RclA is a thermostable copper (II) reductase required for reactive chlorine resistance

and host colonization in *Escherichia coli*.

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ABSTRACT

Inflammatory bowel diseases (IBDs) are a growing health concern and have been linked

to changes in gut microbiome composition. 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 such as hypochlorous acid (HOCl). The

mechanisms by which both copper and HOCl kill bacteria are complex and poorly

characterized. In this work, we show that the widely-conserved bacterial HOCl

resistance enzyme RclA catalyzes the reduction of copper (II) to copper (I), and that this

activity specifically protects *E. coli* against toxicity resulting from the combination of

HOCl and intracellular copper, probably by preventing Cu(III) accumulation. Mutant *E.*

coli lacking RclA were highly sensitive to killing by HOCl and were defective in

colonizing an animal host. Consistent with the need for RclA to maintain activity under

proteotoxic stress conditions, we found that RclA is remarkably thermostable and

resistant to inactivation by HOCl. Our results indicate new complexity in the interactions

between antimicrobial toxins produced by innate immune cells, and highlight that

understanding copper redox reactions both inside and outside of cells is critical to our

understanding of how bacteria evade innate immune factors during inflammation.

Keywords: RclA, bacterial stress response, HOCl, copper, inflammation, *E. coli*

SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT

During infection and inflammation, the innate immune system uses antimicrobial

compounds to control bacterial populations. These include toxic metals like copper and

reactive oxidants, including reactive chlorine species like hypochlorous acid (HOCl). We

have now found that RclA, an enzyme strongly induced by HOCl in pro-inflammatory

Escherichia coli and found in many bacteria inhabiting epithelial surfaces, reduces

copper (II) to copper (I), and that this activity is required to resist killing by HOCl and for

host colonization. This finding indicates that copper redox chemistry plays a critical and

previously unappreciated role in bacterial interactions with the innate immune system.

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 leads to increased production of antimicrobial compounds by the innate

immune system (9-11), 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, 12,

13). Since bacteria living in an inflamed gut are 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.

RCS are highly reactive oxidants produced by neutrophils and are potent

antibacterial compounds (14, 15) that have been reported to play a role in controlling

intestinal bacterial populations (16-18). The RCS response of *E. coli* is complex and

incompletely understood (15, 19-22), but characteristically involves repair of damaged

cellular components, often proteins (15). Protein-stabilizing chaperones are upregulated

during RCS stress, including Hsp33 (23, 24) and inorganic polyphosphate (22, 25, 26),

and enzymes are expressed that repair oxidized proteins, including periplasmic

methionine sulfoxide reductase (MsrPQ) (27) and the chaperedoxin CnoX (28). *E.* coli

has multiple HOCl-sensing regulators, including YedVW (which regulates MsrPQ) (27),

NemR (regulator of NemA and GloA, which detoxify reactive aldehydes) (19), HypT

(which regulates cysteine, methionine, and iron metabolism) (21), and RclR, the RCS-

specific activator of the *rclABC* operon (20).

Innate immune cells also 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 (29-31). HOCl-stressed *E. coli* down-regulate genes

encoding iron import systems (*e.g. fepABCD, fhuACDF*) and upregulate genes for zinc

and copper resistance (*e.g. copA, cueO, cusC, zntA, zupT*) (19), suggesting metals may

play some role in RCS resistance.

The predicted flavin-dependent oxidoreductase RclA of *E. coli* is strongly

upregulated in the presence of RCS (20, 32), protects against killing by HOCl via a

previously unknown mechanism (20), and is widely conserved among bacteria found on

epithelial surfaces. 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 in cell culture, most likely by catalyzing the breakdown of HOCl in the

media before it reaches the bacterial cells.

RESULTS

RclA is conserved among bacterial inhabitants of epithelial surfaces. In *E. coli*, the

expression of the *rcl* operon (*rclA*, *rclB*, and *rclC*) is controlled by the RCS specific

transcriptional activator RclR (20). 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 (SI Dataset S1), 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), suggesting that RclA's function is 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*.

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 (20). 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, 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). This confirms previous results and

validates the importance of RclA for 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 (16, 18). Since an *E. coli* K-12 strain did not efficiently colonize *D.*

melanogaster (Supplemental Figure 2), we used the colonization-proficient *E. coli* strain

Nissle 1917 (33, 34) in these experiments (Figure 2). *E. coli* Nissle 1917 Δ*rclA* mutants

had a significant defect in their ability to colonize *Drosophila* (Figure 2), which was

largely eliminated at the early timepoints of colonization when host Duox expression

was reduced with RNAi. This shows that RclA's contribution to *E. coli* HOCl resistance

is important for efficient host colonization.

RclA reduces copper (II) to copper (I). Although the role of RclA in protection from

RCS has been appreciated, the physiological function of RclA was unknown. Based on

its homology to other flavin-dependent disulfide oxidoreductases (35), 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) (36) (Figure 3 and Supplemental Figure 3). HOCl is capable of oxidizing transition

metals, including iron (37, 38) and manganese (39, 40). Although RclA and MerA share

a conserved CXXXXC active site (Figure 3), MerA has an extra N-terminal domain and

two additional conserved cysteine pairs for metal binding. RclA only has one conserved

cysteine pair (Figure 3 and Supplemental Figure 3), indicating that, if its substrate is a

metal, it must have a different metal-binding mechanism than MerA. We measured the

specific activity (SA) of RclA in the presence of a panel of biologically relevant metals.

We did not test mercury, since under normal conditions we do not expect *E. coli* to

encounter this metal in its environment. 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 (41, 42). Two of the metals we tested significantly affected RclA SA, as

measured by NADH oxidation. Copper greatly increased the SA of RclA, while zinc

caused a decrease in SA (Figure 4A). These results suggested that copper was a

substrate of RclA, and that zinc may inhibit RclA activity.

Since RclA is an NADH oxidase, the results shown in Figure 4A 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 (43). 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 (44,

45), 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) (46). NADH spontaneously reduces Cu(II) (47) 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) (48). 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 4). 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 4B, Supplemental Figure 4). Taken together,

these findings show that RclA has Cu(II) reductase activity and generates Cu(I) as a

product.

How does Cu(II) reductase protect *E. coli* against HOCl? Both HOCl and copper

cause oxidative stress in bacteria and Cu(I) is generally considered more toxic than

Cu(II) (15, 29, 49-52), 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 (31, 45, 53, 54), 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) (55-59) and both Cu(I) and Cu(II) are known to catalyze the breakdown

of HOCl (55-58). At near-neutral pH, similar to that in the large intestine or bacterial

cytoplasm, Cu(I) accelerates the decomposition of HOCl to O_2 and chloride ions by as

much as 10^8-fold (56).

We envisioned three possible mechanisms that might explain how Cu(II)

reduction to Cu(I) by RclA could protect bacteria against HOCl. First, since the copper

exporters of *E. coli* (CopA and CusCFBA) are upregulated by HOCl treatment (19) and

only transport Cu(I) (44, 60-62), it is possible that RclA facilitates the rapid export of

cytoplasmic copper, allowing it to react with and eliminate HOCl outside the cell.

Secondly, RclA might facilitate an HOCl-degrading Cu(I) / Cu(II) redox cycle in the

cytoplasm. Thirdly, RclA-catalyzed reduction of Cu(II) to Cu(I) might limit the production

of Cu(III) in the cytoplasm. Cu(III) is a known product of the reaction between HOCl and

Cu(II) (55-58), and is a highly reactive oxidant (59), with the potential to react with and

damage almost any cellular component. Uncontrolled production of Cu(III) could greatly

potentiate the ability of HOCl to kill bacterial cells.

Extracellular CuCl₂ protects both wild-type and Δ*rclA* E. coli against HOCl. To

distinguish between the above models, we first used growth curves in the presence of

copper and HOCl to identify how combinations of HOCl and copper influenced LPE of

wild type and $\Delta rclA$ mutant *E. coli* (Figure 5). Consistent with the ability of Cu to

decompose HOCl to non-toxic O_2 and Cl^- (55-58), addition of copper to HOCl-containing

media greatly decreased LPE for both the wild type and the *rclA* null mutant (Figure 5),

indicating that the presence of exogenous copper strongly protected *E. coli* against

HOCl. Copper being uniformly protective between the two strains makes it likely that

extracellular copper had reacted with and detoxified the HOCl before cells were

inoculated into the media.

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

We found that the *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 5). This indicates that although RclA may affect

basal copper homeostasis, it does not facilitate copper export during HOCl stress.

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 $\Delta rclA$ mutant *E. coli* overnight in minimal

media with and without copper before inoculating the strains into copper-free media to

perform HOCl-stress growth curves. If RclA's primary function was to drive cytoplasmic

HOCl decomposition, then the presence of intracellular copper would be expected to

protect wild-type *E. coli* against HOCl, and growth under copper-free conditions would

be expected to increase the sensitivity of the wild-type to match that of the Δ*rclA* mutant.

However, we actually observed that LPE extension after HOCl stress of the Δ*rclA*

mutant was decreased to that of wild-type when grown and stressed in copper-free

media (Figure 5). The decreased sensitivity of the Δ*rclA* mutant when intracellular

copper is limited suggests that the physiological role of RclA is to resist the stress

resulting from the combination of HOCl and copper in the cytoplasm. The combination

of copper and HOCl is known to generate strong oxidizing intermediates, most notably

Cu(III) (55-59). Our data demonstrate that intracellular copper potentiates killing by

HOCl, and that RclA's Cu(II) reductase activity counteracts this effect.

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*

(15, 21, 22, 26-28). 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 6A). By comparison, lactate

dehydrogenase had significantly decreased activity after treatment with a 5-fold excess

of HOCl (Figure 6B). RclA also retained 35.8% of full activity after being equilibrated in 6

M urea (Figure 6C). Finally, we used circular dichroism (CD) spectroscopy to measure

the melting temperature (T_m) of RclA, which was 65 °C (Figure 6D, Supplemental Figure

6), indicating that RclA is thermostable relative to the rest of the *E. coli* proteome, which

has an average T_m of approximately 55 °C (56, 63).

DISCUSSION

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

established (29, 31, 49, 50), although the exact mechanism(s) by which copper kills

bacteria remain incompletely known (52, 53). 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 4) required for resisting

killing by the combination of HOCl and intracellular copper in *E. coli* (Figure 5). In the

absence of *rclA*, *E. coli* had a significant defect in 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, 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 (29, 30), but how much is unbound by protein and its redox state under different

conditions are unknown (29). Given the broad conservation of RclA among host-

associated microbes, 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 (64, 65), as do RCS (66,

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

bacteria against RCS 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 (68, 69), 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.

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, 70, 71). 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 $\Delta rclA$ mutant support this idea (Figure 2). We 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* (20). We hypothesize that they may

support the copper-dependent activity of RclA, and are currently pursuing experiments

to test this idea.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Detailed experimental procedures are described in the *SI Appendix*.

Protein expression and purification. Twin-strep tagged RclA was expressed in M9

minimal media (72) containing 2 g l^{-1} glucose and 100 µg ml^{-1} ampicillin at 20 ºC.

Recombinant RclA was purified using a 1 mL StrepTrap HP column (GE, 28-9136-30

AC) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Colonization of D. melanogaster with E. coli Nissle 1917. *Canton-S D. melanogaster*

were used as a wild-type line. Duox-RNAi *D. melanogaster* were obtained from crosses

of *UAS-dDuox-RNAi* (17) with *NP1-GAL4* (enterocyte - specific driver). Adult female *D.*

melanogaster 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. *D. melanogaster* were sterilized and rinsed in sterile PBS before being

homogenized in screw-top bead tubes with PBS. *E. coli* colonies were identified by

morphology and counted.

NADH oxidase activity. RclA activity was assayed in 20 mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl,

pH 7 by measuring NADH oxidation over time. 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. NADH was quantified spectrophotometrically (ε_{340} = 6300 M^{-1} cm^{-1}).

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. Each

reaction was stopped at 5 minutes with a BCS (400 μM final) and EDTA (1 mM final)

solution. The absorbance of the BCS/Cu(I) complex was measured at 483 nm every

minute for five minutes to ensure complete saturation of the BCS, after which BCS/Cu(I)

was quantified spectrophotometrically (ε_{483} = 13,000 M^{-1} cm^{-1}) (46).

Measuring sensitivity to HOCl **in vivo.** Copper-free MOPS was prepared by treating

MOPS minimal media (Teknova) containing 2 g l^{-1} glucose and 1.32 mM K_2HPO_4 with

Chelex 100 (Bio-Rad), then adding back the metals normally present in MOPS except

for copper. Overnight cultures were normalized to A_{600} = 0.02 in copper-free MOPS with

the indicated concentrations of HOCl and $CuCl_2$. Cultures were incubated with shaking

at 37 °, measuring A_{600} every 30 minutes for 27 hours. Sensitivity was determined by

comparing lag phase extensions (LPE; 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.

Measuring intracellular copper after HOCl stress. Trace metal analysis was

performed using inductively coupled plasma mass spectroscopy (ICP-MS, Agilent

Technologies 7700x ICP-MS, Santa Clara, CA, USA). Wild-type and Δ*rclA E. coli* were

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

shaking. Each sample was pelleted and rinsed three times with PBS before being

suspended in concentrated nitric acid. Samples were diluted to 2% nitric acid and

filtered before ICP-MS analysis. Copper concentrations were determined by comparison

to a standard curve using Agilent software (ICP-MS MassHunter v4.3) and normalized

to cell mass (wet weight).

NADH oxidase activity after treatment with urea and HOCl. RclA (3 µM) was

equilibrated for 24 hours at room temperature with increasing concentrations of urea (0,

2, 4, and 6 M) in 20 mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, pH 7. HOCl treatment was done by

mixing increasing molar ratios of HOCl (0, 5, 10, and 20-fold excess) with 35 µM RclA or

L-lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) (Sigma-Aldrich) in 50 mM sodium phosphate, pH 6.8,

150 mM NaCl and incubating on ice for 30 minutes. LDH reactions were performed

under the same conditions as the RclA reactions but contained no copper and were

started with 1.2 mM NADH and 1.2 mM pyruvate.

Melting temperature determination. CD spectra were collected on purified RclA in 20

mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, pH 7.5. Thermal CD data between 30 °C and 90 °C were

obtained in standard 1.0 mm quartz cells. Data were baseline corrected against the

appropriate buffer solution and smoothed with Jasco software.

Data analysis and bioinformatics. All statistical analyses were performed using

GraphPad Prism (version 7.0a). RclA conservation tree was made from amino acid

sequence alignments using MUSCLE of RclA (BLAST e value < 1×10^{-90} in 284 species),

RclB (BLAST e value < 1×10^{-1} in 61 species), RclC, (BLAST e value < 1×10^{-80} in 49

species), and RclR (BLAST e value < 1×10^{-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 (73). Active site alignment of *E. coli* RclA

(ADC80840.1) and MerA amino acid sequences from seven bacterial species was

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

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

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

PRALINE.

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CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

R.M.D., A.J.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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FIGURES

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). See SI Dataset

S1 for lists of each hit used in the phylogenetic tree. Tree graphic was made using the

interactive tree of life (73).

Figure 2: RclA contributes to host colonization in the presence of Duox-mediated

oxidative stress. *E. coli* Nissle 1917 (EcN) Δ*rclA* mutants had a significant defect in

their ability to colonize *D. melanogaster* compared to wild-type (wt) EcN. *NP1-GAL4*

control or *DuoxIR* (Duox-inhibited) *D. melanogaster* were fed either wt or Δ*rclA* EcN and

bacterial loads were measured (n = 4 - 5, ± SD). Statistical analysis was performed

using a two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test (**** = $P < 0.0001$, ** =

$P < 0.01$, ns = not significant).

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

Active site consensus sequence 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.

Figure 4: RclA is Cu(II) reductase. (A) RclA specific activity (SA) increases in the

presence of Cu(II). Specific activity (μmole NAD^+ min^{-1} mg^{-1} RclA) of RclA was assayed

by measuring NADH 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 for each reaction type, ± 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 Sidak's multiple comparison test (****= $P < 0.0001$, ns = not significant).

Figure 5: Extracellular CuCl₂ protects both wild-type and Δ*rclA E. coli* against

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

Comparing LPE of wild-type (wt) and Δ*rclA E. coli* strains in various combinations of

HOCl (132 µM) and $CuCl_2$ (n = 3, ± SD). Media conditions are as follows:

"stressed/grown in MOPS" = background copper in the media (9 nM $CuCl_2$), "stressed in

MOPS + $CuCl_2$" = background copper in the media (9 nM $CuCl_2$) + 10 µM $CuCl_2$ added

(copper was added to media and mixed with HOCl before resuspending cells in the

mixture), "stressed/grown in MOPS – $CuCl_2$" = media treated with a metal chelator, then

supplemented with all metals usually present in MOPS excluding copper. Differences

between strain LPE were determined by comparing LPE for each $CuCl_2$ concentration

at each growth condition between strains (two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple

comparison test; *** = $P < 0.001$, ** = $P < 0.01$, ns = not significant).

Figure 6. 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 Supp Figure 6) 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).

637 **Figure 7. Proposed model for how RclA protects *E. coli* against combined HOCl**

638 **and copper stress.** The Cu(II) reductase activity of RclA may be important in reversing

639 the oxidation of copper by HOCl, preventing the production of toxic Cu(III).