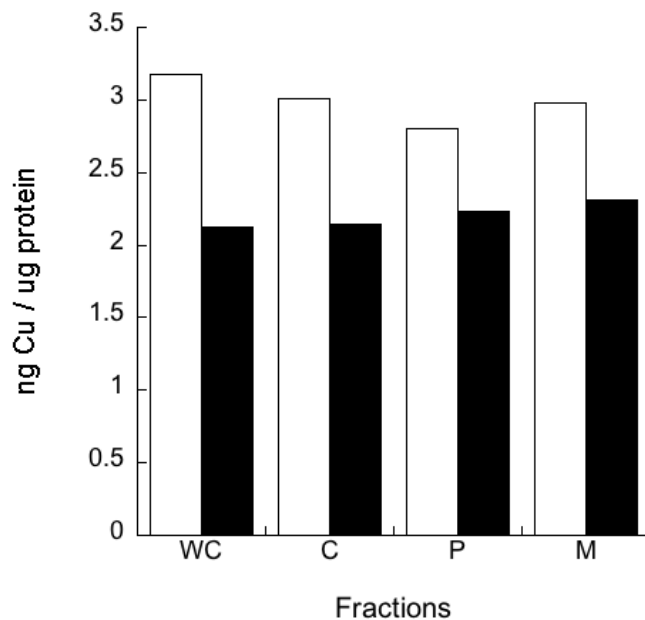
It was proposed that the media had to do with these backwards values. The media contained a high concentration of protein due to the yeast extract. These proteins can bind to the available copper in the media, causing the higher amount of copper in the secreted fraction than the copper acquired by bacteria. The next step was to harvest the cells in a Rhizobium Defined Medium (RDM), which is a minimal media. The only disadvantage to this new medium is that cells take longer to grow. On the other hand, this had reduced the amount of copper accumulating in the secreted fraction.

The strains used to harvest in the RDM were *S. meliloti* RM2011 wild type and  $\Delta cut5$  mutant strain. The  $\Delta cut5$  cells were inoculated to an  $OD_{600nm}$  of 1.3 and the RM2011 cells



were inoculated to an OD<sub>600nm</sub> of 1.8. The secreted fractions were null and void when preparing the samples for the AAS. This was due to cells growing in the secreted fraction of the *Δcut5* strain making it extremely difficult to concentrate the protein in a Millipore filtering tube. The cells were pelleting down in the filter clogging the holes. This fraction was centrifuged at 7000 rpm for 10 min in order to pellet down any cells that were left. After this there were still problems trying to concentrate down the protein, even after cleaning the filter. Therefore, it was decided not to use that fraction for the AAS. Likewise, the secreted fraction of the RM2011 strain was unable to be measured by the AAS due to a small concentration of protein. There was not enough protein to make a 50 μg sample for the AAS. Therefore, it was decided not to use the fraction and also in part that there was nothing to compare it to.

The concentration of copper in the RM2011 strain was greater than the *Δcut5* strain, as shown in Figure 8. This is probably due to the fact there were more wild type cells used in the preparation than the mutant. Furthermore, the concentrations of copper for each fraction of the *Δcut5* strain are relatively the same values. Compared to the previous figure, the whole cell fraction still has the lowest concentration for the mutant strain. On the other hand, the whole cell fraction of the wild type strain has the highest concentration of copper compared to the other fractions.



**Figure 8:** The amount of copper per microgram of protein for each subcellular fraction of the RM2011 (white bars) strain and the  $\Delta cut5$  (black bars) strain. Fractions include whole cell (WC), cytoplasmic (C), periplasmic space (P), and membrane (M). RDM media was used to harvest cells.

Additionally, the concentrations of copper of the membrane, periplasmic, and cytoplasmic fractions should add up to the concentration of copper of the whole cell fraction, in this case, they do not. It is uncertain as to why these values are very similar.

These results with the RDM media support the hypothesis more than those of the TY media, because the concentration of copper of the cytoplasmic fraction for the RM2011 strain is slightly greater than the periplasmic fraction. However, that is not the case for the  $\Delta cut5$  strain. The concentration of copper of the cytoplasmic fraction is slightly less than the periplasmic fraction. This shows that the other copper ATPases found in *S. meliloti* genome are functioning efficiently by transporting the copper from the cytoplasm to the periplasmic space.

## 4. Discussion

Symbiotic organism like *S. meliloti* encoded for large array of cuproproteins. These cuproproteins are involved in copper homeostasis during symbiosis and thus has a large impact on the outcome of host-pathogen interaction. It was hypothesized that the majority of the cuproproteins in Table 2 were subcellular localized in the cytoplasm or the periplasm, because free copper mainly exists within those areas of a gram-negative bacterial cell (14). Copper ions are bound to chaperones, like SMa1009 and SMb20560 of *S. meliloti*, which transport the ion to copper ATPases, like *ActP*, bound in the cytoplasmic membrane. This interaction is distinguished during the rhizobia-legume infection process, in which these proteins help detoxify the bacterial cell of copper when exposed to excess amounts.

Additionally, cytochrome c oxidases, like *ctaB* and *ubiA*, are bound in the cytoplasmic membrane and interact with proteins of the cupredoxin family. These proteins include plastocyanins and multicopper oxidases. Cytochromes also interact with proteins that are involved with nitrogen metabolism, *nosZ*. These proteins interact with one another to donate or accept electrons. These proteins work together during the infection process to protect the bacterial cell of damaging radicals from oxidative bursts produced by the plant-hosts innate immune response.

In this experiment of the copper determination in different subcellular fractions, we observed the same amount of copper distributed in the different fractions. It is probable that the copper within the cell had equilibrated due to long process time for the fraction extraction. Additionally, another probable cause could be correlated to the amount of

protein extracted from the different fractions. The protein concentrations could have been low, making it difficult for the AAS to analyze the amount of copper in each cellular fraction.

Other problems that arose were cells continuing to grow in the secreted fraction upon the storage. This made it extremely difficult to concentrate down in the Millipore filtering tubes because the cells were being pelleted down and clogged the filtering holes. For the future, it would probably be best not to store the fraction for long, but to either concentrate the fraction right away, or centrifuge the secreted fraction at higher speed to remove the cell debris from protein fraction.

Further studies of proteomic analysis include 2D electrophoresis and X-ray fluorescence. 2D electrophoresis separates proteins by molecular weight and isoelectric point. This makes it easier to pick out the protein of interest, in this case copper ATPases, or other cuproproteins. Further analysis of the 2D gel with X-ray fluorescence can reveal if the protein of interest is bound to copper.

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