The Cu(II) reductase RclA protects *Escherichia coli* against the combination of

hypochlorous acid and intracellular copper.

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Subject Area: Microbiology and Infectious Disease

ABSTRACT

Inflammatory bowel diseases (IBDs) are a growing health concern. Enterobacteria,

including *Escherichia coli*, bloom to high levels in the gut during inflammation and

strongly contribute to the pathology of IBDs. To survive in the inflamed gut, *E. coli* must

tolerate high levels of antimicrobial compounds produced by the immune system,

including toxic metals like copper and reactive chlorine oxidants like hypochlorous acid

(HOCl). In this work, we show that the widely-conserved bacterial HOCl resistance

enzyme RclA catalyzes the reduction of copper (II) to copper (I), and specifically

protects *E. coli* against the combination of HOCl and intracellular copper, probably by

preventing Cu(III) accumulation. *E. coli* lacking RclA were highly sensitive to HOCl and

were defective in colonizing an animal host. Our results indicate unexpected complexity

in the interactions between antimicrobial toxins produced by innate immune cells and

suggest an important and previously unsuspected role for copper redox reactions during

inflammation.

INTRODUCTION

Inflammatory bowel diseases (IBDs), like Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis,

are a growing health problem (1), and are associated with dramatic changes in the

composition of the gut microbiome (2-6). Patients with IBDs have increased proportions

of proteobacteria, especially *Escherichia coli* and other *Enterobacteriaceae*, in their gut

microbiomes, which is thought to contribute to the progression of disease (7-10). The

bloom of enterobacteria in the inflamed gut is driven by increased availability of

respiratory terminal electron acceptors (*e.g.* oxygen, nitrate, TMAO) and carbon sources

(*e.g.* ethanolamine, mucin), which *E. coli* and other facultative anaerobes can use to

outcompete the obligate anaerobes (*Bacteroides* and *Clostridia*) that dominate a healthy

gut microbiome (2, 3). In addition to these nutritional changes in the gut environment,

inflammation also leads to infiltration of innate immune cells (*e.g.* neutrophils) into the

lumen of the gut (11) and an associated increased production of antimicrobial

compounds by the innate immune system (9, 10, 12), which also impact the bacterial

community in the gut. These include antimicrobial peptides, toxic metals (*e.g.* copper),

reactive oxygen species (ROS), reactive nitrogen species (RNS), and reactive chlorine

species (RCS) (3, 13, 14). Since bacteria living in an inflamed gut are likely to be

exposed to substantially increased levels of these toxins, the differential survival of

proteobacteria during long-term inflammation suggests that *E. coli* may have evolved

better mechanisms to resist these stresses than other types of commensal bacteria.

Innate immune cells use copper as an antimicrobial agent and copper levels rise

in inflamed tissues, although the exact mechanism(s) by which copper kills bacteria are

not yet fully understood (15-17). RCS are highly reactive oxidants produced by

neutrophils and are potent antibacterial compounds (18, 19) that have been reported to

play a role in controlling intestinal bacterial populations (20-22). *E. coli* does not

efficiently survive being phagocytosed by neutrophils (23, 24), but the release of RCS-

generating myeloperoxidase from neutrophils in the inflamed gut (11) means that *E. coli*

is exposed to increased levels of RCS in that environment. The RCS response of *E. coli*

is complex and incompletely understood (19, 25-28), but characteristically involves

repair of damaged cellular components, often proteins (19). Protein-stabilizing

chaperones are upregulated during RCS stress, including Hsp33 (29, 30) and inorganic

polyphosphate (28, 31, 32), and enzymes are expressed that repair oxidized proteins,

including periplasmic methionine sulfoxide reductase (MsrPQ) (33) and the

chaperedoxin CnoX (34). *E.* coli has multiple HOCl-sensing regulators, including

YedVW (which regulates MsrPQ) (33), NemR (regulator of NemA and GloA, which

detoxify reactive aldehydes) (25), HypT (which regulates cysteine, methionine, and iron

metabolism) (27), and RclR, the RCS-specific activator of the *rclABC* operon (26).

The *rclA* gene of *E. coli* encodes a predicted flavin-dependent oxidoreductase, is

upregulated more than 100-fold in the presence of RCS (26, 35), and protects against

killing by HOCl via a previously unknown mechanism (26). RclA is the most

phylogenetically conserved protein of the Rcl system (Figure 1) and is found almost

exclusively in bacteria known to colonize epithelial surfaces (Supplemental Table 1),

suggesting that it may play an important role in host-microbe interactions in many

species. Bacteria encoding RclA homologs include Gram negative species (*e.g.*

Salmonella enterica), Gram positive species (*e.g. Streptococcus sanguinis*), obligate

anaerobes (*e.g. Clostridium perfringens*), facultative anaerobes (*e.g. Staphylococcus*

aureus), pathogens (*e.g. Enterococcus faecalis*), commensals (*e.g. Bacteroides*

thetaiotaomicron), and probiotics (*e.g. Lactobacillus reuteri*) (36), suggesting that RclA's

function may be broadly conserved and not specific to a single niche or type of host-

microbe interaction. RclR, RclB, and RclC are much less widely conserved, and are

found only in certain species of proteobacteria, primarily members of the

Enterobacteriaceae (Figure 1 and Supplemental Table 1).

Figure 1: RclA is widely conserved among bacteria that colonize epithelial

surfaces. Phylogenetic tree made from amino acid sequence alignments of RclA (284

species), RclB (61 species), RclC, (49 species), and RclR (43 species), relative to the

respective proteins in *E. coli* MG1655. See Supplemental Data Table 1 for lists of each

hit used in the phylogenetic tree. Tree graphic was made using the interactive tree of life

(37).

In this work, we have now determined that RclA is a thermostable, HOCl-

resistant copper (II) reductase that is required for efficient colonization of an animal host

and protects *E. coli* specifically against the combination of HOCl and intracellular

copper, probably by preventing the formation of highly reactive Cu(III). We also found

that, surprisingly, extracellular copper effectively protects bacteria against killing by

HOCl both in cell culture and in an animal colonization model, most likely by catalyzing

the breakdown of HOCl before it reaches the bacterial cells. These findings reveal a

previously unappreciated interaction between two key inflammatory antimicrobials and a

novel way in which a commensal bacterium responds to and resists the combinatorial

stress caused by copper and HOCl.

RESULTS

RclA contributes to HOCl resistance and host colonization. An *rclA* mutant of *E.*

coli is more susceptible to HOCl-mediated killing than the wild-type (26). In this work,

we utilized a growth curve-based method to measure sensitivity to sub-lethal HOCl

stress by quantifying changes in lag phase extension (LPE) of cultures grown in the

presence of HOCl. Using this method, which we have found to be considerably more

reproducible than other techniques for assessing bacterial HOCl sensitivity, we

observed significant increases in LPE for a Δ*rclA* mutant strain compared to the wild

type grown in the presence of various concentrations of HOCl (Supplemental Figure 1).

We observed similar trends when the assay was done on stationary- and log-phase

cells (Supplemental figure 2A and B), so stationary phase cultures were used for

subsequent assays. Furthermore, we determined that there was no drop in CFU after

treatment with HOCl at these concentrations, indicating that LPE measures recovery of

cultures from non-lethal stress (Supplemental figure 2C). These results confirm previous

results and further illustrate the importance of RclA in resisting HOCl-mediated oxidative

stress in *E. coli*.

To directly test the role of RclA in interactions with an animal host, we examined

the ability of *E. coli* to colonize the intestine of *Drosophila melanogaster*, where the

presence of enterobacteria is known to stimulate antimicrobial HOCl production by the

dual oxidase Duox (20, 22). Since an *E. coli* K-12 strain did not efficiently colonize *D.*

melanogaster (Supplemental Figure 3), we used the colonization-proficient *E. coli* strain

Nissle 1917 (EcN) (38, 39) in these experiments. EcN Δ*rclA* mutants had a significant

defect in their ability to colonize NP1-GAL4 *D. melanogaster* flies compared to wild-type

EcN at 3- and 8-hours post infection (hpi) (Figure 2, filled circles). This shows that *rclA*

is important for EcN to survive host responses during early colonization.

To investigate the role of host-produced RCS in the colonization defect of the

rclA EcN mutant, we reduced the gut-specific expression of Duox in the flies using

Duox-RNAi and repeated the colonization experiments. Both strains colonized

significantly better at 3 hpi when Duox was knocked down in the flies (Figure 2, x

symbols), which was expected because *rclA* is not the only gene known to contribute to

HOCl resistance in *E. coli* (19). Importantly, the colonization defect of Δ*rclA* EcN at 3 hpi

was abrogated in the *DuoxIR* flies, with CFUs/fly not being significantly different from

wild-type EcN colonizing flies that are able to express Duox in the gut (Figure 2). We

confirmed that HOCl production was reduced in the *DuoxIR* flies using the HOCl-

sensing fluorescent probe R19-S (Supplemental Figure 4) (40). Taken together, these

results show that *rclA* facilitates colonization of an animal host during early timepoints

and indicate that *rclA* relieves stress caused by host-produced oxidation.

Figure 2: EcN lacking *rclA* colonize *D. melanogaster* less effectively and early

colonization with Δ*rclA* EcN is improved in the absence of Duox-mediated

oxidation. Flies were fed either wild-type or Δ*rclA* EcN (1×10^{11} CFU/mL) and bacterial

loads were measured at the indicated times post infection (n = 4 - 5, ± SD). RCS-

deficient Duox-RNAi flies were obtained from crosses of *UAS-dDuox-RNAi* with *NP1-*

GAL4 (enterocyte - specific driver). Statistical analysis was performed using a two-way

ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test (**** = P < 0.0001, *** = P < 0.001, ns =

not significant).

RclA is homologous to mercuric reductase (MerA) and copper response genes

are upregulated after HOCl stress in EcN. Although the fact that *rclA* protects *E. coli*

from RCS was previously known (26), the mechanism by which it does so was not.

Based on its homology to other flavin-dependent disulfide oxidoreductases (41), we

hypothesized that RclA catalyzed the reduction of an unknown cellular component

oxidized by RCS. RclA is homologous to mercuric reductase (MerA), an enzyme that

reduces Hg(II) to Hg(0) (42). These sequences are particularly well conserved at the

known active site of MerA, a CXXXXC motif (Figure 3). However, MerA has an extra N-

terminal domain and two additional conserved cysteine pairs used in metal binding (42)

while RclA only has one conserved cysteine pair (Supplemental Figures 5 and 6). This

indicates that if RclA does interact with metal(s), those interactions must be mediated

through mechanisms different from those of MerA.

Figure 3: RclA and Mercuric reductase (MerA) share a conserved active site.

Active site alignment of *E. coli* RclA and MerA amino acid sequences from seven

bacterial species (*Escherichia coli*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Salmonella enterica*,

Listeria monocytogenes, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Serratia marcescens)*. Alignment was

made using CLUSTAL O (1.2.4) and graphic was made with WEBLOGO.

HOCl-stressed *E. coli* K-12 downregulates genes encoding iron import systems

(*e.g. fepABCD, fhuACDF*) and upregulates genes for zinc and copper resistance (*e.g.*

copA, cueO, cusC, zntA, zupT) (25), also suggesting metals may play some role in RCS

resistance. Transcriptomic profiling of EcN after treatment with a sublethal dose of HOCl

confirmed this and revealed the upregulation of several genes encoding proteins

involved in response to copper toxicity (Figure 4, Supplemental Table 2), despite the

very low amounts of copper present in the media used in that experiment (9 nM) (43).

These include members of the Cus and Cue export systems, which are factors

appreciated for their role in preventing copper toxicity and importance for *E. coli*

colonization within mammalian hosts (44-47). This suggested that copper might play an

important role during HOCl stress for EcN. The homology between RclA and MerA and

the indication that copper and HOCl responses may be connected in *E. coli* led us to

investigate the role of *rclA* in resisting HOCl stress under growth conditions containing

different amounts of copper.

Figure 4: EcN upregulates copper export proteins during HOCl stress. $\log_2$ fold-

change in EcN gene expression at 15 and 30 minutes after non-lethal HOCl treatment

(0.4 mM), relative to a control sample taken directly before treatment. mRNA counts

were measured using RNA sequencing and analyzed with Bowtie2.

Extracellular CuCl$_2$ protects both wild-type and Δ*rclA E. coli* against HOCl. How

the presence of copper influences bacterial sensitivity to RCS has not been investigated

before this study. We first used growth curves in the presence of copper and HOCl to

identify how combinations of HOCl and extracellular copper influenced the sensitivity of

wild type and Δ*rclA* mutant *E. coli* (Figure 5A and 5B). As we observed above, the Δ*rclA*

mutant was more sensitive to HOCl in MOPS, but the sensitivity to HOCl of both strains

was greatly increased when Cu was removed from the media, indicating that the low

concentration of Cu present in MOPS medium (9 nM) (43) was enough to react with the

added HOCl and change the sensitivity of our strains. Consistent with this and the ability

of Cu to catalyze the decomposition of HOCl to non-toxic O_2 and Cl^- (48-51), addition of

10 µM $CuCl_2$ to HOCl-containing media greatly decreased sensitivity of both the wild

type and the *rclA* null mutant to HOCl (Figure 5). Copper being uniformly protective for

both strains makes it likely that extracellular copper had reacted with and detoxified the

HOCl before cells were inoculated into the media. To confirm this result, we tested if the

addition of exogenous copper (0.5 mM $CuCl_2$) could protect *E. coli* against killing by a

very high concentration of HOCl (1 mM). We found that treatment with 1 mM HOCl

resulted in complete killing of both strains (Figure 5C). Both strains survived several

orders of magnitude better when 0.5 mM $CuCl_2$ was added to the media immediately

before HOCl stress (Figure 5C). In addition, colonization of flies by EcN was enhanced

when their diet was supplemented with copper (Supplemental Figure 8), consistent with

Cu detoxifying HOCl *in vivo*. Taken together, these results illustrate that the presence of

exogenous copper strongly protects *E. coli* against HOCl.

Figure 5: Extracellular CuCl₂ protects both wild-type and Δ*rclA E. coli* against HOCl. Growth curves of wild type (A) and Δ*rclA* (B) strains in MOPS with the addition of various combinations of HOCl (132 µM) and CuCl₂ (10 µM) (n = 3, ± SD for each treatment). Only one of several HOCl concentrations tested is shown for simplicity, see Supplemental Figure 7 for lag phase extension calculations and a summary of all the conditions tested using the growth curve method. (C) Exogenous copper protects both wild type and Δ*rclA E. coli* from lethal HOCl stress (10 min at 1 mM).

RclA protects *E. coli* against the combination of HOCl and intracellular copper.

Next, we aimed to investigate how intracellular copper affects the HOCl resistance of *E coli*. To address this, we grew wild type and Δ*rclA* mutant *E. coli* overnight in minimal media with or without copper before inoculating the strains into copper-free media to perform HOCl-stress growth curves. Growing overnight cultures in media lacking copper

was expected to starve the cells for this metal, thereby reducing the concentration of

intracellular copper in those cultures. A broad range of HOCl concentrations were

assayed to account for quenching of the oxidant by media components.

Consistent with the results in Figure 5, *E. coli* was more sensitive to inhibition by

HOCl in media without copper. The Δ*rclA* mutant was more sensitive to HOCl than the

wild type when grown overnight in copper-containing media, but this phenotype was lost

when cells were starved for copper before stress (Figure 6), indicating that the

physiological role of RclA is to resist the stress resulting from the combination of HOCl

and copper in the cytoplasm.

Figure 6: *rclA* is required to resist the combination of HOCl and intracellular Cu.

HOCl (132 µM) growth curves (n = 3, ± SD) in copper-free MOPS of wild-type and Δ*rclA*

E. coli after being grown up overnight in MOPS with (A) and without copper (B). Copper-

free MOPS was prepared by treating the media with Chelex-100™ Chelating Resin

(Bio-Rad 1421253) and adding back all the metals (metal stock solutions prepared in

metal-free water, Optima™ LC/MS Grade, Fisher Chemical W6-1), except for copper, to

the published concentrations (43). In cells containing intracellular copper (A), the Δ*rclA*

mutant has delayed growth relative to the wild type. There is no difference between the

strains when the cells are starved for intracellular copper (B). One HOCl concentration

is shown for simplicity, see Supplemental Figure 9 for growth curves showing more

HOCl concentrations.

RclA reduces copper (II) to copper (I). Based on the effect of copper starvation on the

HOCl sensitivity of the Δ*rclA* mutant, the sequence homology between RclA and MerA,

and the predicted oxidoreductase activity of RclA (41), we hypothesized that the

substrate of RclA might be copper. The reaction between copper and HOCl is known to

generate strong oxidizing intermediates, most likely highly reactive Cu(III) (48-52). HOCl

is also capable of oxidizing other transition metals, including iron (53, 54) and

manganese (55, 56). We therefore measured the specific activity (SA) of purified RclA

in the presence of a panel of biologically relevant metals. We also included mercury in

the panel of metals because of RclA's homology to MerA, although it is unlikely to be

physiologically relevant since we do not expect *E. coli* to encounter this metal in its

environment under normal conditions. We note that the oxidized forms of many

transition metals are insoluble in aqueous solution, which limited the set of substrates

we could test with this experiment.

In the absence of any metal, RclA slowly oxidized NADH (0.0303 µmole NAD^+

$min^{-1} mg^{-1}$ RclA), consistent with the background activity of other flavin-dependent

oxidoreductases in the absence of their specific substrates (57, 58). Three of the metals

we tested significantly affected RclA SA, as measured by NADH oxidation. Copper and

mercury both significantly increased the SA of RclA, while zinc caused a decrease in SA

(Figure 7A). Copper is a potent inhibitor of MerA activity (59), further emphasizing the

distinct nature of these two enzymes. RclA oxidized NADPH at similar rates to NADH in

the absence of metals, but there was no significant increase to SA when copper was

added to the reactions. The addition of exogenous thiols, commonly added as β-

mercaptoethanol (BME), is required for MerA activity (60). To determine if exogenous

thiols increase the reaction rate of RclA, we added 1 mM BME to the RclA reactions.

BME rapidly reduced Cu(II) to Cu(I) in the absence of RclA, but had no effect on the SA

of NADH reduction by RclA with or without the addition of copper (Supplemental Figure

10).

Since RclA is an NADH oxidase, the results shown in Figure 7A strongly

suggested that this enzyme was concurrently reducing copper. Copper exists in four

possible oxidation states, Cu(I), Cu(II), and the less common and highly reactive Cu(III)

and Cu(IV) states (61). The copper salt used in our RclA SA determinations was $CuCl_2$,

suggesting that RclA was reducing this Cu(II) species to Cu(I). This was very surprising,

since Cu(I) is generally thought of as a toxic species that causes oxidative stress (46,

62), so it was not obvious either why *E. coli* would produce Cu(I) during RCS stress or

why production of Cu(I) might be protective. We therefore first sought to validate that

RclA was in fact reducing Cu(II) to Cu(I) while oxidizing NADH to NAD^+. We measured

Cu(I) accumulation in RclA reactions directly using the Cu(I)-specific chelator

bathocuproinedisulfonic acid (BCS) (63). NADH spontaneously reduces Cu(II) (64) at

rates too slow to impact the measurements made here, but BCS increases the rate of

this non-enzymatic copper reduction by shifting the equilibrium of the reaction towards

Cu(I) (65). Stopping RclA reactions with a mixture of BCS and EDTA, to chelate any

remaining Cu(II), allowed us to observe RclA-dependent Cu(I) accumulation

(Supplemental Figure 11). We observed a significant increase in BCS/Cu(I) complex

formation only in reactions containing RclA, NADH, and Cu(II), and not in reactions

lacking any single component (Figure 7B, Supplemental Figure 11). Furthermore, we

validated that the copper reductase activity of RclA was maintained when the reactions

were performed anaerobically (Supplemental Figure 12) and that FAD alone did not

catalyze Cu(II) reduction (Figure 7A). Taken together, these findings show that RclA has

Cu(II) reductase activity and generates Cu(I) as a product.

Figure 7: RclA reduces Cu(II) to Cu(I). (A) RclA specific activity (SA) increases in the

presence of Cu(II) and Hg(II). SA (μmole NAD(P)$^+$ min^{-1} mg^{-1} RclA) of RclA was assayed

by measuring NAD(P)H oxidation over time spectrophotometrically (n = 6, ± SD).

Differences in SA in the presence of each metal were analyzed using a two-way

ANOVA with Dunnet's multiple comparison test using the no metal reaction as the

control (****= P < 0.0001, ** = P < 0.01). (B) Cu(I) accumulates after the RclA and

NADH/copper (II) reaction, as measured by BCS/Cu(I)-complex absorption. RclA

reactions were started with the indicated solutions and carried out as described in A (n =

6, ± SD). Differences in the amount of BCS/Cu(I) complex between the buffer only and

RclA reactions were analyzed using a two-way ANOVA with Dunnet's multiple

comparison test using the buffer only sample as the control for each reaction start

solution (****= P < 0.0001, ns = not significant).

RclA does not protect against HOCl by facilitating copper export. Since the copper

exporters of *E. coli* (*copA* and *cusCFBA*) are upregulated by HOCl treatment (Figure 3,

Supplemental Table 2) (25) and only transport Cu(I) (46, 47, 66, 67), it was possible that

RclA facilitates the rapid export of cytoplasmic copper, allowing it to react with and

eliminate HOCl outside the cell. To test whether the Cu(II) reductase activity of RclA is

important for exporting copper during HOCl stress, we measured intracellular copper

concentrations before and after HOCl stress with ICP mass spectrometry. We found

that the Δ*rclA* mutant contained, on average, more intracellular copper before HOCl

stress than the wild-type but that both strains contained similar amounts of copper after

HOCl stress (Supplemental Figure 13). We constructed mutants lacking *copA*, which is

reported to result in increased intracellular copper (47), but unexpectedly found that the

copA rclA double mutant had a substantial growth defect in copper-free media, even in

the absence of HOCl (Supplemental Figure 14). We do not yet know the explanation for

this intriguing result. Overall, our results indicate that although RclA may affect basal

copper homeostasis, it does not appear to protect *E. coli* against HOCl by facilitating

export of copper at levels detectable using these methods.

RclA is thermostable and resistant to denaturation by HOCl and urea. We

hypothesized that the copper reductase activity of RclA was likely to be relatively stable

under denaturing conditions because it must remain active during exposure to HOCl

stress, which is known to cause extensive protein misfolding and aggregation *in vivo*

(19, 27, 28, 32-34). To test this hypothesis, we first measured RclA activity after

treatment with protein denaturing agents (HOCl and urea) *in vitro*. HOCl treatment (with

0, 5, 10, and 20-fold molar ratios of HOCl to RclA) was done on ice for 30 minutes and

urea treatment (0, 2, 4, and 6 M) was carried out at room temperature for 24 hours.

RclA retained full copper reductase activity at all HOCl levels tested, indicating that it is

highly resistant to treatment with HOCl (Figure 8A). By comparison, the NADH oxidase

activity of lactate dehydrogenase was significantly decreased after treatment with a 5-

fold excess of HOCl (Figure 8B). RclA also retained a remarkable 35.8% of full activity

after being equilibrated in 6 M urea (Figure 8C). Finally, we used circular dichroism (CD)

spectroscopy to measure the melting temperature (T_m) of RclA, which was 65 °C

(Figure 8D, Supplemental Figure 15), indicating that RclA is thermostable relative to the

rest of the *E. coli* proteome, which has an average T_m of 55 °C (standard deviation = 5.4

°C) (49, 68).

Figure 8. RclA is resistant to denaturation. (A) SA of RclA (μmoles NAD$^+$ min^{-1} mg

RclA^{-1}), with and without CuCl$_2$, after being treated with the indicated molar ratios of

HOCl to RclA. (B) SA of lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) (μmoles NAD$^+$ min^{-1} U LDH^{-1})

used as control reactions for HOCl degradation of enzymatic activity. (C) RclA with and

without CuCl$_2$ (200 μM final) after being treated with the indicated concentrations of

urea. (D) CD signals at 222 nm (mdeg) (raw data shown in Supplemental Figure 15) at

each temperature used to determine the T$_m$ of RclA (65 $^\circ$C). Differences in SA (n = 6, ±

SD) after treatment were analyzed using a two-way ANOVA with Sidak's multiple

comparison test for HOCl treatment (A and B) and Dunnet's test using the buffer only

reaction as the control for the urea treated samples (C) (**** = $P < 0.0001$, * = $P < 0.05$

ns = not significant).

DISCUSSION

The antimicrobial function of copper in host-microbe interactions is well-

established (15, 17, 44, 69), although the exact mechanism(s) by which copper kills

bacteria remain incompletely known (70, 71). In this work, we identified a new way in

which copper toxicity contributes to host-bacteria interactions via its reactions with RCS.

We identified RclA as a highly stable Cu(II) reductase (Figure 7) required for resisting

killing by the combination of HOCl and intracellular copper in *E. coli* (Figure 6). In the

absence of *rclA*, *E. coli* had a significant defect in the early stages of host colonization

which was partially eliminated when production of HOCl by the host was reduced

(Figure 2). Duox activation and HOCl production are rapid host responses that occur at

early stages of bacterial colonization of the gut (20), in agreement with our data showing

that RclA is important for initial establishment. As the course of infection progresses,

additional antimicrobial effectors, such as antimicrobial peptides regulated by NF-κB

signaling, become more prominent (27), which could explain the similar colonization

levels of mutant and wild-type strains at later time points. The amount of copper in

bacterial cells is low (15, 16), but how much is unbound by protein and its redox state

under different conditions are unknown (15). Given the broad conservation of RclA

among host-associated microbes, we propose that there is likely to be a common and

previously unsuspected role for copper redox reactions in interactions between bacteria

and the innate immune system.

Copper accumulates in host tissues during inflammation (72, 73), as do RCS (74,

75). Our discovery that even very low concentrations of extracellular copper can protect

bacteria against RCS both *in vitro* and *in vivo* adds a new and important facet to

understanding copper's role in innate immunity. Since a large proportion of host tissue

damage during inflammation is due to HOCl (76, 77), the presence of copper in

inflamed tissues may play an important role not only in killing bacteria, but potentially in

protecting host cells, although this hypothesis will require further testing. Our results

also show that media copper concentrations are a key variable in experiments testing

the sensitivity of cells to HOCl, and that care must be taken to account for media copper

content and use metal-free culture vessels in such experiments.

Both HOCl and copper cause oxidative stress in bacteria and Cu(I) is generally

considered more toxic than Cu(II) (15, 19, 44, 69, 70, 78), so we were surprised that a

Cu(II) reductase protected *E. coli* against HOCl. Copper reacts with the ROS hydrogen

peroxide (H_2O_2) to form highly reactive hydroxyl radicals (17, 45, 62, 71), but how the

presence of copper influences bacterial sensitivity to RCS has not been investigated

before this study. The chemistry of reactions between HOCl and copper is complicated.

HOCl can oxidize Cu(II) to highly reactive Cu(III) (48-52) and both Cu(I) and Cu(II) are

known to catalyze the breakdown of HOCl (48-51). At near-neutral pH, similar to that in

the large intestine or bacterial cytoplasm, Cu(I) accelerates the rate of decomposition of

HOCl to O_2 and chloride ions by as much as 10^8-fold (49). One possibility to explain the

protective effect of RclA is that it might facilitate an HOCl-degrading Cu(I) / Cu(II) redox

cycle in the cytoplasm. If this were the case, however, the $\Delta rclA$ mutant would become

more sensitive to HOCl in the absence of copper, the opposite of what we actually

observed (Figure 6). We therefore propose that RclA-catalyzed reduction of Cu(II) to

Cu(I) likely acts to limit the production of Cu(III) in the cytoplasm. Uncontrolled

production of Cu(III) could greatly potentiate the ability of HOCl to kill bacterial cells.

While RclA itself is widely conserved, the *rclABCR* locus as a whole is restricted

to certain enteric proteobacteria, including *E. coli*, *Salmonella*, *Citrobacter*, *Raoultella*,

Serratia, and *Shigella*. These genera are notable for their close association with gut

inflammation and the ability of pathogenic strains to bloom to very high levels in the gut

in disease states (2, 3, 7-10, 79, 80). We hypothesize that the ability to survive

increased levels of antimicrobial compounds (including RCS) in the inflamed gut is

important for the ability of enterobacteria to exploit this niche, and our *in vivo* results

with the Δ*rclA* mutant support this idea (Figure 2). The rate at which RclA oxidized

NADH in the presence of copper *in vitro* was slow (approximately 4.4 min^{-1}) (Figure 7),

suggesting that we have not yet identified optimal reaction conditions for this enzyme.

However, expression of *rclA* is rapidly induced >100-fold after sublethal doses of HOCl

in *E. coli* (Figure 3, Supplemental Table 2) (26), which could compensate *in vivo* for the

slow rate of NADH turnover we observed *in vitro*. We also do not currently know the

physiological roles of RclB, which is a small predicted periplasmic protein, or RclC,

which is a predicted inner membrane protein, although deletion of either of these genes

results in increased HOCl sensitivity in *E. coli* (26). We hypothesize that they may form

a complex with RclA *in vivo* and enhance its copper-dependent activity and are currently

pursuing experiments to test this idea.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Strain and plasmid construction. *E. coli* strain MJG0586 (F$^-$, λ$^-$, *rph-1 ilvG$^-$ rfb-50*

Δ*rclA* λ(DE3 [*lacI lacUV5*-T7 gene 1 *ind1 sam7 nin5*])) was generated from MJG0046

(F$^-$, λ$^-$, *rph-1 ilvG$^-$ rfb-50* Δ*rclA*) (26) using the Novagen DE3 lysogenization kit,

according to the manufacturer's instructions. The RclA coding sequence (1374 bp) was

amplified from *E. coli* MG1655 genomic DNA with primers 5' CTC GGT CTC CAA TGA

ATA AAT ATC AGG CAG TGA 3' and 5' CTC GGT CTC AGC GCT TTA TTT GAC TAA

TGA AAA TAG ATC A 3' and cloned into the *Eco*31I (*Bsa*I) sites of plasmid pPR-IBA101

(IBA Lifesciences) to yield plasmid pRCLA10. pRCLA11 was generated by using

QuikChange site directed mutagenesis (Agilent), modified to use a single mutagenic

primer (5' CTA TTT TCA TTA GTC AAA AGC GCT TGG AGC CAC CC 3'), to remove

the stop codon between the RclA coding sequence and the twin-strep tag sequence in

pRCLA10. *E. coli* Nissle 1917 Δ*rclA*::*cat*[+] strain MJG0846 was made by recombineering

(81) using primers 5' CGT CTA TAG TCA TGA TGT CAA ATG AAC GCG TTT CGA

CAG GAA ATC ATC ATG GTG TAG GCT GGA GCT GCT TC 3' and 5' CTT TTC TCT

GAG ACG CCA GAA TAT TTG TTC TGG CGT CTG ATT TTG AGT TTA CAT ATG

AAT ATC CTC CTT AG 3' to amplify the chloramphenicol resistance cassette from

pKD3. The *cat*[+] insertion was resolved using pCP20 resulting in the *E. coli* Nissle 1917

Δ*rclA* strain MJG0860.

Protein expression and purification. Expression of twin-strep tagged RclA was done

in MJG0586 containing pRCLA11 (MJG1338) in M9 minimal media (82) containing 2 g l⁻

^{1} glucose and 100 μg ml⁻¹ ampicillin. Overnight cultures of MJG1338 were diluted 1:100

and grown up to A_{600} = 0.4 at 37 °C with shaking. When A_{600} = 0.4 was reached,

expression was induced with IPTG (1 mM final concentration) and allowed to continue

for 12-18 hours at 20 °C. Purification of recombinant RclA was achieved to high purity

using a 1 mL StrepTrap HP column (GE, 28-9136-30 AC) according to the

manufacturer's instructions. Purified protein was subsequently saturated with FAD

cofactor by incubating the protein preparation with a 10-fold molar excess of FAD at

room temperature for 45 mins. Excess FAD and elution buffer were dialyzed away with

three exchanges of 1 L of RclA storage buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 0.5 M NaCl, 2

mM DTT, 10% glycerol) at 4 $^\circ$C overnight.

Colonization of D. melanogaster with E. coli Nissle 1917. *D. melanogaster stocks*

and husbandry: Canton-S flies were used as a wild-type line. Duox-RNAi flies were

obtained from crosses of *UAS-dDuox-RNAi* with *NP1-GAL4* (gut-specific driver). Unless

otherwise noted, flies were reared on cornmeal medium (per liter of medium: 50g yeast,

70g cornmeal, 6g agar, 40g sucrose, 1.25ml methyl-paraben, and 5ml 95% ethanol).

Oral infections: Adult female flies were starved for 2h at 29°C prior to being fed a 1:1

suspension of bacteria (OD_{600}=200) and 2.5% sucrose applied to a filter paper disk on

the surface of normal fly food. Suspensions of bacterial at OD_{600}=200 were consistently

found to contain 1×10^{11} CFU/mL (Supplemental Figure 16). A negative control was

prepared by substituting LB for the bacterial suspension. Infections were maintained at

29°C. *CFU determination:* Flies were surface-sterilized in 70% ethanol and rinsed in

sterile PBS. Individual flies were homogenized in screw-top bead tubes containing 600µl

PBS. Dilution series of homogenates were prepared with a range of (10^0 to 10^{-5}). 3µl

spots of each dilution were applied to LB plates and grown overnight at 30°C. *E. coli*

colonies were identified by morphology and counted to determine CFUs/fly.

RNA sequencing. *E. coli* Nissle 1917 was grown anaerobically (90% N_2, 5% CO_2, 5%

H_2, maintained with a Coy Laboratory Products anaerobic chamber) at 37°C in MOPS

minimal media (Teknova) in sealed Hungate tubes to an A_{600} = 0.25, then treated

anaerobically with 0.4 mM HOCl. Samples (7 ml) were harvested into 7 ml ice-cold

isopropanol immediately before and 15 or 30 minutes after HOCl addition, harvested by

centrifugation, and stored at -80°C until use. RNA was purified using the RiboPure™-

Bacteria Kit (Ambion), according to the manufacturer's instructions. mRNA-sequencing

was performed at the UAB Heflin Center for Genomic Sciences, using an Illumina

NextSeq 500 as described by the manufacturer (Illumina, Inc). The Agilent SureSelect

Strand Specific mRNA library kit (Agilent) and ribosome reduction with the RiboMinus

protocol for Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria (Life Technologies) were used

as described by the manufacturer. The resulting mRNA was randomly fragmented with

cations and heat, followed by first strand synthesis using random primers. Second

strand cDNA production was done with standard techniques, and cDNA libraries were

quantitated using qPCR in a Roche LightCycler 480 with the Kapa Biosystems kit for

Illumina library quantitation (Kapa Biosystems) prior to cluster generation, which was

performed according to the manufacturers recommendations for onboard clustering

(Illumina). We generated approximately 8 million double-stranded 50 bp reads per

sample. Data were analyzed using Bowtie2 and DEseq2. RNA sequencing data have

been deposited in NCBI's Gene Expression Omnibus (83) and are accessible through

GEO Series accession number GSE144068.

Growth curves for measuring sensitivity to HOCl. The molar HOCl concentration

from concentrated sodium hypochlorite (Sigma Aldrich 425044) was quantified by

measuring A_{292} of the stock solution diluted in 10 mM NaOH. Copper free MOPS was

prepared by removing total metals from MOPS minimal media (Teknova) containing 2 g

l^{-1} glucose and 1.32 mM K_2HPO_4 by treating prepared media with a universal chelator

(Chelex® 100 Chelating Resin, Bio-Rad 1421253), filtering sterilizing away the Chelex

resin, and adding back the metals normally present in MOPS suspended in metal-free

water, except for copper. Overnight cultures of MG1655 and MJG0046 were grown up

overnight in MOPS with and without copper. The overnight cultures were normalized to

$A_{600} = 0.8$ in and diluted to $A_{600} = 0.08$ in MOPS minimal medium without copper with the

indicated combinations/concentrations of HOCl and $CuCl_2$. Cultures were incubated

with shaking at 37 °C in a Tecan Infinite M1000 plate reader with A_{600} being measured

every 30 minutes for 27 hours. Sensitivity was subsequently determined by comparing

lag phase extensions (difference in hours to reach $A_{600} \geq 0.15$ from the no HOCl

treatment control under the same $CuCl_2$ condition) for each stress condition.

Determining the effect of copper on lethal HOCl stress. Wild type and $\Delta rclA$ E.

coli MG1655 were grown overnight in MOPS minimal media. 500 µl of the overnight

culture was pelleted, resuspended in copper-free MOPS, and subcultured into 9.5 ml of

copper-free MOPS, then grown with shaking at 37°C to mid-log phase ($A_{600} = 0.3 - 0.4$).

Once mid-log phase was reached, 1 mL of cells was aliquoted into microcentrifuge

tubes for each treatment. Cells were treated by adding the indicated amounts of copper

(II) chloride, followed by 1 mM HOCl, then incubated on a 37°C heat block for 10

minutes. After incubation, treatments were serially diluted in PBS and 5 µl aliquots were

spotted on LB agar plates. Plates were dried and incubated at room temperature for 2

days.

Measuring intracellular copper after HOCl stress. Wild-type and Δ*rclA E. coli* were

grown up to A_{600} = 0.6 in MOPS and stressed with 400 µM HOCl for 30 mins at 37 °C

with shaking. After 30 mins, the cultures were diluted 2-fold with MOPs to quench HOCl

and pelleted. The mass of pellets was determined after being rinsed 3 times with PBS.

Amount of copper was measured via ICP-MS (Agilent Technologies 7700x ICP-MS,

Santa Clara, CA, USA) after suspending the collected pellets in concentrated nitric acid

and diluting the suspensions to a 2% nitric acid matrix. Samples were filtered through

0.22 µM polytetrafluoroethylene filters to remove any particulates before running

performing metal determination. Copper concentrations were determined by comparison

to a standard curve (Agilent, 5188-6525) as calculated by Agilent software (ICP-MS

MassHunter v4.3). Values determined by ICP-MS were normalized to pellet mass and

dilution factor.

NADH oxidase activity. Activity of purified RclA was assayed in 20 mM HEPES, 100

mM NaCl, pH 7 by measuring NADH oxidation over time spectrophotometrically.

Purified recombinant RclA was preloaded into wells of a 96 well plate (100 µL of 6 uM

RclA). Reactions were started by adding 100 µL of NADH (200 µM final) with the

indicated metal salts (200 µM final) to RclA (3 µM final) at 37 °C. The absorbance of

NADH (A_{340}) was measured kinetically each minute for five minutes in a Tecan Infinite

M1000 plate reader. A_{340} values were then used to calculate µmoles of NADH (ϵ_{340} =

6300 $M^{-1} cm^{-1}$) and NADPH (ϵ_{340} = 6220 $M^{-1} cm^{-1}$) at each timepoint. Absolute values of

slopes of NAD(P)H (µmoles) over time (min) were divided by mg of RclA to determine

the reported specific activities (SA, µmole NAD(P)$^+$ min^{-1} mg^{-1} RclA) for each condition.

Copper (I) quantification. Cu(I) accumulation after the course of the RclA reaction was

measured using bathocuproinedisulfonic acid disodium salt (BCS, Sigma Aldrich

B1125). NADH oxidation reactions were carried out as in the previous section but were

started with either NADH (200 µM final), $CuCl_2$ (200 µM final), NADH and $CuCl_2$ (both at

200 µM final), or reaction buffer as a negative control to observe levels of background

copper in the reagents used. Each reaction was stopped at 5 minutes with a BCS (400

µM final) and EDTA (1 mM final) solution using the injector system of a Tecan Infinite

M1000 plate reader. The stopped reactions were incubated at 37 °C with the

absorbance of BCS/Cu(I) complex being measured at 483 nm every minute for five

minutes to ensure complete saturation of the BCS. The amount of the BCS/Cu(I)

complex after 5 minutes was determined using the molar extinction coefficient 13,000

$M^{-1} cm^{-1}$ (63).

NADH oxidase activity after treatment with urea and HOCl. SA of RclA after being

treated with denaturing agents was done by determining SA as above after incubation

of RclA with either urea or HOCl. Urea treatment was done on 3 µM RclA for 24 hours

at room temperature with increasing concentrations of urea (0, 2, 4, and 6 M) in reaction

buffer (20 mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, pH 7). HOCl treatment was done by mixing

increasing molar ratios of HOCl (0, 5, 10, and 20 X) with concentrated RclA or L -

Lactate Dehydrogenase (LDH, Sigma LLDH-RO 10127230001) (35 µM) in oxidation

buffer (50 mM sodium phosphate, pH 6.8, 150 mM NaCl) and incubating mixtures on ice

for 30 minutes. HOCl treatment was quenched after 30 minutes by diluting the RclA

solutions to 6 µM and the LDH solutions to 1 µM in reaction buffer (20 mM HEPES, 100

mM NaCl, pH 7). NADH oxidation reactions using LDH were performed under the same

conditions as the RclA reactions but started with 1.2 mM NADH and 1.2 mM pyruvate.

Melting temperature determination. Circular Dichroism (CD) spectra were obtained

on a Jasco J815 circular dichroism spectrometer. CD spectra were collected on purified

recombinant RclA exchanged into 20 mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, pH 7.5. Room

temperature CD spectra in the range of 260 nm to 190 nm were obtained in 0.1 mm

demountable quartz cells. Thermal CD data between 30 °C and 90 °C were obtained in

standard 1.0 mm quartz cells. All data were collected with a 1.0 nm step size, 8 second

averaging time per point, and a 2 nm bandwidth. Data were baseline corrected against

the appropriate buffer solution and smoothed with Jasco software.

Data analysis and bioinformatics. *Statistics*: All statistical analyses were performed

using GraphPad Prism (version 7.0a). *Phylogenetic tree*: RclA conservation tree was

made from amino acid sequence alignments of RclA (BLAST e value $< 1 \times 10^{-90}$ in 284

species), RclB (BLAST e value $< 1 \times 10^{-1}$ in 61 species), RclC, (BLAST e value $< 1 \times 10^{-80}$

in 49 species), and RclR (BLAST e value $< 1 \times 10^{-40}$ in 43 species). BLAST searches

were done by comparing to each respective protein in *E. coli* MG1655. Tree graphic

was made using the interactive tree of life (37) (https://itol.embl.de/). *Amino acid*

sequence alignments: Active site alignment of *E. coli* RclA (ADC80840.1) and MerA

amino acid sequences from seven bacterial species (*Escherichia coli*, ADC80840.1;

Staphylococcus aureus, AKA87329.1; *Salmonella enterica*, ABQ57371.1; *Listeria*

monocytogenes, PDA94520.1; *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, ABY75610.1; *Serratia*

marcescens, ADM52740.1). Alignment was made using CLUSTAL O (1.2.4)

(www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/clustalo/) and graphic was made with WEBLOGO

(weblogo.berkeley.edu/logo.cgi). Full length alignment of *E. coli* RclA (ADC80840.1)

and MerA (ADC80840.1). Alignment, conservation scoring, and graphic were made

using PRALINE (www.ibi.vu.nl/programs/pralinewww/).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Thanks to Dr. Peter Prevelige (UAB Department of Microbiology) for helpful

discussions, Emily Schwessinger (University of Michigan) for preliminary

characterization of RclA, Dr. Michael Jablonsky (UAB Chemistry Department) for

assistance with CD spectra acquisition, Dr. Won-Jae Lee (Seoul National University) for

providing the *D. melanogaster* Duox RNAi line, and William Van Der Pol and Ranjit

Kumar at the UAB Center for Clinical and Translational Science for their help with the

RNA sequencing analysis. This project was supported by University of Alabama at

Birmingham Department of Microbiology startup funds, NIH grant R35GM124590 (to

M.J.G), NIH grant R35GM128871 (to N.A.B.), and NIH training grant T90DE022736 (to

R.M.D).

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

R.M.D., A.J.B., C.E.B., and I.F.C. performed research, and R.M.D., A.J.B, S.E.L.,

N.A.B, and M.J.G. contributed to designing research, analyzing data, and writing the

paper.

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SUPPLEMENTAL FIGURES

Supplemental Figure 1: Growth curve method to determine HOCl sensitivity by

measuring lag-phase extension. Overnight cultures of (A) MG1655 wild-type and (B)

MJG0046 (Δ*rclA*) were normalized to A_{600} = 0.8 in MOPS minimal media and diluted to

A_{600} = 0.08 in MOPS ± HOCl at the indicated concentrations. Cultures were incubated

with shaking at 37 °C in a Tecan Infinite M1000 plate reader with A_{600} being measured

every hour for 24 hours (n = 3, ± SD). Sensitivity was assessed by comparing lag phase

extensions (difference in hours to reach $A_{600} \geq 0.15$ from no HOCl control; vertical

dotted lines) for each HOCl concentration.

Supplemental Figure 2: Lag phase extension of HOCl-treated cells in logarithmic

growth phase. HOCl growth curves were performed as in Supplemental Figure 1 but

on log-phase cultures of each strain. To prepare the log-phase cultures, saturated

overnight cultures were subcultured in MOPS glucose and grown up at 37 °C with

shaking at 200 rpm until $A_{600} = 0.5$. *E. coli* lacking *rclA* (B) had increased lag-phase

extensions (LPE) relative to wild type (A) at all the tested HOCl concentrations. The

observed growth delays of the strains in the presence of HOCl did not correspond with

killing, as determined by viability spot plates (C, pictures representative of 3 biological

replicates). Viability spot plates were prepared by collecting 5 µL aliquots from each well

used for growth curves 10 minutes after adding MOPS ± HOCl to the OD-normalized

cells. Serial dilutions in PBS of the aliquots were performed and 5 µL of the dilutions

were spotted on LB plates and grown overnight at 37 °C.

Supplemental Figure 3: EcN colonizes Canton^S *D. melanogaster* to a greater

extent than MG1655. Flies were fed either *E. coli* MG1655 or EcN and bacterial loads

were measured (n = 5, ± SD). Statistical analysis was performed using a two-way

ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test (**** = P < 0.0001, ns = not significant).

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Supplemental Figure 4: Host-produced HOCl production is silenced by Duox

RNAi. *Canton-S* female flies were starved for 2 hours at 29°C. They were then

administered a 1:1 mixture of either *E. coli* Nissle (OD_{600}=200) or LB and 100 µM R19-S

prepared in 5% sucrose. After 30 minutes of feeding, all treatments were switched to

sucrose/R19-S mixture. 90 minutes after the initial infection, guts were dissected in PBS

and fixed in 4% formaldehyde for 50 minutes. Guts were mounted in Vectashield/DAPI

and visualized on a Leica SP8 confocal microscope with a red emission range of 530-

603.

Supplemental Figure 5: Alignment of full length RclA with MerA sequences from representative bacterial species. Alignment of *E. coli* RclA (ADC80840.1) and MerA amino acid sequences from seven species (*Escherichia coli*, ADC80840.1; *Staphylococcus aureus*, AKA87329.1; *Salmonella enterica*, ABQ57371.1; *Listeria monocytogenes*, PDA94520.1; *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, ABY75610.1; *Serratia marcescens*, ADM52740.1). Alignment, conservation scoring, and graphic were made using PRALINE.

Supplemental Figure 6: Amino acid conservation in RclA sequences from 284

species. Alignment of RclA sequences made using MUSCLE (BLAST e value < 1×10^{-90}

in 284 species) and graphic made using Weblogo (weblogo.berkeley.edu/logo.cgi).

Sequences are from the species represented in Figure 1 and listed in Supplemental

Data Table 1.

Supplemental Figure 7: Extracellular CuCl$_2$ reduces LPE for both wild-type and

Δ*rclA* *E. coli* grown in the presence of HOCl. LPE determination for wild-type (A) and

Δ*rclA* (B) strains grown in the presence of the indicated HOCl and extracellular CuCl$_2$

conditions. Growth curves were performed as described in Supplemental Figure 1 but

with supplementing the MOPS glucose with the indicated CuCl$_2$ concentrations. HOCl

and CuCl$_2$ were mixed in MOPS minimal media prior to diluting cells A$_{600}$-normalized to

0.08 into each media type. LPEs were calculated by determining the difference in time

(hrs) to reach A$_{600}$ > 0.15 for each condition relative to no stress controls. Sensitivity

was assessed within strains by comparing LPEs for each HOCl/CuCl$_2$ concentration (n

= 4, ± SD) at each HOCl concentration (two-way ANOVA for each strain with Dunnett's

multiple comparison using the no CuCl$_2$ control for each HOCl concentration,

respectively; **** = P < 0.0001, *** = P < 0.001, ** = P < 0.01, * = P < 0.05, ns = not

significant).

Supplemental Figure 8: EcN colonization is improved when flies are fed copper.

D. melanogaster Canton[S] females fed for 24 hours on a mixture containing sucrose and

1mM $CuCl_2$ (or sterile water), which was applied to fly food on a paper disk. Flies were

then transferred to new food tubes containing sucrose and either *E. coli* Nissle wild-type

(WT) or *E. coli* Nissle Δ*rclA*. Individuals were collected, surface sterilized, homogenized,

and plated on LB agar at various time points to determine bacterial load (CFUs/fly).

Statistical analysis was performed with GraphPad Prism using a multiple t test with

Sidak-Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons. (N=3, n=60).

Supplemental Figure 9: Absence of intracellular copper reduces HOCl sensitivity

of *E. coli* lacking *rclA*. Wild type (A and B) and Δ*rclA* (C and D) *E. coli* were grown up

overnight in MOPS glucose with (B and D) and without copper (A and C). HOCl growth

curves were performed as described in Figure 6.

Supplemental Figure 10: Adding BME to the start solutions of RclA reactions does not increase SA and causes Cu(I) accumulation. RclA reactions performed as in Figure 7 but with the addition of 1 mM BME for indicated samples (n = 6, ± SD). SA (A) and BCS/Cu(I) concentration determined as in Figure 7. Differences in SA in the presence of each metal were analyzed using a two-way ANOVA with Dunnet's multiple comparison test using the buffer only sample as the control for each start solution (****= $P < 0.0001$).

Supplemental Figure 11: Changes in NADH and copper (I) concentrations over time during the RclA reaction. NADH oxidation (A) and BCS/Cu(I) complex formation (B) were measured over time spectrophotometrically with and without RclA. Reactions were started by adding 100 µL of NADH (200 µM final) or NADH and $CuCl_2$ (both 200 µM final) to 100 µL of RclA (3 µM final) at 37 °C using the injector system of a Tecan Infinite M1000 plate reader. All reactions were carried out in 20 mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, pH 7. NADH absorbance at 340 nm was measured each minute for the indicated reaction times. Each reaction was then stopped at the indicated times with 10 µL of a BCS (400 µM final) and EDTA (1 mM final) solution using the injector system of the plate reader (n = 6 for each reaction type, ± SD). The stopped reactions were incubated at 37 °C for 5 minutes with the absorbance of BCS/Cu(I) complex being measured at 483 nm each minute to ensure saturation of BCS. Reported BCS/Cu (I) values were calculated using the average of the total absorbance measurements over the five-

minute incubation because the values were stable over that time. Differences in the

amount of NADH or BCS/Cu(I) complex between the buffer only and RclA reactions

were analyzed using a 2-way ANOVA with Sidak's multiple comparison test (**** = P <

0.0001, *** = P < 0.001, * = P < 0.05, ns = not significant).

Supplemental Figure 12: The copper reductase activity of RclA is maintained

under anerobic conditions. BCS/Cu(I) complex concentrations were determined as in

Figure 7 but all reactions were performed in an anaerobic chamber (n = 6, ± SD).

Differences in the amount of BCS/Cu(I) complex between the buffer only and RclA (3

µM) reactions were analyzed using a two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison

test (****= P < 0.0001, ns = not significant).

Supplemental Figure 13: Intracellular copper concentrations do not change after HOCl stress in wildtype *E. coli*. Intracellular copper before and after HOCl stress (30 min at 400 µM) of wild-type (wt) and Δ*rclA* mutant strains was determined using ICP-MS. Differences between intracellular copper analyzed using a two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test (* = P < 0.05, ns = not significant).

Supplemental Figure 14: *rclA copA* mutants have a growth defect in copper-free

media. A double mutant of *rclA* and *copA* has a growth defect when grown in copper-

free MOPS when subcultured from overnight cultures grown either with (A) or without

copper (B). HOCl growth curves on cells with and without intracellular copper were

performed as described in Figure 6 with copper-free MOPS glucose (n = 3).

Supplemental Figure 15: The melting temperature (T_m) of RclA is approximately

10 °C higher than the average T_m of the *E. coli* proteome. (A) CD spectra of RclA

measured at indicated temperatures; 222 nm is indicated with a vertical dashed line.

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979 **Supplemental Figure 16: *E. coli Nissle* pellets contain consistent bacterial**

980 **density.** Three independent *E. coli Nissle* cultures were grown in 30 ml of LB at 37°C

981 with shaking for 20 hours. Cultures were pelleted by centrifugation at 3,428 x g.

982 Resulting pellets were adjusted to an OD_{600} of 200. Dilutions were plated to determine

983 CFUs/ml.