# **Ubiquinone is a key antioxidant during long-chain**

# **fatty acid metabolism in** *Escherichia coli*

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Thesis submitted for the partial fulfillment of the degree of

### **DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**



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### **Certificate**

The work presented in this thesis has been carried out by me under the supervision of Dr. Rachna Chaba at the Department of Biological Sciences, Indian Institute of Science Education and Research (IISER) Mohali, Punjab, India.

This work has not been submitted in part or full for a degree, diploma, or a fellowship to any other university or institute.

Whenever contributions of others are involved, every effort is made to indicate this clearly, with due acknowledgement of collaborative research and discussions. This thesis is a bonafide record of original work done by me and all sources listed within have been detailed in the bibliography.

**Date Place Shashank Agrawal**

In my capacity as the supervisor of the candidate's thesis work, I certify that the above statements made by the candidate are true to the best of my knowledge.

**Dr. Rachna Chaba**

 **(Supervisor)**

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### **Publication**

A part of the work embodied in this thesis has been published in:

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### **Thesis Synopsis**

### **Title – Ubiquinone is a key antioxidant during long-chain fatty acid metabolism in** *Escherichia coli*

**Supervisor – Dr. Rachna Chaba**

#### **Department – Department of Biological Sciences**

### **Institute – Indian Institute of Science Education and Research (IISER)-Mohali**

### **Chapter 1: Introduction**

Long-chain fatty acids (LCFAs) are carboxylic acids with an unbranched aliphatic chain comprising 12-20 carbon atoms. Several bacterial pathogens such as *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, and *Salmonella typhimurium* metabolize LCFAs derived from host tissues, which enables their survival in harsh environments and contributes to their virulence. From the industrial perspective, due to their highly reduced and anhydrous nature, LCFAs are a promising raw material for production of fuels and chemicals. Although LCFAs are a rich source of energy, they also confer various stresses on bacteria such as acid, membrane and oxidative stress. Therefore, understanding the mechanisms by which LCFAs induce stress in bacteria and in turn the strategies employed by bacteria to counteract such stresses is crucial for identifying targets for the development of new antibacterials and designing novel strategies to promote LCFA-utilization by industrial microbes.

In the present study, using *Escherichia coli* as the model bacterium, we investigated the reason for LCFA-induced oxidative stress and the combat strategies employed by bacteria to mitigate such stress. We showed that LCFA transport and degradation is responsible for elevated levels of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in cells cultured in LCFAs. Our results suggest that a large amount of reduced cofactors produced upon LCFA degradation increase electron flow in the electron transport chain (ETC) thus favoring enhanced production of ROS. Bacteria employ several defense mechanisms to combat ROS that includes both enzymatic players such as superoxide dismutases, catalases and peroxidases, and non-enzymatic players such as glutathione and ubiquinone. The role of ubiquinone, an electron carrier in the ETC, as an antioxidant in bacteria is underappreciated. There is only one report in *E. coli* that suggests ubiquinone as an antioxidant based on oxidative stress phenotypes of mutants defective in ubiquinone biosynthesis. But, how ubiquinone counteracts ROS, what is the physiological condition under which ubiquinone plays a predominant role as an antioxidant, and what is the relative contribution of ubiquinone to the overall oxidative stress response remains to be assessed. In this study, we analyzed data obtained from a high-throughput genetic screen of *E. coli* single-gene deletion library on oleate, a C18 LCFA. This analysis revealed that amongst various oxidative stress combat players, only the mutants defective in ubiquinone biosynthesis (*ubi* mutants) show significant growth defect in oleate. Through detailed genetic and biochemical experiments we established that ubiquinone is a key antioxidant during LCFA metabolism. Importantly, during the course of our investigation, we characterized *yqiC* as a new player involved in ubiquinone biosynthesis, and showed its genetic interaction with another ubiquinone biosynthesis player, *ubiI*.

### **Chapter 2: Degradation of long-chain fatty acids generates high levels of reactive oxygen species in** *E. coli*

Various mechanisms have been proposed in the literature to explain the correlation between LCFAs and oxidative stress, such as generation of lipid peroxides and peroxyl radicals by oxidative attack on unsaturated fatty acids, stress due to incorporation of fatty acids in the membrane, and β-oxidation of fatty acids. In this section of our study, we investigated the reason for LCFA-induced oxidative stress in *E. coli* by performing a detailed analysis of each individual step involved in LCFA utilization*.* By assaying ROS levels in various mutants defective in LCFA transport and β-oxidation we established that LCFA degradation is the reason for high levels of ROS in cells grown in LCFAs. Earlier reports suggest that ETC is one of the sites for ROS formation. We proposed that a large amount of reduced cofactors (NADH and FADH2) produced during LCFA metabolism increase electron flow in the ETC thereby increasing the probability of adventitious collision of electrons with  $O_2$  thus contributing to high ROS levels. Our results that ROS levels increase with increase in the chain length of fatty acids, and that both NADH/NAD<sup>+</sup> ratio and the activity of ETC complexes I and II increase in cells utilizing LCFAs are consistent with the above proposal.

### **Chapter 3: Ubiquinone is a key antioxidant during long-chain fatty acid metabolism in** *E. coli*

In this section, we investigated the players involved in counteracting oxidative stress in *E. coli* during LCFA metabolism. For this, we referred to the data obtained from high-throughput genetic screen where the Keio single-gene deletion library of *E. coli* was profiled on the LCFA, oleate. The genetic screen revealed that amongst mutants of various oxidative stress combat players, only mutants defective in ubiquinone biosynthesis (*ubi* mutants) show significant growth defect in oleate. We validated the growth phenotype of various *ubi* mutants in oleate at a candidate level. In candidate studies, we also included succinate that has traditionally been used as a carbon source to screen for genes involved in ubiquinone biosynthesis based on the increased requirement of ubiquinone for growth in succinate compared to glucose. Our results showed that amongst glucose, succinate and oleate, ubiquinone is maximally required for growth in oleate to counteract elevated levels of ROS generated by LCFA degradation. Further, our detailed genetic and biochemical data revealed that amongst various oxidative stress combat players in *E. coli*, ubiquinone is the major antioxidant during LCFA metabolism and acts as the cell's first line of defense against LCFAinduced oxidative stress. Importantly, we observed that ubiquinone accumulates in cells cultured in LCFAs and this accumulation is in response to LCFA degradation. Collectively, our data that LCFA degradation results in elevated levels of ROS and simultaneously signals ubiquinone accumulation suggests that a feedback loop prevents excessive ROS formation during LCFA metabolism.

### **Chapter 4: Identification of** *yqiC* **as a novel gene involved in ubiquinone**

### **biosynthesis in** *E. coli*

Studies in the last several decades have identified eleven ubiquinone biosynthesis genes in *E. coli*. Despite extensive investigations, there are several knowledge gaps in the ubiquinone biosynthesis pathway. For example, the exact role of ubiquinone biosynthesis players, UbiB and UbiJ, is not known and the residual levels of ubiquinone in certain *ubi* mutants suggest redundancy in the ubiquinone biosynthesis pathway. Our results from the previous chapter that the requirement of ubiquinone is maximal in oleate to relieve oxidative stress suggested that oleate is a better carbon source to screen for genes involved in ubiquinone biosynthesis. Therefore, to fill knowledge gaps in the ubiquinone biosynthesis pathway, we again referred to the data

from genetic screen. Amongst the top 100 deletion strains in the screen that showed significant growth defect in oleate were 21 strains that carried deletion in the genes of unknown function (*y* genes). Of these 21 strains, the  $\Delta$ *yqiC* strain showed maximum growth defect in oleate and was thus selected for detailed analysis. Our search through various databases indicated a strong correlation between *yqiC* and ubiquinone biosynthesis genes. Our results that ubiquinone levels are reduced to  $\sim$ 15-20% in the Δ*yqiC* strain clearly established *yqiC* as a new ubiquinone biosynthesis gene in *E. coli*. Importantly we found that the phenotype of Δ*yqiC* strain was similar to that of Δ*ubiI* strain that lacks a hydroxylase involved in ubiquinone biosynthesis: ubiquinone levels were reduced to ~15-20% in both deletion strains and amongst various carbon sources these strains showed significant growth defect only in oleate. The related phenotypes of *ubiI* and *yqiC* mutants prompted us to examine the phenotype of the *ubiI*-*yqiC* double mutant. Interestingly, in the *ubiI-yqiC* double mutant, there was no detectable ubiquinone and the strain did not grow either in oleate or succinate. Our results thus provide a strong genetic evidence of the interaction between *yqiC* and *ubiI*.

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chromatogram









### **Abbreviations**





 NBT Nitroblue tetrazolium 51 Ndh NADH dehydrogenase II NES Normalized enrichment score nm Nanometer nmol Nanomoles Nuo NADH dehydrogenase I O<sup>2</sup> Superoxide ion Oaa Oxaloacetate OD Optical density OHB 3-octaprenyl-4-hydroxybenzoate OPP 3-octaprenylphenol PCR Polymerase chain reaction PMF Proton motive force pmol Picomoles Q<sup>10</sup> Ubiquinone-10 Q<sup>8</sup> Ubiquinone-8  $66 \qquad Q_8H_2$  Ubiquinol-8 RNA Ribonucleic acid ROS Reactive oxygen species S.D. Standard deviation Sdh Succinate dehydrogenase SDS-PAGE Sodium dodecyl sulphate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis SOD Superoxide dismutase Suc Succinate Suc-CoA Succinyl-CoA



# **CHAPTER I**

**Introduction and Review of Literature**

### **1.1 Introduction**

*Escherichia coli*, a gram-negative, facultative anaerobe, exhibits tremendous metabolic flexibility. *E. coli* can utilize a broad range of organic carbon sources for heterotrophic growth, which includes both fermentable (e.g., glucose) and nonfermentable (e.g., fatty acids) carbon sources [\(Cronan and Laporte, 2005\)](#page-161-0). In this review, we discuss the routes for metabolism of different carbon sources in *E. coli* with a special focus on the metabolism of long-chain fatty acids (LCFAs). Besides *E. coli*, LCFAs serve as an energy-rich nutrient source for several pathogenic bacteria, which contributes to their survival and virulence [\(Fang et al., 2005;](#page-162-0) McKinney et al., [2000;](#page-166-0) [Son et al., 2007\)](#page-169-0). In addition to the important role of LCFAs in bacterial pathogenesis, because of the highly reduced and anhydrous nature of LCFAs, its metabolic pathway in *E. coli* is targeted for industrial production of fuels and chemicals [\(Dellomonaco et al., 2010;](#page-161-1) [Doi et al., 2014\)](#page-161-2). However, there are reports, which suggest that LCFAs confer various stresses on bacteria [\(Doi et al., 2014;](#page-161-2) [Lennen et al., 2011;](#page-165-0) [Rodriguez et al., 2014\)](#page-168-0). We present existing knowledge on the importance of LCFA metabolism in bacterial pathogenesis and industrial production. We describe instances where LCFA metabolism is linked with stresses in bacteria with a particular emphasis on oxidative stress. The information on the sites of reactive oxygen species (ROS) formation, the damaging effects of ROS and the players involved in combating oxidative stress in *E. coli* is presented Ubiquinone, a lipid-soluble electron carrier in the electron transport chain (ETC), has also been suggested to function as an antioxidant in *E. coli.* We briefly describe the pathway of ubiquinone biosynthesis and our current understanding of its role in mitigating oxidative stress.

#### **1.2 Metabolism of carbon sources in** *E. coli*

Energy for various cellular processes and precursors to build cellular components are the two basic requirements for an organism to grow and survive in a particular environment. These requirements are met by the metabolism of carbon sources. *E. coli* is capable of utilizing various carbon sources such as carbohydrates, fatty acids, amino acids, and therefore can grow in diverse environments.

### **1.2.1 General route for metabolism of carbon sources**

Metabolism is a multistep process, which operates in two stages. During the initial stage, carbon sources such as, glucose, fatty acids are degraded into smaller acetyl-CoA (a two-carbon compound; 2C), through a unique degradation pathway mediated by a specific set of proteins and co-factors. For example, glucose and LCFAs are degraded by glycolysis and β-oxidation, respectively. In the final stage, acetyl-CoA is completely degraded into two molecules of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  through tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle or metabolized through glyoxylate cycle. The reduced cofactors (NADH and FADH2) produced during both stages of metabolism are oxidized in the ETC. Therefore, metabolism of every carbon source converges into central metabolism, i.e., TCA cycle, glyoxylate cycle and ETC [\(Clark and Cronan, 2005;](#page-161-3) [Cronan and Laporte,](#page-161-0)  [2005;](#page-161-0) [Romeo and Snoep, 2005;](#page-168-1) [Unden and Dunnwald, 2008\)](#page-170-0) (Fig.1.1).

#### **1.2.1.1 Initial stage: Oxidation of carbon sources to two-carbon compound**

Carbohydrates are polyhydroxy aldehydes or ketones, or the compounds that can be hydrolyzed to form the same. These include glucose, mannose, galactose, maltose etc. that differ in complexity, structure or functional groups. Among carbohydrates, glucose is the most simple and preferred carbon source for *E. coli*. Glucose is a sixcarbon (6C) compound, which is degraded to produce pyruvate (3C) by the process called glycolysis. Further, pyruvate dehydrogenase converts pyruvate to acetyl-CoA (2C) generating one molecule of NADH. Glycolysis is a multistep pathway catalyzed by various enzymes yielding ATP, reduced cofactors and several intermediates. The intermediates serve as precursors for the synthesis of various biomolecules. Glycolysis is a nine-step process out of which three steps are irreversible. However, *E. coli* also possesses enzymes that can catalyze the backward reaction at irreversible steps during glycolysis. These enzymes together with other enzymes performing reversible reactions during glycolysis are employed by another pathway, gluconeogenesis. This pathway operates to generate glucose and other glycolytic intermediates from non-carbohydrate substrates. Therefore, gluconeogenesis is important for providing cellular precursors during growth on carbon sources that are not degraded through glycolysis [\(Romeo and Snoep, 2005\)](#page-168-1) (Fig. 1.1).

Fatty acids consist of an aliphatic hydrocarbon chain with a terminal carboxylic group. Whereas the two-carbon short-chain fatty acid, acetate is directly converted into acetyl-CoA, LCFAs are initially degraded by β-oxidation [\(Clark and](#page-161-3)  [Cronan, 2005\)](#page-161-3). Amino acids have a similar carbon skeleton consisting of an alpha carbon, which is bonded to a carboxyl group, an amino group, and an alkyl (R) group. Amino acids are modified by enzymatic reactions such as transamination, and are converted to various TCA intermediates such as α-ketoglutarate, oxaloacetate and fumarate [\(Hatfield, 2008;](#page-163-0) [Reitzer, 2005\)](#page-168-2) (Fig. 1.1).

Importantly, acetyl-CoA produced from specific pathways such as glycolysis and β-oxidation is further degraded through TCA and glyoxylate cycles, and reduced cofactors produced are oxidized in the ETC for generation of energy [\(Clark and](#page-161-3)  [Cronan, 2005\)](#page-161-3) (Fig. 1.1).

## **1.2.1.2 Final stage: Central metabolic pathway for complete degradation of carbon sources**

#### **1.2.1.2.1 Tricarboxylic acid cycle**

The condensation reaction between acetyl-CoA and oxaloacetate (OAA) marks the first step of TCA cycle. Further, reactions such as dehydration, hydration, decarboxylation, phosphorylation and dehydrogenation degrade acetyl-CoA into two molecules of CO<sub>2</sub> and OAA is regenerated. OAA then condenses again with another molecule of acetyl-CoA. During each round of TCA cycle, three molecules of NADH and one molecule of FADH2 are produced [\(Cronan and Laporte, 2005\)](#page-161-0). Besides energy generation, TCA intermediates serve as precursors for the synthesis of several cellular components. For example, α-ketoglutarate synthesizes amino acids such as serine and tyrosine, succinyl-CoA is required for the synthesis of cytochromes (an ETC component), OAA is converted to aspartate which is important for the synthesis of pyrimidine nucleotides [\(Layer et al., 2010;](#page-164-0) [Romano and Nickerson, 1958\)](#page-168-3). Depending upon the environmental condition, *E. coli* can also utilize TCA cycle intermediates such as succinate and malate as carbon source [\(Lukas et al., 2010\)](#page-165-1) (Fig. 1.1).

#### **1.2.1.2.2 Glyoxylate cycle**

During growth of cells on acetate or substrates, such as LCFAs, intermediates for synthesis of cellular components are not generated in the initial stage of degradation. However, under these growth conditions, gluconeogenesis operates to convert OAA to phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP), providing different cellular precursors. Another metabolic pathway, glyoxylate shunt also operates that generates OAA from acetyl-CoA [\(Cronan and Laporte, 2005\)](#page-161-0).

Glyoxylate pathway is similar to TCA cycle; however, it bypasses the two decarboxylation steps of TCA cycle, thus preventing the loss of carbon from acetyl-CoA as CO2. Similar to TCA cycle, during glyoxylate shunt, OAA condenses with acetyl-CoA to generate citrate that is further converted to isocitrate. However, in contrast to TCA cycle where isocitrate undergoes decarboxylation, during glyoxylate shunt isocitrate is cleaved to succinate and glyoxylate. Subsequently, glyoxylate reacts with another molecule of acetyl-CoA forming malate, and malate is further oxidized to OAA. Because glyoxylate shunt allows the synthesis of constituents of biomass from two-carbon (2C) substrates, therefore it is an important pathway for growth of *E. coli* on carbon sources such as acetate and LCFAs (Fig. 1.1) [\(Clark and](#page-161-3)  [Cronan, 2005;](#page-161-3) [Cronan and Laporte, 2005\)](#page-161-0). The enzymes for glyoxylate shunt are encoded by the *aceBAK* operon and are tightly regulated. Glyoxylate cycle is active under glucose limitation; *aceBAK* operon is kept repressed by IclR repressor and is regulated by pyruvate and glyoxylate levels [\(Bernal et al., 2016\)](#page-160-0).



**Figure 1.1 Metabolic routes for degradation of different carbon sources.** Carbon sources such as Glucose and LCFAs are degraded by Glycolysis and β-oxidation, respectively to acetyl-CoA. Acetyl-CoA feeds into the TCA and Glyoxylate cycle for further metabolism. Amino acids such as Glutamate and Aspartate are converted to TCA intermediates, αketoglutarate and fumarate, respectively. Other carbon sources such as Acetate, is converted to acetyl-CoA and fed to TCA cycle for degradation, while Succinate is directly utilized as TCA intermediate. Reduced cofactors (NADH and FADH<sub>2</sub>) produced during Glycolysis, βoxidation, TCA cycle and Glyoxylate cycle, are oxidized in ETC to generate energy. Abbreviations: *Oaa*, oxaloacetate; *Cit*, citrate; *Isocit*, isocitrate; *α-KG*, α-ketoglutarate; *Suc-CoA*, succinyl-CoA; *Suc*, succinate; *Fum*, fumarate; *Mal*, malate; *Glo*, glyoxylate.

### **1.2.2 Electron transport chain (ETC)**

In ETC a substrate is oxidized and the electrons are transferred through different ETC components to a final electron acceptor. ETC components, therefore, participate in redox reactions that are coupled with translocation of protons from the cytoplasm to the periplasm thus generating proton gradient or proton motive force (PMF) across the cytoplasmic membrane. Consequently, certain membrane proteins utilize PMF to perform various physiological processes such as antibiotic resistance, transport of solutes and ATP synthesis [\(Ezraty et al., 2013;](#page-162-1) [Soballe and Poole, 1999;](#page-169-1) [Unden and](#page-170-0)  [Dunnwald, 2008\)](#page-170-0). The process by which PMF generated during ETC is utilized to produce ATP is called oxidative phosphorylation. Besides PMF dependent functions, another important role of ETC is to maintain redox balance. ETC components are present in the inner-membrane and can be divided into three categories, i) substratespecific dehydrogenases that oxidize different organic substrates and transfer electrons to quinones, ii) quinones that accept electrons from dehydrogenases and transfer these to terminal oxidases, and iii) terminal oxidases which transfer electrons to final electron acceptors [\(Unden and Bongaerts, 1997\)](#page-170-1) (Fig. 1.2).

#### **1.2.2.1 Diversity of ETC components**

ETC can have variable composition depending on the nature of electron donors and electron acceptors. Multiple dehydrogenases, quinones and terminal oxidases are present in *E. coli* that enable transfer of electrons from specific substrates to specific electron acceptors. Substrates such as NADH, succinate, hydrogen, formate, lactate, pyruvate and glycerol-3-phosphate are oxidized by dehydrogenases encoded by *nuoA-N* or *ndh*, *sdhABCD*, *hyaABC* or *hybABC*, *fdnGHI* or *fdoGHI*, *lldD* or *dld*, *poxB* and *glpD* or *glpABC*, respectively. Oxidases encoded by *cyoABCD* or *cydABX* or *appCD*, *narGHI* or *narZYV* or *napABC*, *nrfAB*, *dmsABC*, *torACD*, *frdABCD*, and *phsABC* transfer electrons to the final electron acceptor oxygen, nitrate, nitrite, dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), trimethylamine N-oxide (TMAO), fumarate and thiosulphate, respectively [\(Unden and Bongaerts, 1997\)](#page-170-1). There are three types of quinones in *E. coli* that function as electron carriers in ETC; whereas ubiquinone mainly functions during aerobic respiration, menaquinone (MK) and demethylmenaquinone (DMK) function under anaerobic conditions [\(Soballe and Poole, 1999\)](#page-169-1). Certain dehydrogenases and terminal oxidases translocate protons during electron transfer; however, they vary in their efficiency of proton translocation [\(Imlay, 2003\)](#page-163-1). The PMF generated in the ETC drives ATP synthesis through ATP synthase complex [\(Capaldi](#page-160-1)  [et al., 2000\)](#page-160-1).

During aerobic respiration, the reduced cofactors, NADH and FADH2, produced from the metabolism of carbon sources are oxidized by dehydrogenases NuoA-N or Ndh and SdhABCD, respectively. NuoA-N and Ndh are referred to as ETC complex I, and SdhABCD as ETC complex II. Ubiquinone accepts electrons from complex I and II, and transfers these to the terminal oxidases CyoABCD, CydABX and AppCD [\(Unden and Bongaerts, 1997\)](#page-170-1) (Fig. 1.2).

### **1.2.2.2 Complex I: NADH dehydrogenase**

There are two types of NADH dehydrogenases in *E. coli,* NADH dehydrogenase I (NDH-1 or Nuo) and NADH dehydrogenase II (NDH-2 or Ndh). During aerobic respiration, both Nuo and Ndh can catalyze the transfer of electrons from NADH to ubiquinone [\(Unden and Bongaerts, 1997\)](#page-170-1). However, an earlier study showed that the oxygen consumption rate decreases significantly on deleting *ndh*, but not in *nuo* deletion strains, suggesting that Ndh is the major dehydrogenase during aerobic respiration [\(Tran et al., 1997\)](#page-170-2).

Nuo is a multi-subunit complex constituted by a dozen of proteins present in the inner membrane [\(Unden and Bongaerts, 1997\)](#page-170-1). The complete Nuo complex can be divided into three parts: soluble, amphipathic and hydrophobic. Soluble part is composed of NuoE, F and G subunits that contain iron-sulfur clusters and FMN cofactor that catalyzes the oxidation of NADH. The amphipathic part is a connecting segment composed of NuoB, CD and I subunits. The hydrophobic fragment is constituted by NuoA, H, J, K, L, M and N subunits [\(Braun et al., 1998;](#page-160-2) [Euro et al.,](#page-162-2)  [2008;](#page-162-2) [Leif et al., 1995\)](#page-164-1). Importantly, NuoM subunit contains ubiquinone-binding site, and NuoJ, NuoK, NuoM and NuoN subunits together are involved in generation of PMF [\(Gong et al., 2003;](#page-163-2) [Kaila et al., 2014\)](#page-163-3). Recently, a ratio of  $3H<sup>+/2e<sup>-</sup></sup>$  has been proposed for oxidation of one molecule of NADH through Nuo [\(Wikstrom and](#page-170-3)  [Hummer, 2012\)](#page-170-3). In contrast to Nuo that can oxidize both NADH and deamino-NADH, Ndh catalyzes the transfer of electrons only from NADH [\(Matsushita et al.,](#page-166-1)  [1987\)](#page-166-1). Ndh is a single-subunit dehydrogenase encoded by *ndh* gene. Ndh does not contribute to PMF generation, as there is no coupling of proton translocation with electron transfer from NADH [\(Friedrich and Pohl, 2007;](#page-162-3) [Unden and Dunnwald,](#page-170-0)  [2008\)](#page-170-0).

Sequence analysis of Ndh suggests four domains: a FAD-binding domain, a NADH binding domain, a membrane anchoring domain and a copper binding domain [\(Rapisarda et al., 2002\)](#page-168-4). In the anaerobic ETC, the preference for NADH dehydrogenase varies with terminal electron acceptor; whereas in the presence of nitrate Ndh is preferred, with fumarate or DMSO the oxidation of NADH is more dependent on Nuo [\(Tran et al., 1997\)](#page-170-2).

### **1.2.2.3 Complex II: Succinate dehydrogenase**

Succinate dehydrogenase (Sdh) catalyzes the oxidation of succinate to fumarate and transfers electrons to ubiquinone [\(Unden and Dunnwald, 2008\)](#page-170-0). Sdh is a complex
composed of four subunits bound to the membrane. SdhA and SdhB subunits constitute the hydrophilic cytoplasmic part while SdhC and SdhD subunits are two hydrophobic integral membrane proteins [\(Trezza et al., 2017\)](#page-170-0). SdhB contains three iron-sulfur clusters, whereas SdhA contains covalently bound FAD cofactor. The interface of SdhB, SdhC and SdhD subunits has the quinone-binding site [\(Tran et al.,](#page-170-1)  [2006\)](#page-170-1). Another protein, SdhE enables the assembly of covalent flavin linkage in SdhA subunit [\(Maklashina et al., 2016\)](#page-165-0). Sdh is a reversible enzyme that functions during both TCA cycle and ETC. Whereas during TCA cycle, Sdh oxidizes succinate to fumarate and simultaneously reduces FAD to FADH2, during ETC it oxidizes FADH<sup>2</sup> to FAD and transfers electrons to ubiquinone. In contrast to complex I, oxidation of FADH2 to FAD by Sdh does not contribute to the generation of PMF [\(Unden and](#page-170-2)  [Bongaerts, 1997\)](#page-170-2).

# **1.2.2.4 Quinones**

Quinones are membrane-bound lipids that function as electron carriers in ETC. Structurally, quinone consists of an aromatic quinonoid ring attached to a polyprenyl aliphatic chain. Depending on whether the aromatic ring is benzene or naphthalene, quinones are classified as benzoquinones (e.g. ubiquinone) and naphthoquinones (e.g. MK and DMK), respectively. The number of isoprene units in the polyprenyl chain varies with species. In *E. coli*, the polyprenyl chain of all three quinone species contains eight isoprene units therefore these are termed as ubiquinone-8, MK-8 and DMK-8. Ubiquinone-8 is also referred to as coenzyme-8 or  $Q_8$  [\(Meganathan, 2001\)](#page-166-0).

Quinones exist in two redox states, quinone and quinol. Quinone accepts electrons from upstream dehydrogenases and gets converted to quinol, which further transfers electrons to terminal oxidases and is oxidized back to quinone [\(Soballe and](#page-169-0)  [Poole, 1999\)](#page-169-0) (Fig. 1.2). The mid-point potential of quinones determines their specificity for particular electron donors and acceptors in the ETC. Because ubiquinone has high midpoint potential ( $E^{\circ}$ = +100 mV), therefore it can participate in aerobic respiration, while MK and DMK with low midpoint potentials ( $E^{\prime}$ <sup>o</sup>= -74 mV and +36 mV respectively) participate in anaerobic respiration [\(Alvarez et al.,](#page-159-0)  [2013\)](#page-159-0). Ubiquinone alongwith terminal oxidases of the ETC is also known to play a critical role in maintaining oxidizing environment in the periplasm by re-oxidizing the disulfide bond forming machinery (the inner membrane disulfide oxidoreductase, DsbB and the periplasmic disulfide oxidoreductase, DsbA) [\(Bardwell et al., 1991;](#page-159-1) [Kobayashi et al., 1997\)](#page-164-0).

# **1.2.2.5. Terminal oxidases: CyoABCD, CydABX and AppCD**

During aerobic respiration, three enzyme complexes function as terminal oxidases; cytochrome *bo* oxidase (CyoABCD), cytochrome *bd*-I oxidase (CydABX) and cytochrome *bd*-II oxidase (AppCD) [\(Unden and Bongaerts, 1997\)](#page-170-2). Among these, CyoABCD has less affinity towards oxygen, and it is expressed when oxygen levels are high while CydABX has high affinity towards oxygen and is expressed under oxygen-limited conditions. AppCD complex has not been investigated in detail [\(Bekker et al., 2009\)](#page-159-2). Both CyoABCD and CydABX contribute to generation of PMF [\(Puustinen et al., 1991\)](#page-168-0).

CyoABCD complex consists of four subunits, CyoA, CyoB, CyoC, and CyoD that perform catalytic function, however, another protein CyoE is required for the functional expression of cytochrome *bo* oxidase [\(Minghetti et al., 1992;](#page-166-1) [Saiki et al.,](#page-168-1)  [1993\)](#page-168-1). The enzymes contain two heme groups i.e. heme O and heme B which are coupled with copper, therefore forming a heme-copper binuclear center. This center is the site for reduction of molecular oxygen to water [\(Mogi et al., 1994\)](#page-166-2). The redox transfer of electrons from ubiquinol to molecular oxygen through CyoABCD is coupled with proton translocation. Oxidation of ubiquinol through CyoABCD translocates four protons into the periplasmic space and two electrons are transferred to oxygen, hence the  $H^+$ /e ratio is 2 [\(Unden and Bongaerts, 1997\)](#page-170-2).

CydABX also catalyzes the two-electron oxidation of ubiquinol and fourelectron reduction of molecular oxygen and according to recent reports the  $H^+$ / $e^-$ ratio for this enzyme is 0.94 [\(Borisov et al., 2011a;](#page-160-0) [Borisov et al., 2011b\)](#page-160-1). This complex is a heterodimer, where CydA is the site of ubiquinol oxidation that contains heme *b<sup>558</sup>* component. The other two components CydB and CydX together contain heme *b<sup>595</sup>* and heme *d*, which is the site for reduction of oxygen to water [\(Hill et al., 1993;](#page-163-0) [Matsumoto et al., 2006;](#page-166-3) [Miller et al., 1988\)](#page-166-4). CydABX also contributes to generating PMF, but in contrast to CyoABCD, it does not function as a proton pump [\(Puustinen](#page-168-0)  [et al., 1991\)](#page-168-0).



**Figure 1.2 Diagrammatic representation of electron transport chain during aerobic respiration.** ETC complex I (NADH dehydrogenase) and ETC complex II (Succinate dehydrogenase) oxidizes reduced cofactors, NADH and FADH2, respectively and transfer the

electrons to ubiquinone which is reduced to ubiquinol. Terminal oxidases accept electrons from ubiquinol and oxidize it back to ubiquinone. Molecular oxygen finally accepts electrons from terminal oxidases and gets converted to water molecule. The redox transfer of electrons through complex I and terminal oxidases are coupled with translocation of protons from cytoplasm to periplasm thus generating PMF. ATP synthase utilizes PMF and transfers protons back to cytoplasm from periplasm, and simultaneously generates ATP. Abbreviations:  $Q_8$ , ubiquinone-8;  $Q_8H_2$ , ubiquinol;  $H^+$ , proton;  $e^{\frac{1}{2}}$ , electron.

# **1.2.3 Fermentable and Non-fermentable carbon sources**

During metabolism, energy (ATP) is generated either through substrate-level phosphorylation or oxidative phosphorylation. Substrate-level phosphorylation is a metabolic chemical reaction that generates ATP by transferring phosphoryl group to ADP from a phosphorylated substrate, while during oxidative phosphorylation PMF generated due to oxidation of reduced substrate in the ETC is accompanied by phosphorylation of ADP to ATP. During the metabolism of fermentable carbon sources (e.g., glucose), energy is derived both by substrate-level phosphorylation during glycolysis and by oxidative phosphorylation in ETC, however, latter process is the sole means of energy production for growth on non-fermentable carbon sources (e.g., succinate, acetate, and fatty acids) [\(Berger, 1973\)](#page-160-2). Furthermore, in contrast to growth on fermentable carbon sources where metabolic intermediates are generated in glycolysis and TCA cycle, growth on non-fermentable carbon sources is totally dependent on the optimal functioning of gluconeogenesis, TCA and glyoxylate cycles for production of cellular metabolites [\(Clark and Cronan, 2005;](#page-161-0) [Cronan and Laporte,](#page-161-1)  [2005\)](#page-161-1).

#### **1.3 Long-chain fatty acid metabolism**

LCFAs are a rich source of metabolic energy for *E. coli* and are also important components of the membrane. LCFAs once internalized are either degraded to generate energy and provide precursors for cellular components, or modified to form phospholipids that integrate into the membrane [\(Iram and Cronan, 2006\)](#page-163-1).

#### **1.3.1 Classification of fatty acids**

Fatty acids consist of an aliphatic hydrocarbon chain with a terminal carboxylic group. On the basis of number of carbon atoms present in the aliphatic chain, fatty acids are categorized into short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs; 2 to 4C), medium-chain fatty acids (MCFAs; 5 to 11C) and long-chain fatty acids (LCFAs; 12 to 18C) [\(Bernal](#page-160-3)  [et al., 2016;](#page-160-3) [Mattam and Yazdani, 2013;](#page-166-5) [Nunn et al., 1979\)](#page-167-0). Further, on the basis of saturation of carbon with hydrogen in the aliphatic chain, fatty acids are either saturated or unsaturated [\(Feng and Cronan, 2009\)](#page-162-0). Of the various fatty acids, *E. coli* K12 can only utilize SCFAs, acetate (2C) and propionate (3C), and LCFAs [\(Bernal et](#page-160-3)  [al., 2016;](#page-160-3) [Wegener et al., 1967\)](#page-170-3). However, certain pathogenic strains of *E. coli* can also metabolize the four-carbon SCFA, butyrate, and MCFAs [\(Martinez-Vallespin et](#page-165-1)  [al., 2016;](#page-165-1) [Tobe et al., 2011\)](#page-170-4).

# **1.3.2 Pathway of long-chain fatty acid metabolism and its regulation**

The initial stage of LCFA metabolism is carried out by proteins encoded by *fad* (fatty acid degradation) genes involved in the transport of LCFAs and its degradation to acetyl-CoA. During the final stage, acetyl-CoA is subsequently metabolized in TCA and glyoxylate cycles (Fig. 1.1). The *fad* genes are regulated by the fatty acid specific transcriptional regulator FadR, ArcAB two-component system and cAMP-CRP global regulator [\(Fujita et al., 2007\)](#page-162-1).

# **1.3.2.1 Transport of long-chain fatty acids**

Unlike SCFAs that are transported across the outer membrane through diffusion, LCFAs due to its long hydrophobic chain require a specific transporter (Bernal et al., [2016;](#page-160-3) [Maloy et al., 1981\)](#page-165-2). FadL, an outer membrane protein, is a well-established transporter for LCFAs in *E. coli*. Crystal structure shows that FadL is a 14-stranded antiparallel β-barrel, and functions as a ligand-gated diffusion channel that transports LCFAs into periplasm [\(van den Berg et al., 2004\)](#page-170-5). Long-chain fatty acid CoAsynthetase (FadD) has a dual role in LCFA metabolism. FadD catalyzes the first step of β-oxidation and is also likely involved in the transport of LCFAs through the inner membrane (Fig. 1.3). The process is called 'fatty acid permeation by vectorial acylation' [\(Fujita et al., 2007;](#page-162-1) [Schmelter et al., 2004\)](#page-168-2). Altogether, exogenous LCFAs are transported into the cytoplasm with the help of FadL and FadD, and the absence of either of these proteins inhibits LCFA transport [\(Overath et al., 1969\)](#page-167-1).

# **1.3.2.2 Long-chain fatty acid degradation: β-oxidation**

Earlier studies in 1970's reported that the components of LCFA transport and degradation are induced simultaneously, and strains defective in β-oxidation show reduced uptake of LCFAs. Thus LCFA transport and degradation are coupled processes [\(Klein et al., 1971\)](#page-164-1). During one round of β-oxidation two carbon atoms of LCFAs are released as acetyl-CoA, hence for complete degradation of molecule of LCFA β-oxidation runs multiple times. β-oxidation is broadly a four-step pathway, catalyzed by FadD, FadE, FadB and FadA [\(Fujita et al., 2007\)](#page-162-1) (Fig. 1.3).

#### **1.3.2.2.1 Fatty acyl-CoA synthetase (FadD)**

FadD, fatty acyl-CoA synthetase/ligase, located at both the inner membrane and in the cytoplasm, is the first enzyme involved in β-oxidation. FadD catalyzes the formation of fatty acyl-CoA, at the expense of one molecule of ATP [\(Schmelter et al., 2004\)](#page-168-2).

# *fatty acid + ATP + CoA = fatty acyl-CoA + AMP + ipp.*

A Δ*fadD* strain of *E. coli* accumulates free fatty acids [\(Pech-Canul et al., 2011\)](#page-167-2). This observation indicates that in addition to exogenous LCFAs, FadD is also important for degradation of endogenous fatty acids released from membrane lipids (Fig. 1.3).

#### **1.3.2.2.2 Fatty acyl-CoA dehydrogenase (FadE)**

FadE is predicted to be an inner membrane protein. Although FadE has not been characterized biochemically, on the basis of sequence motifs and genetic studies FadE has been suggested as the fatty acyl-CoA dehydrogenase in *E. coli*. The enzyme is proposed to catalyze the oxidation of fatty acyl-CoA to 2-enoyl-CoA concomitant with transfer of two electrons from the substrate to FAD cofactor generating FADH<sub>2</sub> [\(Campbell and Cronan, 2002\)](#page-160-4) (Fig. 1.3). In a *fadE* mutant, although β-oxidation is not functional, LCFAs are still transported at reduced rates [\(Klein et al., 1971\)](#page-164-1).

*fatty acyl-CoA + FAD +*  $H^+$  *= 2-enoyl-CoA + FADH<sub>2</sub>* 

Electron transfer flavoproteins (ETF) are reported for mitochondrial acyl-CoA dehydrogenase, which mediate the oxidation of FADH<sup>2</sup> to FAD and transfer electrons to ubiquinone in the ETC [\(Roberts et al., 1996\)](#page-168-3). *Bacillus subtilis* also has ETF proteins, EtfA and EtfB that re-oxidize FADH2 [\(Matsuoka et al., 2007\)](#page-166-6). However, there are no reports of ETF proteins in *E. coli*. FadE in *E. coli* is almost double the length (814 amino acids) of its mammalian counterpart, where the first 150 and last 400 amino acid residues have no match to the mammalian dehydrogenase. It has been proposed that the extra region in FadE performs the oxidation of FADH2 [\(Campbell](#page-160-4)  [and Cronan, 2002\)](#page-160-4).

# **1.3.2.2.3 Multienzyme FadAB complex**

FadB and FadA together constitute a heterotetrameric multienzyme complex  $[(FadB)<sub>2</sub>][(FadA)<sub>2</sub>]$  located in the cytoplasm. The two α-subunits  $[(FadB)<sub>2</sub>]$  and two βsubunits [(FadA)<sub>2</sub>] are encoded by *fadBA* operon. The FadBA complex has five enzyme activities; enoyl-CoA hydratase, 3-hydroxyacyl-CoA dehydrogenase, 3 hydroxyacyl-CoA epimerase, *cis*-Δ 3 -*trans*-Δ 2 -enoyl-CoA isomerase and 3-ketoacyl-CoA thiolase. The first four enzyme activities are mediated by FadB while the 3 ketoacyl-CoA thiolase activity is performed by FadA [\(Pawar and Schulz, 1981;](#page-167-3) [Pramanik et al., 1979;](#page-168-4) [Yang and Elzinga, 1993\)](#page-171-0). Whereas all five enzymatic activities are required for the degradation of unsaturated fatty acids, only three enzymatic activities, enoyl-CoA hydratase, 3-hydroxyacyl-CoA dehydrogenase, and 3-ketoacyl-CoA thiolase are required for the degradation of saturated fatty acids [\(Clark and](#page-161-0)  [Cronan, 2005\)](#page-161-0).

The oxidation product of FadE, 2-enoyl-CoA undergoes hydration and is converted to 3-hydroxyacyl-CoA by the enoyl-CoA hydratase activity of FadB.

$$
2\text{-}enoyl\text{-}CoA + H_2O = 3\text{-}hydroxyacyl\text{-}CoA
$$

3-hydroxyacyl-CoA dehydrogenase then oxidizes 3-hydroxyacyl-CoA to 3-oxoacyl-CoA and simultaneously NAD<sup>+</sup> is reduced to NADH.

$$
3-hydroxyacyl\text{-}CoA + NAD^+ = 3-oxoacyl\text{-}CoA + NADH + H^+
$$

FadA further catalyzes the thiolysis of 3-oxoacyl-CoA to acetyl-CoA, leaving fatty acyl-CoA shortened by two carbons.

$$
3-ketoacyl\text{-}CoA + CoA = fatty acyl\text{-}CoA + acetyl\text{-}CoA
$$

The fatty acyl-CoA shortened by two carbon atoms is further metabolized by FadE and FadBA complex until it is completely degraded to acetyl-CoA [\(Clark and Cronan,](#page-161-0)  [2005;](#page-161-0) [Fujita et al., 2007\)](#page-162-1) (Fig. 1.3). In both *fadB* and *fadA* mutants, LCFA transport and degradation occurs at a reduced rate, however these two processes are much less compromised than the *fadE* mutant [\(Klein et al., 1971\)](#page-164-1).



**Figure 1.3 Transport and degradation of long-chain fatty acids.** Exogenous LCFAs are transported by the outer membrane protein, FadL, and internalized into the cytoplasm via an inner membrane protein, FadD. During transportation, FadD also catalyzes the acylation of fatty acids and converts it to acyl-CoA. Further, acyl-CoA is degraded by β-oxidation pathway mediated by Fad (fatty acid degradation) proteins. FadE, fatty acyl-CoA dehydrogenase, is proposed to oxidize acyl-CoA to 2-enoyl-CoA. During this conversion FAD is reduced to FADH2. Then, enoyl-CoA hydratase/3-hydroxyacyl-CoA dehydrogenase activities of FadB convert 2-enoyl-CoA to 3-oxoacyl-CoA, and one molecule of NADH is produced. 3-oxoacyl-CoA is finally cleaved to release two-carbon acetyl-CoA and two less carbon acyl-CoA, by 3-ketoacyl-CoA thiolase activity of FadA. Acyl-CoA shortened by two carbon atoms undergoes multiple rounds of β-oxidation for complete degradation.

#### **1.3.2.3 Degradation of unsaturated fatty acids**

In addition to enzymatic activities that degrade saturated fatty acids (explained above), *cis*-Δ 3 -*trans*-Δ 2 -enoyl-CoA isomerase and 3-hydroxyacyl-CoA epimerase activities of FadB are required for degradation of unsaturated fatty acids. Unsaturated fatty acids containing double bond at carbon 3 with *cis* configuration undergo a *cis* to *trans* isomerization by *cis*-Δ 3 -*trans*-Δ 2 -enoyl-CoA isomerase activity.

# *cis-3-enoyl-CoA trans-2-enoyl-CoA*

As explained above, 2-enoyl-CoA undergoes hydration to form 3-hydroxyacyl-CoA. 3-hydroxyacyl-CoA epimerase is further required for conversion of D-3-hydroxyacyl-CoA to L-3-hydroxyacyl-CoA, which is finally degraded to acetyl-CoA by FadA [\(Clark and Cronan, 2005;](#page-161-0) [Yang et al., 1988\)](#page-171-1). However, for unsaturated fatty acids with double bond at even-numbered carbon, another enzyme, 2,4 dienoyl-CoA reductase encoded by *fadH* performs the reductive removal of double bond [\(Liang et](#page-165-3)  [al., 2000\)](#page-165-3).

### **1.3.2.4 Anaerobic β-oxidation pathway**

*E. coli* can utilize LCFAs under anaerobic conditions in the presence of electron acceptors such as nitrate, fumarate and TMAO. The anaerobic β-oxidation is carried out by homologues of FadB, FadA, and FadD, i.e., FadJ (YfcX), FadI (YfcY), and FadK (YdiD), respectively. There is no established anaerobic homologue of FadE. However, four of the five proteins encoded by *ydiQRSTD* operon, YdiT, YdiS, and YdiR or YdiQ which are predicted ferrodoxin, flavoprotein and electron transport flavoproteins, respectively, are suggested to perform functions similar to FadE under anaerobic conditions. Whereas, under aerobic conditions, β-oxidation occurs at a reduced rate in Δ*fadB* and Δ*fadA* strains allowing these strains to exhibit delayed growth on LCFAs, double mutants Δ*fadB*Δ*fadJ* and Δ*fadA*Δ*fadI* do not exhibit any growth on LCFAs. These data show that FadJ and FadI also work sub-optimally under aerobic conditions [\(Campbell et al., 2003\)](#page-160-5).

#### **1.3.3 Regulation of long-chain fatty acid degradation**

The *fad* genes are regulated at a transcriptional level by a fatty-acid specific transcriptional regulator, FadR, the oxygen-sensitive ArcA-ArcB two-component system and the global cyclic AMP receptor protein-cyclic AMP (CRP-cAMP) complex.

FadR is a dual transcriptional regulator that acts as a switch between fatty acid degradation and biosynthesis. Whereas FadR negatively regulates the expression of *fad* genes, it positively regulates the expression of *fab* (fatty acid biosynthesis) genes. In the presence of LCFAs, the acylation product of FadD, long-chain fatty acyl-CoA binds FadR and releases it from the operator of *fad* genes. Because FadR specifically binds long-chain fatty acyl-CoA, exogenous medium-chain fatty acids cannot be utilized by *E. coli* K-12. Under aerobic conditions, the anaerobic *fad* genes, *fadJ* and *fadI*, are repressed by FadR. FadR also regulates genes that encode enzymes of the glyoxylate cycle (*aceBAK* operon), a pathway important for growth on LCFAs [\(Campbell et al., 2003;](#page-160-5) [Cronan and Subrahmanyam, 1998;](#page-161-2) [Fujita et al., 2007;](#page-162-1) [My et](#page-167-4)  [al., 2015;](#page-167-4) [Simons et al., 1980\)](#page-169-1).

ArcAB is a two-component system comprising an inner membrane sensor protein kinase, ArcB, and a cytosolic response regulator, ArcA [\(Malpica et al., 2006\)](#page-165-4). This system regulates *fad* genes in response to oxygen levels. ArcAB system represses both aerobic *fad* genes, i.e. *fadE*, *fadB*, *fadA* and *fadH*, and anaerobic *fad* genes, i.e. *fadJ*, and *fadI* in the absence of oxygen [\(Campbell et al., 2003;](#page-160-5) [Cho et al.,](#page-161-3)  [2006\)](#page-161-3).

Glucose is a preferred carbon source for *E. coli* compared to LCFAs. The *fad* genes are thus under catabolite repression. In the absence of glucose, cAMP-CRP binds upstream of *fad* genes and positively regulates their expression [\(Fujita et al.,](#page-162-1)  [2007\)](#page-162-1).

#### **1.4 Importance of long-chain fatty acid metabolism in bacterial pathogenesis**

Several bacterial pathogens with huge impact on human health use LCFAs as a carbon source that contributes to their survival and virulence. In *S. enterica* serovar Typhimurium, the LCFA pathway is upregulated during infection and contributes to the metabolism of proinflammatory host LCFAs thereby suppressing the innate immune response. Further, the enzyme of glyoxylate cycle, isocitrate lyase, is required for *Salmonella* persistence during chronic infection suggesting an increased dependence on fatty acid utilization during this phase of infection [\(Black and](#page-160-6)  [DiRusso, 2003;](#page-160-6) [Fang et al., 2005\)](#page-162-2). In *P. aeruginosa*, LCFA degradation enzymes are induced during lung infection in cystic fibrosis patients to enable the utilization of lung surfactant lipids. Moreover, *fadD* mutants of *P. aeruginosa* defective in LCFA utilization exhibit decreased *in vivo* fitness in a mouse lung infection model [\(Kang et](#page-164-2)  [al., 2010;](#page-164-2) [Son et al., 2007\)](#page-169-2). In *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, disruption of the *icl* gene that encodes for isocitrate lyase resulted in attenuation of bacterial persistence and virulence in mouse model implicating fatty acid utilization as an important factor during chronic infection [\(McKinney et al., 2000\)](#page-166-7). Finally, *Vibrio cholerae* acquires LCFAs from bile, which is suggested to be required for maintenance of the membrane and as a carbon source. Besides, a *fadD* mutant of *V. cholerae* is impaired in the production of virulence factors [\(Giles et al., 2011;](#page-162-3) [Ray et al., 2011\)](#page-168-5).

### **1.5 Long-chain fatty acid utilizing bacteria as industrial workhorses**

Although lignocellulosic sugars are used as the primary feedstock for the biological production of fuels and chemicals, the availability of fatty acid-rich feedstocks and recent progress in the development of oil-accumulating organisms are drawing attention towards fatty acids as a promising raw material for industrial production [\(Chisti, 2007;](#page-161-4) [Doi et al., 2014;](#page-161-5) [Lennen et al., 2011\)](#page-165-5). Besides availability, fatty acids offer several advantages when used for fuel and chemical production. Their metabolism to the key intermediate, acetyl-CoA, is very efficient and results in 100% carbon recovery. Because many fuels and chemicals are derived from acetyl-CoA, high product yields are expected if fatty acids are used as the carbon source. However, the highly reduced nature of fatty acids poses a metabolic challenge because these can be metabolized only in the presence of an external electron acceptor. To overcome this challenge, in a recent study, a respiro-fermentative metabolic mode was engineered in *E. coli* to support the synthesis of fermentative products during respiratory metabolism of fatty acids. The engineered strain cultured in medium containing palmitic acid, a C16 LCFA, as a carbon source was shown to produce ethanol, butanol, acetate, and acetone, with yields higher than those produced from fermentation of sugars. Importantly, propionate, which was previously known to be synthesized only by Propionibacteria could also be produced efficiently using the above engineered *E. coli* strain [\(Dellomonaco et al., 2010\)](#page-161-6). Further, in a separate study, the LCFA, oleate, has been used as a raw material for L-lysine fermentation by emulsification [\(Doi et al., 2014\)](#page-161-5). Collectively, these studies suggest LCFAs to be an effective carbon source for industrial applications.

# **1.6 Long-chain fatty acids confer stresses on bacteria**

LCFAs are one of the most important classes of high-energy molecules for both bacterial pathogenesis and biotechnology. However, there are a few reports, which suggest that LCFAs confer stresses on bacteria. In a transcriptomics study in *M. tuberculosis* cultured in medium supplemented with a mixture of even-chain-length LCFAs, genes involved in maintaining redox balance were upregulated. Importantly, WhiB3 and DosR, the two heme sensor proteins involved in maintaining intracellular redox balance were overexpressed. Besides, several genes involved in processes that consume reduced cofactors (e.g., complex lipid biosynthesis) were induced, suggesting activation of strategies to counteract redox stress generated by LCFAs [\(Rodriguez et al., 2014\)](#page-168-6). In a separate study, *E. coli* cultured in oleate (monounsaturated LCFA with 18 carbon atoms; C18) was reported to accumulate 2 fold higher hydrogen peroxide  $(H_2O_2)$  levels compared to cultures grown in glucose [\(Doi et al., 2014\)](#page-161-5). Further, microarray and proteomics studies revealed the induction of acid, membrane and oxidative stress responses in fatty acid overproducing *E. coli*  strains [\(Lennen et al., 2011\)](#page-165-5). However, there has not been any detailed investigation to understand the reason for LCFA-induced stresses, major players/pathways that combat these stresses and the mechanistic details of their activation.

# **1.7 Oxidative stress**

Oxidative stress is a condition that arises due to imbalance between the production of ROS and the ability of oxidative stress defense systems to counteract ROS [\(Scandalios, 2002\)](#page-168-7). ROS are highly reactive molecules that can oxidize several biomolecules resulting in DNA damage and mutations, lipid peroxidation, disassembly of iron-sulfur clusters, undesired disulfide bond formation in proteins, etc. In its defense bacteria employ various oxidative stress combat players, which are under tight regulation and enable the cell to survive in harsh environments [\(Chiang](#page-161-7)  [and Schellhorn, 2012;](#page-161-7) [Farr and Kogoma, 1991\)](#page-162-4).

#### **1.7.1 Reactive oxygen species**

Because oxygen molecule is a triplet species containing an unpaired electron in each orbital thus it can accept only one electron at a time. Therefore, it is difficult to reduce oxygen molecule by electron donors such as NAD(P)H that transfers two electrons at a time. However, certain enzymes/proteins are capable of transferring univalent electron where adventitious collision of molecular oxygen with single electron generates superoxide ions. Further, superoxide undergoes second, third and fourth electron transfer to produce several types of ROS molecules, i.e.  $H_2O_2$ , hydroxyl radical, and finally reduction to water  $(H<sub>2</sub>O)$ , respectively. Under acidic conditions, superoxide ions can also reduce to hydroperoxyl radical (HOO<sup>·</sup>) (Farr and Kogoma, [1991;](#page-162-4) [Messner and Imlay, 1999\)](#page-166-8).

# **1.7.1.1 Site for ROS formation during metabolism: ETC**

Several proteins/enzymes involved in redox reactions that function during ETC and TCA cycles are the major source of ROS. During oxidation-reduction cycle, within these enzymes, the metal centers (e.g., Fe-S cluster), or flavin (FAD or FMN) moieties, or quinone binding sites that are involved in univalent electron transfers might be oxidized by transfer of single electron to oxygen thereby generating ROS. However, multiple studies have shown that among these sites, autoxidation of flavins is the predominant source for ROS formation [\(Messner and Imlay, 1999,](#page-166-8) [2002\)](#page-166-9). Inverted membrane vesicles obtained from cells grown in glucose, showed that 0.2% and 0.4% of consumed oxygen is utilized for the formation of superoxide and  $H_2O_2$ , respectively [\(Imlay, 2003\)](#page-163-2). *In vitro* studies showed that ETC accounts for ~87% of total  $H_2O_2$  produced in the cell. Other experiments, such as change in number of ETC units/cell or the composition of ETC, were found to affect the rate of production of H2O2 [\(Gonzalez-Flecha and Demple, 1995\)](#page-163-3).

*In vitro* and/or *in vivo* studies have shown that among various ETC dehydrogenases, Nuo, Ndh and Sdh contribute to ROS formation. Nuo accepts an electron from NADH, a reduced cofactor, and transfers to its flavin moiety (FMN). The reduced flavin is exposed to the cytoplasm, which is prone to attack by dissolved oxygen thereby generating ROS [\(Esterhazy et al., 2008;](#page-162-5) [Messner and Imlay, 1999,](#page-166-8) [2002;](#page-166-9) [Seaver and Imlay, 2004\)](#page-169-3). During autooxidation of flavoenzymes, single electron transfer to oxygen forms superoxide and flavosemiquinone (FADH·). Further, FADH· either reacts with another oxygen molecule to form superoxide again or it reacts with superoxide to produce a peroxy adduct i.e.  $H_2O_2$  [\(Imlay, 2003;](#page-163-2) Seaver [and Imlay, 2004\)](#page-169-3). *In vitro* experiments have shown that Ndh generates both superoxide and  $H_2O_2$ , where ROS formation was prevented on deleting Ndh while it was enhanced on overexpression of Ndh [\(Messner and Imlay, 1999\)](#page-166-8). In Sdh, similar to Nuo, reduced flavoprotein contributes to ROS formation. However, Sdh specifically produces superoxide [\(Messner and Imlay, 2002\)](#page-166-9).

Amongst terminal oxidases, cytochrome oxidases are not reported to generate ROS, although they have metal centers with high electron density. Sulfite reductase, a flavoprotein contains FAD and FMN moieties, and 4Fe-4S metal center. It transfers an electron from NAD(P)H to sulfite. Earlier studies showed that autoxidation of reduced flavins in sulfite reductase is the site for ROS formation, FMN is the primary site, and  $H_2O_2$  is the major ROS produced [\(Imlay, 2003;](#page-163-2) [Messner and Imlay, 1999\)](#page-166-8). Another ETC component, fumarate reductase (Frd) is involved in single electron redox transfers during anaerobic growth. Frd is structurally and functionally similar to Sdh, however, it functions as a terminal oxidase and catalyzes the reduction of fumarate. Frd is present in the membrane and contains a flavin cofactor with three Fe-S clusters. Similar to other flavoproteins, Frd has also been shown to contribute to ROS formation through autoxidation of reduced flavins, where it generates both  $H_2O_2$ and superoxide. However, in contrast to Ndh and sulfite reductase, Frd generates more of superoxide than  $H_2O_2$  [\(Imlay, 2003;](#page-163-2) [Messner and Imlay, 2002\)](#page-166-9).

# **1.7.1.2 Site for ROS formation during metabolism: Other than ETC**

Aspartate oxidase (NadB) catalyzes the FAD-dependent conversion of aspartate to iminoaspartate, the first step of NAD biosynthesis. Structurally, aspartate oxidase is similar to Sdh and Frd, and is a member of succinate:fumarate oxidoreductase family, however, it lacks Fe-S cluster and membrane attachment subunits. Experiments suggest that similar to Sdh and Frd, the flavin moiety of aspartate oxidase is exposed in the cytoplasm that can generate ROS. Aspartate oxidase shows a great deal of similarity with Frd regarding structure, turnover number, and energy of activation, but whereas the predominant ROS produced by Frd is superoxide, NadB generates more H2O<sup>2</sup> than superoxide. This observation suggests that because aspartate oxidase lacks Fe-S cluster, therefore the mixture of superoxide and  $H_2O_2$  production by Frd is contributed by Fe-S cluster as well [\(Imlay, 2003;](#page-163-2) [Messner and Imlay, 2002\)](#page-166-9).

Another oxidase, D-amino acid oxidase also contributes to the formation of H2O2. Glutathione (GSH) is a tripeptide required for maintaining redox balance in the cell. Glutathione reductase (Gor) reduces oxidized glutathione (GSSG) to reduced glutathione (GSH). Gor is a flavoprotein that uses NADPH as an electron donor and is suggested to generate superoxide during its activity [\(Farr and Kogoma, 1991\)](#page-162-4).

### **1.7.2 Oxidative damage**

Although ROS are important signaling molecules [\(Cap et al., 2012\)](#page-160-7), their high intracellular levels can lead to oxidation of biomolecules compromising cell viability. A study has reported that as low as  $1 \mu M H_2O_2$  can damage biomolecules in *E. coli* [\(Jang and Imlay, 2010\)](#page-163-4).

# **1.7.2.1 Protein Damage**

H2O<sup>2</sup> can spontaneously oxidize the sulfhydryl group of amino acids. Cysteine residues are prone to get oxidized to sulfenic acid adducts which crosslink with other cysteine residues within protein thus forming undesirable disulfide bonds, and hence protein loses its native structure. However, sulfenic acid can also be further oxidized to sulfinic acid [\(Imlay, 2003\)](#page-163-2). Similar to cysteine, another sulfur-containing amino acid, i.e. methionine is prone to oxidiation by  $H_2O_2$  to form methionine sulfoxide derivatives. Hydroxyl radical oxidizes amino acids leading to protein carbonylation, where residues such as proline, arginine are converted to carbonyl derivatives. These modifications either make proteins more labile to degradation or compromise their function. In addition, certain enzymes that contain metal centers such as fumarase, aconitase, glutamine synthetase, dihydroxy acid dehydratase can be attacked by ROS. Oxidation of metal centers in these enzymes by superoxide or  $H_2O_2$  results in various harmful effects. First, enzymes lose their activity thereby important pathways such as TCA do not function properly, thereby compromising growth on various carbon sources. Second,  $H_2O_2$  oxidizes ferrous ion in metal centers to ferric ion (Fenton reaction) and generates another ROS molecule, i.e. hydroxyl radical that further damages biomolecules [\(Farr and Kogoma, 1991;](#page-162-4) [Imlay, 2003\)](#page-163-2).

# **1.7.2.2 Lipid peroxidation**

ROS molecules damage lipids through the process called lipid peroxidation. Fatty acids are important constituents of lipids. Unsaturated fatty acids that contain double bond in the aliphatic chain are attacked by various ROS molecules primarily generating lipid hydroperoxides (LOOH) while many different aldehydes such as malondialdehyde (MDA), propanal, hexanal, and 4-hydroxynonenal (4-HNE) are also generated as secondary products [\(Ayala et al., 2014\)](#page-159-3). The peroxidation of fatty acids alters its ability to rotate and thus makes the membrane more fluid. A change in membrane fluidity interferes with membrane integrity and therefore various physiological processes such as transport, energy generation, and motility are compromised. *In vitro* and *in vivo* studies have shown that ROS molecules such as hydroxyl radicals, hydroperoxy radicals, and singlet oxygen can participate in lipid peroxidation [\(Farr and Kogoma, 1991\)](#page-162-4).

Lipid peroxidation occurs in three stages: initiation, propagation, and termination. During oxidation of double bond in the fatty acid chain, hydrogen is extracted and a lipid radical is produced (L), which further reacts with molecular oxygen to produce lipid peroxy radical (ROO· ). During chain propagation step, ROO· further oxidizes another unsaturated fatty acid to produce fatty acid hydroperoxide (ROOH) and an additional molecule of L· . The newly formed L· undergoes additional round of propagation step while ROOH is cleaved to ROO· and lipid alkoxy radicals (LO· ) by reacting with a superoxide molecule or cleaved thermally. Both ROO· and LO can initiate new rounds of lipid peroxidation or LO can also be cleaved to form fatty acid aldehydes and alkyl radicals. Therefore, lipid peroxidation generates various end products such as alkanes, epoxides, aldehydes, ketones and products with hydroxyl, carboxyl and peroxyl groups [\(Ayala et al., 2014;](#page-159-3) [Farr and Kogoma, 1991;](#page-162-4) [Imlay, 2003\)](#page-163-2).

# **1.7.2.3 DNA damage**

Similar to other biomolecules, DNA is also a potent target of various kinds of ROS such as hydroxyl radicals and organic hydroperoxides. DNA consists of nitrogenous bases, adenine, guanine, thymine, and cytosine, and a ribose sugar. Both nitrogenous bases and ribose sugar are prone to attack by ROS molecules. Hydroxyl radicals oxidize ribose sugar leading to DNA fragmentation and induce a double strand break in DNA. ROS molecules react with nitrogenous bases and produce various products such as hydroxymethylurea, urea, thymine glycol, adenine ring-open and ringsaturated products. For example, guanine can be modified to 8-hydroxyguanine, while hydroxylation of thymine produces 5-hydroxymethyluracil. Therefore, whereas modification of ribose sugars by ROS results in DNA strand breaks that interfere with replication, alterations in nitrogenous bases cause mutations. Several lipid peroxidation intermediates and their end products are mutagenic such as 4-HNE, epoxides and other aldehydes that can directly react with DNA, forming intrastrand or interstrand crosslinks [\(Farr and Kogoma, 1991;](#page-162-4) [Imlay, 2003\)](#page-163-2).

## **1.7.3 Oxidative stress response players**

*E. coli* employs a number of oxidative stress response players to counteract ROS. These include both enzymatic and non-enzymatic players.

# **1.7.3.1 Enzymatic players: Catalases and peroxidases**

Catalases and peroxidases are enzymatic scavengers that detoxify  $H_2O_2$ . Catalases use two molecules of H2O2, where one molecule acts as electron donor and the other acts as electron acceptor to produce water and oxygen. In contrast, peroxidases utilize a specific compound other than  $H_2O_2$  as electron donor such as thioredoxin, and convert H2O2 to water [\(Hillar et al., 2000\)](#page-163-5). There is redundancy of catalases and peroxidases in *E. coli*. The two hydroperoxidases, HPI and HPII, also called as catalase I and catalase II, are encoded by *katG* and *katE*, respectively. HPI is a bifunctional enzyme that has both catalase and peroxidase activities; the peroxidase activity requires lower concentration of  $H_2O_2$  than the catalase activity. In contrast to HPI, HPII is a monofunctional enzyme with only catalase activity [\(Loewen and Switala, 1986\)](#page-165-6). Another peroxidase, alkyl hydroperoxide reductase (Ahp) encoded by *ahpC* and ahpF, scavenges H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. AhpC and AhpF together constitute an active alkyl hydroperoxide reductase, where AhpF is the peroxiredoxin reductase component and AhpC is the peroxidase component. Therefore, AhpC catalyzes the detoxification of alkyl hydroperoxides or peroxides, while AhpF restores the reduced state of AhpC by transferring electrons from NADH to AhpC [\(Imlay, 2013;](#page-163-6) [Kamariah et al., 2015\)](#page-164-3). Ahp acts as a primary scavenger of  $H_2O_2$  because it can sense  $H_2O_2$  as low as  $\sim$ 5  $\mu$ M and saturates at  $\sim$ 20 µM, while catalases are functional at higher H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> levels (Imlay, [2013\)](#page-163-6)

During oxidative stress, catalases and peroxidases are mainly regulated by the transcriptional regulators, OxyR and RpoS. In the absence of oxidative stress, reduction of disulfide bonds in OxyR by glutathione reductase (*gorA*) and glutaredoxin ( $grxA$ ) keeps the regulator in its inactive form. However, when  $H_2O_2$ levels increase inside the cell, OxyR is directly oxidized by  $H_2O_2$  forming disulfide bonds and thus gets activated [\(Imlay, 2013\)](#page-163-6). OxyR regulates hundreds of genes. Amongst these,  $\sim$ 40 genes protect the cell from H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> toxicity, e.g. *ahpCF*, *katG*, *gorA*, *grxA* and *oxyS*. In addition to regulation of genes involved in counteracting H2O<sup>2</sup> mediated stress, OxyR also governs genes required for protection against damage due to heat stress, near-UV irradiation, lipid peroxidation etc. RpoS is a general stress response regulator in  $E$ . *coli*. RpoS regulates  $\sim$ 200 genes including several genes important for combating oxidative stress such as *oxyR, dps* (DNAbinding protein), *xthA* (exonuclease III), and *sodC* (superoxide dismutase). Importantly, whereas *katG* is regulated by OxyR, *katE* is regulated by RpoS [\(Chiang](#page-161-7)  [and Schellhorn, 2012;](#page-161-7) [Imlay, 2013\)](#page-163-6).

# **1.7.3.2 Enzymatic players: Superoxide dismutases**

Superoxide dismutases (SODs) catalyze the conversion of two superoxide ions into  $H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>$  and  $H<sub>2</sub>O$ ; catalases and peroxidases further detoxify  $H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>$  (Chiang and [Schellhorn, 2012\)](#page-161-7). Similar to catalases, there is redundancy in SODs in *E. coli*. SODs exist in three isoforms that mainly differ in their metal cofactors i.e. MnSOD, FeSOD and CuZnSOD, encoded by *sodA*, *sodB*, and *sodC,* respectively. SodA and SodB are involved in protection against cytoplasmic superoxide while SodC protects against periplasmic superoxide [\(Benov et al., 1995;](#page-159-4) [Benov and Fridovich, 1994\)](#page-160-8).

*sodA* is regulated by multiple transcriptional regulators, including the oxygensensitive ArcAB two-component system, iron-responsive ferric uptake regulator (Fur) and the SoxRS system. SoxR is a homodimer, where each polypeptide chain contains a [2Fe-2S] cluster. Oxidation of Fe-S cluster of SoxR activates the protein, which then transcriptionally induces the expression of SoxS [\(Chiang and Schellhorn, 2012;](#page-161-7) [Tardat and Touati, 1993\)](#page-170-6). There are conflicting reports on whether SoxR is directly oxidized by superoxide or it senses redox-cycling agents [\(Gu and Imlay, 2011\)](#page-163-7). SoxS controls the expression of over 100 genes involved in relieving oxidative stress including superoxide dismutase (*sodA*), endonuclease IV involved in DNA repair (*nfo*) and a protein involved in protection of Fe-S proteins (*yggX*) [\(Chiang and](#page-161-7)  [Schellhorn, 2012\)](#page-161-7). SodB is the only SOD present in *E. coli* under anaerobic conditions [\(Kargalioglu and Imlay, 1994\)](#page-164-4). *sodB* is negatively regulated by multiple transcriptional regulators, however it is positively regulated by Fur via the small RNA RyhB [\(Masse et al., 2005\)](#page-165-7). SodC is repressed during anaerobiosis by Fnr and is induced in stationary phase by RpoS [\(Gort et al., 1999\)](#page-163-8).

#### **1.7.3.3 Non-enzymatic player: Glutathione**

Thiols (R-SH) play a critical role in maintaining redox equilibrium. Glutathione (γglutamyl-L-cysteinylglycine) is a tripeptide synthesized by a two-step process mediated by glutamylcysteine synthetase (GshA) and glutathione synthetase (GshB). Glutathione exists in both oxidized (GSSG) and reduced (GSH) forms; however, most of the glutathione pool is kept in its reduced form. The reduced form of glutathione, GSH, plays an important role in combating oxidative stress. [\(Carmel-Harel and Storz,](#page-160-9)  [2000\)](#page-160-9).

Glutathione-reduction system comprises of glutathione, glutathione reductase (Gor) and a short peptide glutaredoxin (Grx). GSH mediates the reduction of disulfide bonds in proteins either independently or in conjunction with glutaredoxin. During this process two molecules of GSH are oxidized to form GSSG. GSSG is further reduced to GSH by glutathione reductase, which in turn oxidizes one molecule of NADPH. During oxidative stress, ROS molecules cause undesired disulfide bond formation in proteins thereby damaging these biomolecules. GSH helps in combating oxidative stress by restoring thiol groups in proteins [\(Carmel-Harel and Storz, 2000;](#page-160-9) [Farr and Kogoma, 1991\)](#page-162-4). Various observations support the involvement of glutathione as an antioxidant; *gshA* mutant is hypersensitive to H2O2 while *gor* mutant is hypersensitive to paraquat [\(Carmel-Harel and Storz, 2000\)](#page-160-9). There is a feedback loop between glutathione-reduction system and OxyR. OxyR activates *gor* and *grxA*  (gene encoding one of the glutaredoxins), whereas the latter together reduce and inactivate OxyR [\(Carmel-Harel and Storz, 2000;](#page-160-9) [Chiang and Schellhorn, 2012\)](#page-161-7).

# **1.7.3.4 Non-enzymatic player: Ubiquinone**

Ubiquinone, an electron carrier in ETC, has also been suggested to function as an antioxidant in *E. coli*. However, till date, there is only one report describing its antioxidant function in bacteria. Søballe and Poole showed that a *ubiCA* double mutant, which produces no detectable ubiquinone, exhibits several oxidative stress phenotypes in LB: accumulation of superoxide and  $H_2O_2$  in membranes, hypersensitivity to oxidative stress inducing agents,  $CuSO<sub>4</sub>$  and  $H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>$ , and upregulation of catalase. Further supplementation of water-soluble ubiquinones, Ubiquinone-1 and Ubiquinone-2 decreased  $H_2O_2$  levels in the *ubiCA* mutant. To explain the antioxidant function of ubiquinone, authors proposed two mechanisms. First, ubiquinone enables the rapid transfer of electrons from upstream respiratory dehydrogenases to terminal oxidases thereby decreasing the chance of single-electron donation to oxygen limiting the formation of ROS. Second, the reduced form of ubiquinone (ubiquinol) can scavenge ROS [\(Soballe and Poole, 2000\)](#page-169-4). Recently, another study has demonstrated the *in vitro* quinol peroxidase activity of cytochrome *bd* where quinol serves as a substrate for the terminal oxidase to detoxify  $H_2O_2$  [\(Al-](#page-159-5)[Attar et al., 2016\)](#page-159-5). However, the exact mechanism by which ubiquinone counteracts ROS, the physiological condition under which ubiquinone plays a predominant role, and the relative contribution of ubiquinone to the overall oxidative stress response remains to be assessed.

# **1.8 Biosynthesis of ubiquinone-8**

The precursors of ubiquinone are 4-hydroxybenzoate (4-HB) and octaprenyl diphosphate. The benzene ring of 4-HB is modified by a series of reactions that include prenylation, decarboxylation, hydroxylation, and methylation to form ubiquinone-8 as the final product. This sequential modification of quinone ring by proteins encoded by *ubi* genes (ubiquinone biosynthesis genes) forms the ubiquinone biosynthesis pathway. In *E. coli* eleven *ubi* genes are reported to participate in ubiquinone biosynthesis [\(Aussel et al., 2014b\)](#page-159-6)*.* Figure 1.4 shows the ubiquinone biosynthesis pathway.

A very early study suggested that Ubi proteins constitute a large multiprotein complex in *E. coli.* Authors isolated an enzyme complex of  $\sim$ 2000 kDa from the cytoplasmic membrane consisting of at least 12 proteins, ranging from 40 to 80 kDa. The complex contained a high amount of 3-octaprenylphenol (OPP) but no ubiquinone-8. Interestingly, on providing S-Adenosylmethionine (SAM), NADPH, and  $O_2$  to the complex, ubiquinone-8 could be synthesized from OPP [\(Knoell, 1979\)](#page-164-5). However, till date, the ubiquinone biosynthesis complex is not well established.

## **1.8.1 Biosynthesis of 4-hydroxybenzoate (4-HB)**

Chorismate pyruvate-lyase, UbiC catalyzes the aromatization of chorismate to 4-HB, which is the first committed step in the biosynthesis of ubiquinone (Fig. 1.4). Chorismate is the end product of the shikimate pathway, which uses D-erythrose-4 phosphate as a precursor [\(Meganathan, 2001\)](#page-166-0).

# **1.8.2 Biosynthesis of Polyprenyl chain**

The two glycolytic intermediates, pyruvate and glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate (G3P) serve as precursors for the synthesis of isoprenyl diphosphate (IPP) and dimethylallyl pyrophosphate (DMAPP) by methylerythritol phosphate pathway (MEP). Various genes such as *dxr*, *dxs*, *ispD*, *ispE*, and *ispF* encode enzymes required for the MEP pathway. IPP and DMAPP act as precursors for the synthesis of octaprenyl diphosphate, and this process is catalyzed by proteins encoded by *ispA* and *ispB*. Octaprenyl diphosphate is finally attached to the quinone ring [\(Aussel et al., 2014b;](#page-159-6) [Meganathan, 2001\)](#page-166-0) (Fig. 1.4).

# **1.8.3 Modification of quinone ring: Prenylation**

*ubiA* is the first gene involved in the modification of quinone ring and encodes 4 hydroxybenzoate octaprenyltransferase that catalyzes the prenylation of 4-HB to 3 octaprenyl-4-hydroxybenzoate (OHB) [\(Young et al., 1972\)](#page-171-2) (Fig. 1.4).

# **1.8.4 Modification of quinone ring: Decarboxylation**

Decarboxylation of OHB to OPP is mediated by the enzyme 3-octaprenyl-4 hydroxybenzoate decarboxylase. It is suggested that both UbiD and UbiX are required for decarboxylase activity, where UbiX is presumed to serve as a necessary partner for the decarboxylase, UbiD [\(Gulmezian et al., 2007\)](#page-163-9) (Fig. 1.4).

# **1.8.5 Modification of quinone ring: Hydroxylation and Methylation**

The alternate three hydroxylation and methylation reactions mediated by hydroxylases, UbiI, UbiH and UbiF, and methylases, UbiG and UbiE, further modifiy the quinone ring (Fig. 1.4). OPP is hydroxylated at C5 position to form an intermediate compound (IC1) by a monooxygenase, UbiI, while UbiG, a methyltransferase, catalyzes the O-methylation of IC1 at its C5 position [\(Hajj](#page-163-10)  [Chehade et al., 2013;](#page-163-10) [Hsu et al., 1996\)](#page-163-11) that produces another intermediate compound (IC2). The methylated product (IC2) again undergoes hydroxylation at C1 position, proposed to be catalyzed by UbiH to form C1-demethyl-C6-demethoxy- $Q_8$  (DDM $Q_8$ ) [\(Aussel et al., 2014b;](#page-159-6) [Nakahigashi et al., 1992\)](#page-167-5). Second methyltransferase i.e. UbiE then transfers the methyl group at C2 position of  $DDMQ_8$  converting it to C6demethoxy- $Q_8$  (DM $Q_8$ ) [\(Lee et al., 1997\)](#page-164-6). Both UbiG and UbiE are dependent on SAM for their activity [\(Aussel et al., 2014b\)](#page-159-6). UbiF catalyzes third hydroxylation of the quinone ring, at the C6 position of  $DMQ_8$ , generating IC3 [\(Kwon et al., 2000\)](#page-164-7). Further, above hydroxylated product (IC3) undergoes O-methylation at C6 position by UbiG to synthesize ubiquinone-8. UbiG thus functions as a methyltransferase at two positions i.e. C5 and C6. UbiF, UbiH and UbiI are flavin-containing monooxygenases [\(Aussel et al., 2014b;](#page-159-6) [Pelosi et al., 2016\)](#page-167-6).

UbiB and UbiJ are two additional players involved in ubiquinone biosynthesis; however, their exact function in the pathway is unclear. UbiB shows similarity with proteins belonging to eukaryotic-type protein kinase family and is proposed to be involved in regulation of ubiquinone biosynthesis through its kinase activity. On the basis of sequence similarity, UbiJ is proposed to be a carrier protein involved in ubiquinone biosynthesis [\(Aussel et al., 2014b\)](#page-159-6).



**Figure 1.4 Ubiquinone biosynthesis pathway in** *E. coli*. Biosynthesis of ubiquinone-8 is mediated by Ubi proteins. Octaprenyl chain of ubiquinone-8 is synthesized from the precursors IPP and DMAPP. IPP and DMAPP are produced from MEP pathway using Pyruvate and G3P as precursors. Chorismate is aromatized by UbiC protein to form 4-HB. 4- HB undergoes prenylation by UbiA and produces OHB. Further, the ring modification reactions such as decarboxylation and three alternate hydroxylation and methylation reactions mediated by several Ubi proteins generate ubiquinone-8. Dotted arrows indicate multistep process. Abbreviations: *G3P*, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate; *IPP*, isoprenyl diphosphate; DMAPP, dimethylallyl diphosphate; *4-HB*, 4-hydroxybenzoate; *OHB*, 3-octaprenyl-4 hydroxybenzoate; *OPP*, 3-octaprenylphenol; *IC1*, intermediate compound 1; *IC2*, intermediate compound 2; *DDMQ8*, C1-demethyl-C6-demethoxy-Q8; *DMQ8*, C6-demethoxy-Q8; *IC3*, intermediate compound 3.

# **1.8.6 Growth phenotypes, ubiquinone levels and accumulation of pathway intermediates in** *ubi* **mutants**

For the last several decades, the increased requirement of ETC and hence ubiquinone for energy generation during aerobic growth on non-fermentable carbon sources, succinate and malate, compared to a fermentable carbon source, glucose, has been used as the rationale for identifying genes involved in ubiquinone biosynthesis [\(Stroobant et al., 1972;](#page-169-5) [Wu et al., 1993\)](#page-171-3). In addition, reduction in ubiquinone levels and accumulation of ubiquinone pathway intermediates in mutant strains has enabled identification of *ubi* genes [\(Cox et al., 1968;](#page-161-8) [Cox et al., 1969;](#page-161-9) [Hajj Chehade et al.,](#page-163-10)  [2013;](#page-163-10) [Stroobant et al., 1972\)](#page-169-5). Table 1.1 lists our current information on ubiquinone levels and intermediates that accumulate in mutants affected in different steps of ubiquinone biosynthesis pathway along with their reported growth phenotype on glucose and a non-fermentable carbon source, succinate.



**Table 1.1 Ubiquinone content, accumulated ubiquinone intermediates and growth phenotypes of different** *ubi* **mutants in** *E. coli***.** It is important to note that in studies referred in the table, there are differences in terms of the *E. coli* K12 strains used, the techniques employed for quantifying ubiquinone levels, and the composition of growth medium. All these studies were performed under aerobic conditions.

<sup>a</sup> Mutants reported in this table vary from random mutant (RM) to point mutant (PM) to gene knockout (KO).

<sup>b</sup> Percentage (%) of  $O_8$  content in different *ubi* mutants is in comparison to wild-type (WT)  $O_8$ content

<sup>c</sup> Accumulated Q<sub>8</sub> intermediate:  $4-HP_8$ , 3-Octaprenyl-4-hydroxyphenol; *OHB*, 3-octaprenyl-4hydroxybenzoate; *OPP*, 3-octaprenylphenol; *IC1*, intermediate compound 1; *IC2*, intermediate compound 2; *DDMQ8*, C1-demethyl-C6-demethoxy-Q8; *DMQ8*, C6-demethoxy-Q8; *IC3*, intermediate compound 3.

# In *ubiD* and *ubiX* mutants, whereas ubiquinone levels are reduced in log phase cells, these mutants have ubiquinone levels equivalent to WT in stationary phase cells. The decarboxylase that functions in place of UbiD and UbiX in stationary phase is not known.

#### **1.9 Thesis Objective**

The success of bacteria as pathogens and as industrial workhorses relies largely on their ability to utilize energy-rich nutrients and their resistance to stress conditions. LCFAs are one of the most important classes of energy-rich molecules for both bacterial pathogenesis and industrial production [\(Dellomonaco et al., 2010;](#page-161-6) [Doi et al.,](#page-161-5)  [2014;](#page-161-5) [Ray et al., 2011;](#page-168-5) [Son et al., 2007\)](#page-169-2). However, there are a few reports, which suggest that LCFAs confer stresses on bacteria, including oxidative stress [\(Doi et al.,](#page-161-5)  [2014;](#page-161-5) [Lennen et al., 2011\)](#page-165-5). Till date, there has not been any detailed investigation to understand the reason for LCFA-induced stresses and the major players/pathways employed by bacteria to combat such stresses. These studies besides being relevant from a fundamental perspective are also important for identifying novel antibacterial targets to control LCFA-utilization by bacterial pathogens and design metabolic engineering strategies to promote LCFA-utilization by industrial microbes.

LCFA metabolism has been studied in *E. coli* since 1960's and the players involved in its transport and degradation have largely been characterized [\(Fujita et al.,](#page-162-1)  [2007\)](#page-162-1). Despite such extensive investigations, the connection of LCFA metabolism with stress response pathways is still unexplored. In the present work, we used *E. coli*  as a model bacterium to understand the interconnection between LCFA metabolism and oxidative stress. Our specific objectives in the first part of the thesis are: 1) investigate the reason for LCFA-induced oxidative stress, and 2) investigate strategies used by *E. coli* to mitigate oxidative stress generated by LCFAs. Our results from the first two objectives established that LCFA transport and degradation is responsible for elevated levels of ROS in LCFA-utilizing bacteria and that ubiquinone, an electron carrier in the ETC, is a key antioxidant during LCFA metabolism. The maximal requirement of ubiquinone for growth on LCFAs compared to other tested carbon sources encouraged us to use LCFAs as a carbon source for the identification of new players in ubiquinone biosynthesis pathway. In the second part of the thesis, we identified *yqiC* as a novel ubiquinone biosynthetic player and showed its genetic interaction with another gene involved in ubiquinone biosynthesis, *ubiI*.

# **CHAPTER II**

# **Materials and Methods**

# **2.1 Bacterial strains, plasmids, and primers**

Experiments were conducted in BW25113 background. Deletion strains were obtained from the Keio deletion library. Either both independent clones from the library and/or fresh transductants were analyzed to rule out genetic errors. Strains and plasmids, used in this study are listed in Table 2.1. Primers used for plasmid construction and for confirmation of gene disruption are listed in Table 2.2.

Strains/plasmids	Relevant genotype	Source/reference
<b>Strains</b>		
BW25113 (WT)	$lacIq$ rrn $BT14 \Delta lacZWJ16$	<b>Genetic Stock Center</b>
	hsdR514 $\triangle$ araBAD <sub>AH33</sub>	(Datsenko and
	$\Delta$ rhaBADLD78	Wanner, 2000)
$RC1025$ ( $\Delta$ <i>fadL</i> )	fadL:: kan in BW25113	Keio collection
		(Baba et al., 2006)
$RC1026 (\Delta \text{fad}D)$	fadD::kan in BW25113	Keio collection
		(Baba et al., 2006)
$RC1117 (\Delta \text{fad}E)$	$fadE$ ::kan in BW25113	Keio collection
		(Baba et al., 2006)
$RC1116 (\Delta \text{f}adB)$	fadB::kan in BW25113	Keio collection
		(Baba et al., 2006)
$RC1115 (\Delta f a dA)$	fadA::kan in BW25113	Keio collection
		(Baba et al., 2006)
$RC1167 (\Delta f a dJ)$	fadJ::kan in BW25113	Keio collection
		(Baba et al., 2006)
$RC1166 (\Delta fadI)$	fadI::kan in BW25113	Keio collection
		(Baba et al., 2006)
<b>RC1173</b>	RC1116; kan cassette flipped out	This work
<b>RC1176</b>	P1 (BW25113 fadJ::kan) x	This work

Table 2.1 Strains and plasmids used in this study





\* Restriction sites are underlined

'This work' refers to strains/plasmids that were made as part of thesis and

'Chaba lab' refers to strains/plasmids made by other lab members

# Table 2.2 Primers used in this study

# Primers: for cloning

<b>Primers</b>	Sequence (from 5' to 3')	<b>Purpose</b>
SA 55	CATGCCATGGAAAAGAGGAAAGTAGCGT <b>CTGATTCATGGTAAAAAAACCTCAC</b>	Froward Primer: for cloning $yqiC$ -6His with putative $yqiC$ promoter in pACYC184
SA 56	CCGGAATTCTTAGTGATGATGATGATGAT GCAGCGTTGGGGGGAGAGTCTCTGGATCT GG	Reverse Primer: for cloning $yqiC$ -6His with putative $yqiC$ promoter in pACYC184

Primers: for confirmation of gene disruption with kanamycin cassette




### **2.2 Media composition and growth conditions**

Strains were cultured in Lysogeny broth (LB; 5 g/liter of yeast extract, 10 g/liter of Bacto-Tryptone, and 5 g/liter NaCl), in Tryptone broth (TB; 10 g/liter of Bacto-Tryptone, and 5 g/liter of NaCl), and in M9 minimal medium (5.3 g/liter of Na2HPO4,

3 g/liter of KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 0.5 g/liter of NaCl, 1 g/liter of NH<sub>4</sub>Cl, 0.12 g/liter of MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 2 mg/liter of biotin, 2 mg/liter of nicotinamide, 0.2 mg/liter of riboflavin, and 2 mg/liter of thiamine). Unless otherwise specified, when required, TB medium or M9 minimal medium was supplemented with one of the following carbon sources at a final concentration of 5 mM: glucose or sodium salt of acetate, succinate, laurate, stearate or oleate. Laurate (50 mM), oleate (50 mM) and stearate (33 mM) were solubilized in 5.0% Brij-58 [\(Lepore et al., 2011\)](#page-165-0). Media were solidified using 1.5% (w/v) bacto agar. For chemical genomics screen, minimal medium was supplemented either with 5 mM oleate or 0.2% glucose with 0.5% Brij-58.

Cultures were incubated at 37°C. For experiments in liquid medium, unless indicated otherwise, primary cultures were grown in 3 ml TB, which were further reinoculated either in TB or TB supplemented with desired carbon source to an initial  $OD_{600}$  of  $~0.01$ . These secondary cultures were grown for defined time periods. For the detection of  $Q_8$  in  $\Delta ubiI\Delta ygiC$  double mutant, strains were grown in LB supplemented with 0.2% glucose.

#### **2.3 Recombinant DNA work and gel electrophoresis**

General protocols for cloning techniques, colony PCR, agarose gel electrophoresis, and SDS-PAGE were adapted from 'Sambrook Molecular cloning: A Laboratory manual'. Plasmid isolation, purification of PCR products and gel extraction of DNA was performed using kits purchased from Thermo scientific and protocols were followed as per manufacturer's instruction manual.

#### **2.4 P1 Lysate preparation and transduction**

P1 lysate was prepared using protocol mentioned in [\(Miller, 1972\)](#page-166-0) with slight modifications. Overnight cultures of desired strains were sub-cultured with 1:100 ratio in 2 ml LB containing 5 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, and incubated at  $37^{\circ}$ C for 90 min. 20 µl of P1 lysate was added to cultures and cultures were again incubated at 37°C for 3-4 hours. 50 μl of chloroform was added to lysed cultures and vortexed for 30 seconds. Cell debris was pelleted and supernatant (lysate) was transferred to fresh MCT containing 50 μl of chloroform, and stored at 4°C until use.

P1 transduction was preformed using protocol mentioned in [\(Miller, 1972\)](#page-166-0) with slight modifications. 1 ml of overnight culture was pelleted and re-suspended in 500 μl of solution containing 5 mM  $MgSO_4$  and 10 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>. 100 μl of re-suspended cells were aliquoted in two MCTs. 60 μl of P1 lysate was added to first aliquot while second aliquot was left untreated, and samples were incubated at 30°C for 30 min in a water bath. 1 ml LB containing 10 mM of sodium citrate was added to the samples and incubated at 37°C for 1 hour in a water bath. Cells were pelleted and washed twice with 1 ml LB and then suspended in 100 μl of LB. Suspended cells were spread on LB agar plates supplemented with 10 mM of sodium citrate and suitable antibiotic, and incubated at 30°C for 16-18 hours. 60 μl of P1 lysate was also spread on LB agar plates as control. Colonies obtained were re-streaked twice on LB agar plates with 10 mM sodium citrate and suitable antibiotic and incubated at 37°C. Transductants were confirmed by colony PCR.

#### **2.5 Growth curves**

Overnight cultures grown in TB were pelleted, and cells were re-inoculated in 50 ml of TB or TB medium supplemented with oleate or Brij-58 detergent. Secondary cultures were setup with initial  $OD_{600}$  of  $\sim 0.01$  in 250 ml shake flasks and incubated at 37 $\rm{°C}$  in a water bath shaker. OD<sub>600</sub> of secondary cultures was measured at regular time intervals and OD<sub>600</sub> was plotted against time to generate growth curves.

#### **2.6 Dilution spotting**

Overnight cultures were pelleted by centrifugation, washed and re-suspended in M9 minimal medium (without any carbon source) and  $OD<sub>450</sub>$  of each strain was normalized. Several dilutions of cultures were spotted on M9 minimal medium agar supplemented with desired carbon source. Antibiotics were added whenever required. Plates were incubated and imaged at various time intervals using the Gel Doc XR+ imaging system from BioRad. A representative image with apparent growth differences is shown in the figures.

#### **2.7 RNA isolation, cDNA preparation and quantitative RT-PCR**

Secondary cultures (15 ml) were grown in 125 ml flasks to  $OD_{600} \sim 0.5$  or 1. Samples (8 ml) were added to ice-cold 5% water-saturated phenol (in ethanol), and centrifuged at 8200 X g for 2 min. Cell pellets were flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at - 80°C until required. RNA was extracted using the hot-phenol method, with slight modifications. Briefly, pellets were re-suspended in 500 μl lysis solution (320 mM Na acetate pH 4.6, 8% SDS, 16 mM EDTA), followed by mixing with 1 ml water buffered phenol. Samples were incubated at 65°C for 5 min with intermittent vortexing. Samples were kept on ice for 5 min and centrifuged at 4°C for 10 min. The supernatant was extracted twice with phenol-chloroform, precipitated with 2.5 volumes of absolute ethanol and washed with 70% ethanol. The RNA pellet was air dried and re-suspended in 85 μl RNase free water. DNA-free Turbo DNase was used to remove genomic DNA from samples according to the manufacturer's instructions for rigorous DNase treatment (Applied Biosystems, USA). cDNA was prepared for qRT-PCR using 5 μg of input RNA as described previously [\(Cummings et al., 2006\)](#page-161-0). Quantitative RT-PCR reactions were carried out using Power Sybrgreen PCR master mix according to the manufacturer's instructions (Applied Biosystems, USA), and 5 pmol of forward and reverse primers (Integrated DNA Technologies). Real-time PCR was performed with a Quant Studio 6 Flex system (Applied Biosystems, USA). Data were analyzed as described [\(Vandesompele et al., 2002\)](#page-170-0) using *recA* and *gyrA* as control.

#### **2.8 Nitroblue tetrazolium (NBT) assay**

Secondary cultures (3 ml) were grown in TB or TB medium supplemented with desired carbon source or Brij-58 detergent for ~16 hours. ROS levels were determined by NBT reduction assay following the protocol described in [\(Albesa et al., 2004\)](#page-159-0) with slight modifications. 1 ml of overnight secondary cultures were pelleted and resuspended in 1 ml of M9 minimal medium (without any carbon source).  $OD_{450}$  was measured and cells were normalized to OD 1.0. 1 ml of normalized cultures were pelleted and re-suspended in 200 µl of Hanks' balanced salt solution (HBSS). 200 µl of cultures in HBSS were split in two equal aliquots: 0.5 ml NBT (1 mg/ml) was added to one aliquot and the other aliquot was left untreated. Both aliquots were incubated at 37°C for 30 min in water bath. 100 µl of 0.1 M HCl was added and samples were centrifuged at 18,400 X *g* for 15 min. Supernatant was discarded, and pellet was treated with 0.4 ml dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) to dissolve reduced NBT (formazan blue), followed by addition of 0.8 ml HBSS. Formazan blue was quantified at 575 nm. To determine the absorbance corresponding to formazan blue, absorbance of aliquot without NBT was deducted from absorbance obtained for NBT treated sample. For experiments where ROS levels were determined in different phases of growth, 15 ml secondary cultures were grown in 125 ml flasks. Independent cultures (from the same primary culture) were set-up for each time point. The composition of HBSS solution is mentioned in the following Table 2.3. The HBSS solution was filter sterilized after preparation.

<b>Components</b>	Amount $(1 L)$
<b>NaCl</b>	8 gm
KCl	400 mg
CaCl <sub>2</sub> .2H <sub>2</sub> O	186 mg
MgSO <sub>4</sub> .7H <sub>2</sub> O	$10 \text{ mg}$
MgCl <sub>2</sub> .6H <sub>2</sub> O	$100$ mg
Na <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub>	480 mg
Glucose	$1 \text{ gm}$
NaHCO <sub>3</sub>	$350$ mg
$KH_2PO_4$	$60 \,\mathrm{mg}$

Table 2.3 Composition of HBSS solution

#### **2.9 Dihydroethidium (DHE) assay**

Secondary cultures (3 ml) were grown in TB supplemented with either oleate or Brij-58 detergent for ~16 hours. ROS levels were measured using the dihydroethidium (DHE) assay as described previously [\(Sevin and Sauer, 2014\)](#page-169-0), with slight modifications. 1 ml of overnight cells were pelleted and washed with 1X PBS solution (pH 7.4) and normalized to  $OD_{450}$  1.0. Two aliquots of the suspension, each of 100 µl was taken in two MCTs. To one aliquot 100 μl of 1X PBS containing 20 μM DHE and to the other 100 μl of 1X PBS (control for background fluorescence) was added. Under dark conditions, cells were incubated at 37°C for 1 hour in water bath to allow uptake and oxidation of DHE by ROS. Samples were then immediately transferred to ice. DHE oxidation was measured using BD Accuri C6 flow cytometer. Data are shown after subtracting the background fluorescence.

#### **2.10 NADH and NAD<sup>+</sup> quantification**

Secondary cultures (3 ml) were grown in TB supplemented with either oleate or Brij-58 detergent for  $\sim$  16 hours. Extraction of NAD<sup>+</sup> and NADH was carried out following the procedure described in [\(San et al., 2002\)](#page-168-0) with slight modification. Briefly, 2 ml of overnight secondary cultures were pelleted, and washed three times with 1 ml cold 1X PBS, and normalized to OD<sup>450</sup> 1.0. Immediately, 1 ml of each sample was taken in two MCTs, pelleted and re-suspended either in 300 µl of 0.2 M NaOH (for NADH) or 300 µl of 0.2 M HCl (for NAD<sup>+</sup>). Samples were incubated at 50 $^{\circ}$ C in water bath for 10 min and were immediately transferred to ice for 5 min. 300 µl of 0.1 M HCl (for NADH) or 0.1 M NaOH (for NAD<sup>+</sup>) was added drop-wise to the samples with vortexing. Cell debris was removed by centrifugation at 18,400 X g for 5 min at 4°C, and the supernatant was transferred to a fresh MCT and kept in ice. Samples with extracted NADH or NAD<sup>+</sup> were de-proteinized using a 9 kDa cut-off filter by centrifugation at  $6,900$  X g for 15 min at  $4^{\circ}$ C, and kept in ice. NAD<sup>+</sup>/NADH quantification kit (Sigma) was further used for quantifying amount of NADH and NAD<sup>+</sup> in samples. Briefly, 150 µl reaction mix was prepared in 96-well plates (transparent with clear bottom) according to manufacturer's instruction. Each reaction mix contained 50 µl sample (above extracted sample), 98 µl cycling buffer, and 2 µl cycling enzyme mix. The reaction mix was incubated at room temperature (RT) for 10 min and then 10 µl of NADH developer was added in dark. After two hours, absorbance was measured at 450 nm (Thermo scientific Multiskan Go). Standard curve was generated using NADH standard provided in the kit, and the amount of NADH or NAD<sup>+</sup> in the samples was determined.

#### **2.11 Enzyme activity assays**

#### **2.11.1** *Preparation of cell extract*

Secondary cultures (3 ml) were grown either in TB or TB supplemented with oleate for ~16 hours. Cultures were washed at least three times with assay buffer. 1.5 ml of 5  $x$  10<sup>9</sup> cells were re-suspended and sonicated. Samples were centrifuged at 18,400 X g for 40 min at 4°C, supernatant was collected and kept in ice. Protein in the cell extracts was quantified using Bradford assay.

### **2.11.2** *NADH dehydrogenase assay*

The protocol adapted from [\(Wang and Maier, 2004\)](#page-170-1) was slightly modified. 1 ml reaction mixture was set up containing 50 mM Tris-Cl (pH 8.0), 250 µM Menadione, and 1 µg protein. Reaction was initiated by adding 250 µM NADH. Enzyme activity was calculated from the decrease in absorbance of NADH (extinction coefficient: 6.22  $mM^{-1}$  cm<sup>-1</sup>) at 340 nm over a period of 5 min. Activity was expressed as nmoles of NADH oxidized per min per mg protein. Reaction mixture without NADH was taken as blank.

#### **2.11.3** *Succinate dehydrogenase assay*

The protocol adapted from [\(McNeil et al., 2012\)](#page-166-1) was followed with few modifications. 1 ml reaction mixture was set up containing 0.1 M NaPO4 (pH 7.0), 0.1 M sodium succinate (pH 7.5), 0.12 M sodium azide, 0.1 mM ubiquinone-2 (Sigma, 10 mM stock was prepared in ethanol) and 50 µg protein. Reaction was followed by adding 0.05 mM DCIP (2,6-Dichlorophenolindophenol). Enzyme activity was calculated from the decrease in absorbance of DCIP (extinction coefficient: 22 mM<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup>) at 600 nm over a period of 15 min. Activity was expressed as nmoles of DCIP reduced per min per mg protein. Reaction mixture without DCIP was taken as blank.

#### **2.12 Thiobarbituric acid responsive substance (TBARS) assay**

TBARS assay measures MDA (malondialdehyde), a byproduct of lipid peroxidation. Quantification of MDA level was carried out following the procedure described in [\(Rael et al., 2004\)](#page-168-1) with few modifications. Secondary cultures (3 ml) were grown in TB and TB supplemented with either oleate or Brij-58 detergent for ~16 hours. 1.5 ml of overnight cultures were washed three times with 20 mM  $KH_2PO_4$  (pH 7.4) buffer containing .01M CuCl<sub>2</sub>. OD<sub>450</sub> of each sample was measured and 1.5 ml of 5 x  $10^9$ cells was sonicated. The sonicated samples were centrifuged at 18,400 X g for 20 min at 4°C, cell debris was removed and supernatant was collected. In 400 µl of supernatant, 0.5 mM ascorbate and 2 mM sucrose was added, and incubated at 37°C for 60 min. In this mixture, 400 µl of 1% TBA, 400 µl of conc. acetic acid was added, and incubated in boiling water for 30 min. Samples were left at room temperature for 20 min. The absorbance of 1ml reaction mixture was then measured at 532 nm in spectrophotometer. Acetone was taken (instead of sonicated sample) as a positive control. Protein in the cell extracts after sonication was quantified using Bradford assay.

#### **2.13 Library screening and data processing**

The chemical genomics screen was performed using the same methodology as reported previously with slight modifications [\(Nichols et al., 2011\)](#page-167-0). Briefly, the Keio deletion library was arrayed in 1536-format and pinned onto plates containing minimal medium agar supplemented either with oleate or glucose with Brij-58, using a Singer Rotor robot. Plates were incubated at 37°C for 21 hours for glucose with Brij-58 and 42 hours for oleate. Time points were chosen such that fitness differences were apparent but growth had not saturated. Pictures of the plates were taken using a Canon G10 digital camera. Colony size was quantified from plate images using the HT Colony Grid Analyzer software package [\(Collins et al., 2006\)](#page-161-1). Colony sizes were filtered and normalized using established methods for chemical genomics in *E. coli* K-12 [\(Shiver et al., 2016\)](#page-169-1). To account for potential effects of Brij-58 on growth, fitness scores for the oleate condition were generated by directly comparing colony size between oleate and glucose with Brij-58 control using the same statistical test as the S-score [\(Collins et al., 2006\)](#page-161-1).

#### **2.14 Preparation of ubiquinol-8 standard**

Ubiquinone-8 (Avantis Polar Lipids) was reduced to ubiquinol-8 following the procedure used for reduction of ubiquinone-10 [\(Kotnik, 2013\)](#page-164-0). In 125 ml conical flask, 19 ml hexane, 1 ml methanol and 200 mg of sodium borohydride was added to a freshly prepared 1 ml ubiquinone-8 solution (1 mg/ml in hexane). The mixture was covered to avoid light, stirred, and kept for 5 min. Disappearance of yellowish color of ubiquinone indicated the conversion of ubiquinone to ubiquinol. The mixture was transferred to 50 ml falcon tube and 2 ml MQ water was added and mixed thoroughly by shaking to dissolve sodium borohydride in water. The mixture was centrifuged at 2050 X g for 5 min. Upper layer of organic solvent containing ubiquinol-8 was transferred into a fresh tube and stored at -20°C.

#### **2.15 Extraction of quinones from** *E. coli* **cells**

Quinones were extracted using the protocol described in [\(Hajj Chehade et al., 2013\)](#page-163-0) with slight modifications. 15 ml of secondary cultures grown either in TB or TB supplemented with oleate or Brij-58 detergent were incubated at 37°C for ~16 hours in a water bath shaker. Equal numbers of cells  $({}^{\sim}3 \text{ X } 10^{10} \text{ cells})$  were pelleted by centrifugation and pellet mass was determined. Pellets were re-suspended in 100 µl of 0.1 M KCl, and then 200 µl of glass beads (acid washed  $\geq$ 106 µm, Sigma), 600 µl of methanol and 12 µg of ubiquinone-10 standard (used as internal control for normalizing extraction efficiency) were added sequentially. Samples were vortexed for 15 min followed by addition of 400 µl n-Hexane (petroleum ether). Samples were vortexed again for 3 min and the topmost layer of hexane (containing dissolved lipid mix) was transferred gently into fresh MCT. 100 µl of this hexane layer with dissolved lipids was completely dried under vacuum and lipid mix was re-suspended in 100 µl of mobile phase.

#### **2.16 Detection of quinones by HPLC-photodiode array analysis**

The extracted lipid mix was separated and analyzed by reversed-phase HPLC using C18 column (Waters Sunfire 5 µm columns, 4.6 X 250 mm). Mobile phase was prepared using 40% ethanol, 40% acetonitrile, and 20% of a mix of 90% isopropyl alcohol and 10% of 1 M lithium perchlorate [\(Hajj Chehade et al., 2013\)](#page-163-0). Samples were injected with the running mobile phase, at a flow rate of 1 ml/min, temperature 25°C and monitoring at wavelength range of 240 nm to 400 nm. A chromatogram containing various peaks was obtained for each sample at a particular wavelength. Using standards for ubiquinone-8  $(Q_8)$  and ubiquinol-8  $(Q_8H_2)$  the peaks of quinones in samples were identified at respective wavelengths. For each sample, the  $Q_8$  peak area per unit mass was calculated, and to account for the difference in extraction efficiency between samples, the  $Q_8$  peak area per unit mass was divided by ubiquinone-10 peak area.

# **CHAPTER III**

**Degradation of long-chain fatty acids generates high** 

**levels of reactive oxygen species in** *E. coli*

#### **3.1 Introduction**

Long-chain fatty acids (LCFAs) are carboxylic acids with an unbranched aliphatic chain comprising 12-20 carbon atoms. LCFAs serve as a rich source of metabolic energy for *Escherichia coli* and several other important pathogens such as *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium and *Vibrio cholerae.* These bacteria utilize fatty acids derived from host, for example, *P. aeruginosa* utilizes lipids from lung surfactants of cystic fibrosis patients [\(Son et al., 2007\)](#page-169-2), *M. tuberculosis* utilizes fatty acids as a major carbon source from chronically infected lung tissues [\(McKinney et al., 2000\)](#page-166-2), *S. enterica*  serovar Typhimurium derives fatty acids from phagosomes during chronic infection [\(Fang et al., 2005\)](#page-162-0) and *V. cholerae* acquires fatty acids from bile [\(Giles et al., 2011\)](#page-162-1). The utilization of LCFAs enables the survival of these pathogens in the harsh environments of host tissues and contributes to their virulence [\(Fang et al., 2005;](#page-162-0) [Kang et al., 2010;](#page-164-1) [Son et al., 2007\)](#page-169-2). In addition to their important role in bacterial pathogenesis, LCFAs serve as a raw material for industrial production of various fuels and chemicals. *E. coli* has been engineered for aerobic fermentation of LCFAs to produce ethanol, butanol, acetate, propionate and acetone, with yields higher than those obtained from sugar fermentation [\(Dellomonaco et al., 2010\)](#page-161-2). Further, in a separate study, the LCFA, oleate (monounsaturated LCFA with 18 carbon atoms; C18), has been used as a raw material for L-lysine fermentation by emulsification (Doi [et al., 2014\)](#page-161-3). Although LCFAs are rich energy source they confer various stresses on bacteria such as acid stress, redox stress, envelope stress as indicated by upregulation of stress response genes in bacteria grown in LCFAs or over-producing free fatty acids [\(Lennen et al., 2011;](#page-165-1) [Rodriguez et al., 2014\)](#page-168-2). Importantly, the connection between LCFAs and redox stress has been indicated in several studies. A global transcriptome of *M. tuberculosis* cultured in medium supplemented with a mixture of even-length LCFAs, showed significant overexpression of genes involved in maintaining redox balance. Notably, WhiB3 and DosR, the two heme sensor proteins that regulate intracellular redox balance were overexpressed. In addition, several genes involved in cellular processes that consume reduced cofactors (e.g., complex lipid biosynthesis) were upregulated, suggesting induction of combat strategies to handle redox stress generated by LCFAs [\(Rodriguez et al., 2014\)](#page-168-2). In another study, *E. coli* grown in oleate was reported to accumulate higher level of reactive oxygen species (ROS) compared to cultures grown in glucose [\(Doi et al.,](#page-161-3)  [2014\)](#page-161-3). Further, a study in *E. coli* aimed at overproducing free fatty acids showed that fatty acid accumulation is accompanied by induction of several regulon members of SoxS, the major transcriptional regulator of oxidative stress combat players [\(Lennen](#page-165-1)  [et al., 2011\)](#page-165-1).

Various mechanisms have been suggested in the literature to explain the correlation between fatty acids and ROS, which include stress due to fatty acid incorporation in the membrane, generation of lipid peroxides and peroxyl radicals by oxidative attack on fatty acids, and β-oxidation of fatty acids [\(Doi et al., 2014;](#page-161-3) [Pradenas et al., 2012;](#page-167-1) [Schonfeld and Wojtczak, 2008\)](#page-169-3). Which of the above mechanism(s) account for increased levels of ROS in bacteria cultured in LCFAs has not been investigated. Given the importance of LCFAs in bacterial pathogenesis and industrial production, a detailed investigation of the reason(s) for LCFA-mediated ROS generation and of the strategies employed by bacteria to mitigate LCFA-induced stress is required.

In this chapter, we describe our work aimed at understanding the reason for generation of elevated levels of ROS in *E. coli* cultured in LCFAs. We used *E. coli* as a model because the pathway of LCFA transport and degradation has been extensively characterized in this bacterium. LCFA degradation is mediated by proteins encoded by the *fad* (fatty acid degradation) genes [\(Clark and Cronan, 2005\)](#page-161-4). Briefly, exogenous LCFAs are transported inside the cell by an outer membrane protein, FadL, followed by extraction from the inner membrane and esterification to acyl-CoA by the inner membrane-associated fatty acyl-CoA synthetase, FadD. Acyl-CoAs are degraded to acetyl-CoA via the β-oxidation pathway mediated by the enzymatic activities of FadE, FadB, and FadA. For the degradation of one molecule of LCFA the β-oxidation pathway runs multiple times, and thus the number of β-oxidation cycles for a particular LCFA depends on the number of carbon atoms in its aliphatic chain. Acetyl-CoA feeds into the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle and glyoxylate pathway for further metabolism [\(Cronan and Laporte, 2005\)](#page-161-5). The reduced cofactors (NADH and FADH2) generated during β-oxidation and TCA cycle are oxidized in the electron transport chain (ETC) resulting in the production of ATP.

We investigated the reason for oxidative stress in *E. coli* grown in LCFAs by measuring ROS levels in several *fad* deletion strains. We convincingly established that LCFA transport and degradation is the reason for generation of high levels of ROS. Our results further suggest that a large amount of reduced cofactors generated during LCFA metabolism increase the flow of electrons in ETC resulting in elevated levels of ROS.

#### **3.2 Results**

**3.2.1 LCFAs supplemented in tryptone broth (TB) are used as a carbon source by** *E. coli* **and generate oxidative stress in bacteria** 

Because *E. coli* grown in minimal medium containing oleate generates high levels of ROS [\(Doi et al., 2014\)](#page-161-3), we sought to investigate whether high ROS levels is due to LCFA transport and degradation. This required determining ROS levels in *fad* knockouts, which do not grow in minimal medium containing LCFAs as the sole carbon source [\(Campbell et al., 2003\)](#page-160-0). We chose tryptone broth (TB) medium, a mixture of amino acids, for experiments with the idea that TB would support the growth of *fad* knockouts, and since TB causes mild catabolite repression [\(Petit-](#page-167-2)[Koskas and Contesse, 1976\)](#page-167-2), LCFAs supplemented in TB would be co-utilized with carbon components of TB. We first confirmed the co-utilization of LCFAs with TB and then measured ROS levels in desired strains.

## **3.2.1.1 Oleate supplemented in TB is co-utilized with carbon components of TB medium**

We used oleate as a representative LCFA for our experiments and first checked the growth of wild-type (WT) *E. coli* cells cultured in TB and TB supplemented with oleate (TB-Ole). Since oleate was solubilized in the detergent, Brij-58, we also determined the growth of cells in TB supplemented with Brij (TB-Brij). Cells grown in TB-Ole had higher biomass than cultures grown in TB and TB-Brij (Fig. 3.1A). We further measured the transcript levels of *fadL* (gene encoding the outer membrane transporter for LCFAs) and *fadE* (gene encoding the fatty acyl-CoA dehydrogenase) in WT cells grown in TB, TB-Brij and TB-Ole media at time points, T1 and T2, as indicated in the growth curve (Fig. 3.1A). The *fad* genes are negatively regulated by the transcriptional regulator, FadR, repression of which is relieved by acyl-CoA; hence *fad* genes are induced in the presence of LCFAs [\(Clark and Cronan, 2005\)](#page-161-4). Compared to the TB medium, we observed ~2 fold increase in *fadL* transcript levels and ~15 to 20 fold increase in *fadE* transcript levels in WT cells grown in TB-Ole (Figs. 3.1, B and C). Brij-58 alone did not affect the transcript levels of *fad* genes. Collectively, the increase in biomass, and transcript levels of *fadL* and *fadE* in WT grown in TB-Ole confirmed the co-utilization of oleate with carbon components of TB medium.



**Figure 3.1 Oleate is co-utilized with carbon components of TB medium.** (A) Increase in biomass of WT cells in TB-Ole confirms the co-utilization of oleate with TB. WT was grown in TB, TB-Brij and TB-Ole.  $OD_{600}$  of the cultures was measured and growth curves were plotted. The experiment was done 3 times. A representative dataset is shown. T1, T2, T3 and T4 indicate time points where cultures were harvested for various assays. (B) *fadL* and (C) *fadE* are transcriptionally induced in *E. coli* grown in TB-Ole. WT was grown in TB, TB-Brij and TB-Ole. Samples were harvested for RNA isolation at time points T1 and T2 shown in Fig. 3.1A, cDNA was prepared, and transcript abundance was assayed by qRT-PCR. Data were normalized to transcript levels in TB at time point T1 and represent average  $(\pm S.D.)$  of 3 independent experiments.

# **3.2.1.2** *E. coli* **cultured in TB supplemented with oleate generates high levels of ROS**

*E. coli* grown in minimal medium supplemented with oleate is reported to accumulate  $\sim$ 2-fold higher levels of hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) compared with cultures grown in glucose [\(Doi et al., 2014\)](#page-161-3). Because our follow-up experiments required the use of TB medium, we first checked whether *E. coli* cells also generate high levels of ROS in TB-Ole compared to a basal medium. We used Nitroblue tetrazolium (NBT) reduction assay for determining ROS levels. NBT is a yellow colored positively charged compound, which crosses the cell membrane [\(Berridge et al., 2005\)](#page-160-1), and gets reduced by superoxide ion to form a blue colored compound, formazan [\(Albesa et al., 2004;](#page-159-0) [Perez-Pantoja et al., 2013\)](#page-167-3) (Fig. 3.2A). Under our experimental conditions, we observed that with an increase in the number of cells the absorbance of formazan increases linearly, suggesting that NBT is not limiting for the assay (Fig. 3.2B). We measured ROS levels in WT cultured in TB and TB-Ole at different phases of growth (Fig. 3.1A). ROS levels were consistently higher in TB-Ole  $(-1.3 \text{ to } 1.8\text{-}$  fold) compared to TB in each phase of growth with a maximum difference in stationary phase (Fig. 3.2C). Hence for our downstream single time point experiments cultures were sampled in stationary phase. Brij-58 alone did not result in increased ROS (Fig. 3.2C inset). NBT has been extensively used in *E. coli* and other gram-negative bacteria to measure intracellular superoxide [\(Albesa et al., 2004;](#page-159-0) [Berridge et al., 2005;](#page-160-1) [Marathe et al., 2013;](#page-165-2) [Perez-Pantoja et al., 2013\)](#page-167-3). We independently validated that the reduction of NBT reports on intracellular superoxide levels by overexpressing superoxide dismutase, SodA, from plasmid pAQ6 (a gift from Gisela Storz lab) [\(Storz](#page-169-4)  [et al., 1987\)](#page-169-4) in WT cells cultured in TB, TB-Brij and TB-Ole (Fig. 3.2D). We observed ~30% decrease in NBT signal in all media conditions (Fig. 3.2E).

As an additional evidence for elevated ROS levels in cells grown in oleate, we used a fluorometric approach based on the oxidation of the cell-permeable nonfluorescent dye, dihydroethidium (DHE) by superoxide ion to a fluorescent product, hydroxyl ethidium [\(Zhao et al., 2003\)](#page-171-0). We measured ROS levels in WT cells grown in TB-Brij and TB-Ole media conditions. In comparison to TB-Brij, we observed ~2.5 fold higher ROS levels in WT cells grown in TB-Ole (Fig. 3.2F). Thus, similar to the colorimetric NBT assay, the fluorometric DHE assay also reported higher levels of ROS in *E. coli* cells grown in TB-Ole.



**Figure 3.2** *E. coli* **cultured in tryptone broth supplemented with oleate generates high levels of ROS.** (A) Yellow colored NBT dye is reduced to blue colored formazan by superoxide, which can be detected at 575 nm. (Adapted from – Tim Vickers, https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=4427975). (B) Curve showing a linear increase in absorbance of formazan with increase in number of cells. (C) Difference in ROS levels between TB and TB-Ole. WT was grown either in TB or TB-Ole, and cultures were harvested at different phases of growth as indicated in Fig. 3.1A. Fold change in ROS levels (TB-Ole/TB) was calculated. Data represent average  $(\pm$  S.D.) of 3 independent experiments. (Inset) Brij-58 does not interfere with ROS assay. ROS levels were determined by NBT assay in WT grown in TB and TB-Brij. Data were normalized to the ROS level of WT in TB and represent average  $(\pm S.D.)$  of 3 independent experiments. (D) SodA expression from the plasmid. WT cells carrying either pACYC184 (empty plasmid) or pAQ6 (pACYC184 carrying *sodA*) were grown in TB, TB-Brij and TB-Ole. Cells were harvested, lysates were prepared and samples were run on 15% SDS-PAGE. The band corresponding to SodA is indicated (Mol. wt. ~24 kDa). (E) Overexpression of SodA from plasmid reduces NBT signal. WT was transformed either with pACYC184 or pAQ6. Cultures were grown in TB, TB-Brij and TB-Ole. ROS levels were determined by NBT assay. Data were normalized to the ROS level of WT transformed with pACYC184 in TB medium and represent average  $(\pm S.D.)$  of 3 independent experiments. (F) Fold-increase in ROS levels in TB-Ole compared to TB-Brij as determined by DHE assay is similar to that observed by NBT assay. WT was grown either in TB-Brij or TB-Ole. ROS levels were determined. Data were normalized to the ROS level of WT in TB-Brij and represent average  $(\pm S.D.)$  of 3 independent experiments.

## **3.2.2. LCFA metabolism is the reason for high levels of ROS in** *E. coli* **cultured in oleate**

In order to investigate the reason for LCFA-mediated oxidative stress, we sought to analyze each individual step involved in the transport and  $\beta$ -oxidation of LCFAs. We thus determined ROS levels in *fad* deletion strains defective in LCFA transport and degradation.

#### **3.2.2.1 Verification of** *fad* **deletion strains obtained from the Keio deletion library**

We obtained *fad* deletion strains from the Keio deletion library, which is a collection of single-gene knockouts of all non-essential genes (~4000) in *E. coli,* and each deletion strain has two independent clones [\(Baba et al., 2006\)](#page-159-1). Before measuring ROS levels in various *fad* strains, we first verified each *fad* deletion strain by colony PCR using four sets of primers (Fig. 3.3A). A representative gel image for the PCR verification of *fadB* strain is shown in Fig. 3.3B. We further confirmed the known growth phenotypes of *fad* deletion strains on minimal medium containing oleate as the sole carbon source [\(Campbell and Cronan, 2002;](#page-160-2) [Campbell et al., 2003;](#page-160-0) [Nunn and](#page-167-4)  [Simons, 1978\)](#page-167-4). As expected, whereas all *fad* knockouts exhibited normal growth in minimal medium supplemented with glucose, none of the deletion strains showed growth in minimal medium supplemented with oleate (Fig. 3.3C). Collectively, our above results verified *fad* deletion strains from the library. For all follow-up experiments either both independent clones from the library and/or fresh transductants were analyzed to rule out genetic errors.





**Figure 3.3 Verification of** *fad* **deletion strains.** (A) A diagrammatic representation of four primer sets (P1 to P4), used to confirm the insertion of kanamycin gene cassette, replacing the gene of interest from WT. FP: Forward primer and RP: Reverse primer (gene specific primers); K1 and K2: kanamycin cassette specific primers. (B) *fad* deletion strains were verified by PCR and a representative gel image for PCR verification of *fadB*::*kan* strain is shown. Both parents (C1 and C2) and transductants (T1 and T2) were verified by four sets of primers P1 to P4. Requisite bands were obtained in each lane. (C) Dilutions of the cultures of various *fad* deletion strains were spotted on minimal medium containing either glucose or oleate as a carbon source. Minimal medium with glucose also had Brij-58.

## **3.2.2.2 Transport and β-oxidation of exogenously supplied LCFAs accounts for high levels of ROS in** *E. coli*

Exogenous LCFAs are transported inside the cell by an outer-membrane protein, FadL. Subsequently, the inner-membrane associated acyl-CoA synthetase, FadD, extracts LCFAs from the inner-membrane concomitant with esterification to acyl-CoA (Fig. 3.4A). Acyl-CoA is oxidized to 2-enoyl-CoA by the fatty acyl-CoA dehydrogenase, FadE. 2-enoyl-CoA is further converted to 3-oxoacyl-CoA by enoyl-CoA hydratase/3-hydroxyacyl-CoA dehydrogenase, FadB and finally 3-oxoacyl-CoA is cleaved to acetyl-CoA by the 3-ketoacyl-CoA thiolase, FadA [\(Clark and Cronan,](#page-161-4)  [2005\)](#page-161-4)*.* Whereas LCFAs are not at all transported inside the cell in *fadL* and *fadD* mutants, *fadE*, *fadB*, and *fadA* mutants are able to transport LCFAs at reduced rates but are defective in β-oxidation [\(Klein et al., 1971\)](#page-164-2). We, therefore, suggested that determining ROS levels in *fad* deletion strains would help us to determine whether LCFA transport and degradation is the reason for LCFA-induced oxidative stress.

ROS levels in *fad* knockouts were measured by NBT assay. In comparison to WT, where ROS levels increased by ~1.6 fold in the presence of oleate,  $\Delta f a dL$  strain exhibited similar ROS levels in both TB and TB-Ole. Further, ROS levels did not show a considerable increase in  $\Delta f$ *adD* strain in TB-Ole compared to TB medium (Fig. 3.4B). Collectively, data from  $\Delta$ *fadL* and  $\Delta$ *fadD* strains clearly validate that LCFA transport inside the cell is required for elevated ROS levels in the presence of oleate. An additional observation from  $\Delta$ *fadD* strain was that ROS levels were higher even in TB basal medium. We suggest that since in addition to degradation of exogenous LCFAs, FadD is also required for utilization of endogenous fatty acids released from membrane lipids [\(Pech-Canul et al., 2011\)](#page-167-5), therefore in a *fadD* strain accumulation of intracellular free fatty acids is the reason for higher ROS levels. Our result that  $\Delta f a dD$  grown in TB medium has increased ROS levels is consistent with the proposal that accumulation of fatty acids can cause oxidative stress in bacteria [\(Pradenas et al., 2012\)](#page-167-1).

A *fadE* strain, which is defective in β-oxidation but can still transport LCFAs although at a reduced rate [\(Klein et al., 1971\)](#page-164-2) did not exhibit a considerable increase in ROS levels in TB-Ole in comparison to TB medium. This result suggests that transport and subsequent degradation of oleate is the reason for LCFA-induced oxidative stress. Surprisingly, unlike *fadE* the deletion of either *fadB* or *fadA* showed nearly WT ROS levels, i.e. ~1.6 fold increase in ROS levels in the presence of oleate compared to TB medium (Fig. 3.4B). Here, it is important to consider that FadJ and FadI are the homologues of FadB and FadA, respectively, that mainly function during anaerobic β-oxidation; however, these enzymes also work sub-optimally under aerobic conditions [\(Campbell et al., 2003\)](#page-160-0). We speculated that in  $\Delta f a dB$  and  $\Delta f a dA$ strains the increase in ROS levels in TB-Ole is due to the suboptimal activity of FadJ and FadI. To investigate this proposal, we measured ROS levels in strains deleted for both the aerobic and anaerobic forms of enzymes, i.e., *fadBfadJ* and *fadAfadI*  strains*.* As expected, *fadJ* and *fadI* strains showed ROS levels similar to WT due to the enzymatic activity of FadB and FadA. Importantly, the double mutants *fadBfadJ* and *fadAfadI* exhibited no increase in ROS levels in the presence of oleate compared to TB medium (Fig. 3.4C). Collectively, the above data clearly establish that LCFA transport and degradation is the reason for elevated levels of ROS in the presence of oleate.



**Figure 3.4 ROS levels do not increase in strains defective in LCFA uptake and**  degradation. (A) A schematic of the LCFA degradation pathway is shown. Exogenous LCFAs are transported inside the cell by an outer-membrane protein, FadL. The innermembrane associated fatty acyl-CoA synthetase, FadD, extracts LCFAs from the innermembrane concomitant with esterification to acyl-CoA. Acyl-CoA is oxidized to 2-enoyl-CoA by the fatty acyl-CoA dehydrogenase, FadE, generating one molecule of FADH2. Further, 2-enoyl-CoA is converted to 3-oxoacyl-CoA by FadB, generating one molecule of

NADH. Finally, 3-oxoacyl-CoA is cleaved to acetyl-CoA by a 3-ketoacyl-CoA thiolase, FadA*.* Acetyl-CoA is further degraded by TCA and glyoxylate cycles. The reduced cofactors produced during β-oxidation and TCA cycle are oxidized in the ETC for generation of energy. (B) WT and various *fad* deletion strains were grown either in TB or TB-Ole. ROS levels were determined by NBT assay. Data were normalized to the ROS level of WT in TB and represent average  $(\pm S.D.)$  of 3 independent experiments. (C) ROS levels were measured in single and double mutants of various *fad* genes. WT and various *fad* deletion strains (*fadJ*, *fadBfadJ, fadI* and *fadAfadI*) were grown either in TB or TB-Ole, and ROS levels were determined by NBT assay. Data were normalized to the ROS level of WT in TB and represent average  $(\pm S.D.)$  of 3 independent experiments.

# **3.2.3 Increased production of reduced cofactors during LCFA metabolism likely contributes to elevated levels of ROS**

Several mechanisms have been proposed to explain the formation of ROS during metabolism, such as extraction of electrons from reduced metal centers of dehydrogenases by molecular  $O_2$ , leakage of electrons during oxidation-reduction cycles of ETC promoting the reaction of free electrons with  $O_2$ , and auto-oxidation of flavoproteins [\(Imlay, 2003\)](#page-163-1). The probability of above-mentioned events favoring intervention of  $O_2$  with electrons would logically be higher in cells that produce a large number of reduced cofactors, i.e. high NADH/NAD<sup>+</sup> and FADH<sub>2</sub>/FAD ratios, thereby generating high levels of ROS. Based on the metabolic pathway of LCFAs, a large number of reduced cofactors are expected to generate during LCFA degradation; however, there is no experimental evidence for the same in *E. coli.* Thus we investigated whether a large amount of reduced cofactors are indeed generated during LCFA metabolism that increases electron flow in the ETC favoring high ROS formation. Because fatty acids of varying carbon chain length are expected to produce different amount of reduced cofactors, we first determined whether ROS levels correlate with the chain length of fatty acids. Next, we directly measured intracellular

NADH/NAD<sup>+</sup> ratio in cells utilizing LCFAs. Finally, to assess whether there is an increase in electron flow in the ETC during LCFA metabolism we measured the activity of ETC complex I and complex II.

#### **3.2.3.1 ROS levels directly correlate with the carbon chain length of fatty acids**

In each round of β-oxidation, one molecule of  $FADH<sub>2</sub>$  and NADH are produced, and two carbon atoms are released as acetyl-CoA (Fig. 3.4A). Reduced cofactors are further generated by the metabolism of acetyl-CoA in the TCA cycle. For complete degradation of one molecule of LCFA, β-oxidation and TCA cycle runs multiple times, therefore, amount of reduced cofactors produced would vary with the chain length of fatty acids (Fig. 3.5A). We argued that if reduced cofactors are the reason for high ROS levels generated by fatty acid metabolism, then ROS levels should increase with an increase in the chain length of fatty acids. We determined ROS levels in WT cells grown in TB supplemented with either, a short-chain fatty acid, acetate (2C); or long-chain fatty acids, laurate (12C); or oleate (18C). *E. coli* K12 does not utilize butyrate (4C) and medium-chain fatty acids (5C to 10C), and hence these fatty acids could not be compared. As expected, ROS levels were highest in TB-Ole followed by TB-Lau; acetate utilization did not result in increase in ROS level over the level observed with TB alone, or TB supplemented with glucose (TB-Glu). Hence with increase in the chain length of fatty acids ROS levels increase in the order: TB- $Ole > TB$ -Lau  $> TB$ -Ace (Fig. 3.5B).

A previous study has reported that monounsaturated fatty acids are prone to oxidative attack at the double bond resulting in the generation of peroxyl radicals [\(Pradenas et al., 2012\)](#page-167-1). Therefore we tested if the highest level of ROS in TB-Ole is because oleate is a monounsaturated fatty acid. We compared ROS levels between *E.*  *coli* grown in TB-Ole and bacteria grown in TB containing stearate (TB-Ste), a saturated C18 LCFA. ROS levels were comparable in TB-Ole and TB-Ste (Fig. 3.5B) indicating that high ROS level in TB-Ole is not due to the unsaturated nature of oleate. Taken together, these results suggest that reduced cofactors generated by LCFA degradation are the reason for increased ROS formation during growth of *E. coli* in LCFAs.



**Figure 3.5 ROS levels increase with an increase in the chain length of fatty acids.** (A) A schematic of the metabolic route of LCFAs, acetate (2C) and glucose is shown. LCFAs, such as oleate (18C), stearate (18C), and laurate (12C) are degraded by β-oxidation. The end product of β-oxidation, acetyl-CoA enters TCA cycle for further degradation. Acetate is converted to acetyl-CoA which is catabolized by TCA cycle. Glucose is primarily catabolized by glycolysis followed by TCA cycle. The reduced cofactors produced through β-oxidation, glycolysis and TCA cycle are fed to ETC for energy generation. (B) WT was grown either in TB or TB supplemented with one of the indicated carbon sources: glucose (TB-Glu), acetate (TB-Ace), laurate (TB-Lau), oleate (TB-Ole) or stearate (TB-Ste). ROS levels were determined by NBT assay. Data were normalized to the ROS level of WT in TB and represent average  $(\pm S.D.)$  of 3 independent experiments.

#### **3.2.3.2 NADH/NAD<sup>+</sup> ratio increases in LCFA-utilizing cells**

We next determined whether reduced cofactors increase in LCFA-utilizing cells. For this, we measured the intracellular concentration of NADH and NAD<sup>+</sup> by a colorimetric assay (Sigma). Fig. 3.6A shows the NADH standard curve used for quantification of intracellular levels of  $NAD<sup>+</sup>$  and NADH. We observed  $\sim$ 2.5-fold increase in NADH in TB-Ole compared to TB-Brij (Fig. 3.6B); however, there was no significant change in NAD<sup>+</sup> levels (Fig. 3.6C). Overall, this resulted in  $\sim$ 2.5 fold higher NADH/NAD<sup>+</sup> ratio in TB-Ole compared to TB-Brij (Fig. 3.6D). Compared to WT, in the *fadL* knockout, both NADH and NAD<sup>+</sup> levels were similar in TB-Brij and TB-Ole (Figs. 3.6, B and C). This result clearly shows that the amount of reduced cofactors significantly increases during LCFA metabolism.



**Figure 3.6 NADH/NAD<sup>+</sup> ratio increases significantly during LCFA metabolism.** (A) A standard curve for NADH based on colorimetric detection (Sigma). Absorbance at 450 nm increases linearly with increasing amount of NADH. (B to D) WT and *fadL* strains were grown either in TB-Brij or TB-Ole. The amount of NADH  $(B)$  and NAD<sup>+</sup>  $(C)$ , and NADH/NAD<sup>+</sup> ratio (D) was determined. Data were normalized to WT in TB-Brij and represent average  $(\pm S.D.)$  of 3 independent experiments.

# **3.2.3.3 The activity of ETC complex I and complex II increases in LCFA metabolizing cells**

We observed that cells metabolizing LCFAs generate a large amount of reduced cofactors. Next, we wanted to determine whether the increased amount of reduced cofactors results in an increase in electron flow in the ETC. Therefore, we measured the enzyme activities of ETC complex I and ETC complex II in extracts prepared from cells grown in TB and TB-Ole. During aerobic respiration, ETC complex I (NADH dehydrogenase) and ETC complex II (succinate dehydrogenase) oxidize NADH and FADH2, respectively, and transfer electrons to ubiquinone. *nuoK* and *sdhB* code for a subunit of NADH dehydrogenase [\(Erhardt et al., 2012\)](#page-162-2) and succinate dehydrogenase, [\(Cheng et al., 2006\)](#page-161-6), respectively. Hence Δ*nuoK* and Δ*sdhB* strains were used as controls in the assay for complex I and complex II, respectively. The activity of complex I was quantified by measuring the rate of NADH decay at 340 nm; the linear range of detection of NADH was estimated by monitoring the absorbance of varying amounts of NADH (Fig. 3.7A). In WT cells, the activity of complex I increased by  $\sim$  1.4 fold in the presence of oleate (Figs. 3.7, B and C). The activity of complex II was quantified by measuring the rate of 2,6 dichlorophenolindophenol (DCIP) reduction. Complex II oxidizes FADH<sup>2</sup> and transfers electrons to DCIP which is a blue colored artificial electron acceptor that gets converted to colorless compound upon reduction. Hence the activity of complex II can be quantified by measuring the rate of decay of DCIP absorbance at 600 nm. The linear range of detection of DCIP was estimated by monitoring the absorbance with varying amounts of DCIP (Fig. 3.8A). Similar to complex I, the activity of complex II increased ~1.5 fold in the presence of oleate (Figs. 3.8, B and C). Increase in the activity of respiratory complexes was dependent on oleate transport inside the cells since the increase in activity of both complex I and complex II was abolished in a *fadL* strain (Figs. 3.7, B and D; Figs. 3.8, B and D). As expected, complex I and complex II activity was significantly decreased in  $\Delta nuoK$  and  $\Delta sdhB$  strains, respectively (Fig. 3.7B and Fig. 3.8B). Brij-58 did not interfere with the assays (Fig. 3.7B inset, Fig. 3.8B inset). Altogether, increase in activity of complex I and complex II in LCFA metabolizing cells shows that there is an increase in electron flow in the ETC due to a large amount of reduced cofactors generated by LCFA degradation.



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**Figure 3.7 Activity of respiratory complex I increase in cells utilizing LCFAs.** (A) Curve showing linear range detection of NADH. (B) WT, *fadL* and *nuoK* strains were grown either in TB or TB-Ole and complex I activity was measured. Data represent average  $(\pm S.D.)$ of 3 independent experiments. (Inset) Brij-58 does not interfere with complex I assay. Complex I activity was measured in WT grown in TB and TB-Brij. Data represent average  $(±)$ S.D.) of 3 independent experiments. (C) and (D) NADH decay rate for WT (C) and  $\Delta$ *fadL* (D) in TB and TB-Ole was plotted. Data represent average  $(\pm S.D.)$  of 3 independent experiments.



**Figure 3.8 Activity of respiratory complex II increases in cells utilizing LCFAs.** (A) Curve showing linear range detection of DCIP. (B) WT, *fadL* and *sdhB* strains were grown either in TB or TB-Ole and complex II activity was measured. Data represent average  $(\pm$ S.D.) of 3 independent experiments. (Inset) Brij-58 does not interfere with complex II assay. Complex II activity was measured in WT grown in TB and TB-Brij. Data represent average (± S.D.) of 3 independent experiments. (C) and (D) Rate of DCIP reduction for WT (C) and *fadL* (D) in TB and TB-Ole was plotted. Data represent average ( $\pm$  S.D.) of 3 independent experiments.

#### **3.2.4. LCFA utilization results in increased lipid peroxidation**

ROS is a byproduct of metabolism and participates in various signaling cascades and physiological processes [\(Cap et al., 2012\)](#page-160-3). However, a significant increase in ROS levels can oxidize biomolecules such as lipids, proteins and DNA [\(Imlay, 2003\)](#page-163-1). We investigated whether the increase in ROS levels during LCFA metabolism results in increased oxidation of biomolecules. For this, we observed the extent of lipid peroxidation in oleate utilizing cells. During lipid peroxidation, fatty acid component of lipids in cellular membrane is attacked by free radicals and converted to lipid peroxides and other reactive aldehydes such as malondialdehyde (MDA); MDA thus acts as a bioactive marker for lipid peroxidation. We measured MDA levels by thiobarbituric acid responsive substances (TBARS) assay [\(Yoon et al., 2002\)](#page-171-1). MDA levels increased by ~2 fold in WT cells cultured in TB-Ole compared to TB medium. Brij-58 did not interfere with the assay; the MDA levels in TB and TB-Brij were similar. In contrast to WT, in *fadL* knockout, MDA levels were comparable in both TB and TB-Ole medium (Fig. 3.9). This result clearly shows the harmful effect of LCFA-induced oxidative stress on cellular biomolecules in *E. coli*.



**Figure 3.9 Thiobarbituric acid responsive substance (TBARS) measures oxidative damage in LCFA-utilizing cells.** MDA acts as a bioactive marker for lipid peroxidation. WT

and *fadL* strains were grown in TB, TB-Brij and TB-Ole. MDA levels were determined by TBARS assay. Data were normalized to the MDA level of WT in TB and represent average  $(\pm S.D.)$  of 3 independent experiments.

### **3.3 Discussion**

Recent studies have indicated the connection between LCFAs and redox stress, where bacterial cells grown in the presence of LCFAs either showed significant overexpression of genes that are involved in maintaining redox balance [\(Rodriguez et](#page-168-2)  [al., 2014\)](#page-168-2), or generated high levels of ROS [\(Doi et al., 2014\)](#page-161-3). To explain the correlation between fatty acids and ROS, various mechanisms have been suggested such as generation of lipid peroxides and peroxyl radicals by oxidative attack on fatty acids, β-oxidation of fatty acids, and stress due to fatty acid incorporation in the membrane [\(Doi et al., 2014;](#page-161-3) [Pradenas et al., 2012;](#page-167-1) [Schonfeld and Wojtczak, 2008\)](#page-169-3). We investigated the reason for oxidative stress in *E. coli* cultured in LCFAs. To address this, we used several *fad* knockouts defective in LCFA transport and degradation. Because *fad* deletion strains do not grow in minimal medium supplemented with LCFAs as a sole carbon source, we performed experiments in TB medium supplemented with LCFAs. We observed an increase in biomass and transcript levels of *fadL* and *fadE* in WT grown in TB-Ole medium that confirmed the co-utilization of oleate with TB (Fig. 3.1). We used NBT assay to determine intracellular superoxide levels and observed increase in ROS levels in *E. coli* grown in oleate compared to bacteria grown in basal medium (Fig. 3.2C). We validated our results from NBT assay by using a fluorescent dye, DHE that also detects superoxide (Fig. 3.2F). Our results that *fad* deletion strains defective in LCFA metabolism do not exhibit an increase in ROS convincingly established that LCFA transport and degradation is the reason for oxidative stress in cells grown in this carbon source (Fig. 3.4). The biological significance of elevated ROS levels in LCFA-utilizing cells was evident from the increase MDA levels, a by-product of lipid peroxidation and a hallmark of oxidative damage (Fig. 3.9).

ROS is a by-product of aerobic metabolism. The reduced cofactors, NADH and FADH<sup>2</sup> generated during metabolism are oxidized by respiratory dehydrogenases enabling electron flow in the ETC. Concomitantly, ROS is formed by extraction of electrons from reduced metal centers of dehydrogenases by molecular O<sub>2</sub>, leakage of electrons during oxidation-reduction cycles of ETC or auto-oxidation of flavoproteins [\(Imlay, 2003\)](#page-163-1). We suggested that high NADH/NAD<sup>+</sup> and FADH<sub>2</sub>/FAD ratios attained during LCFA degradation would increase electron flow in the ETC thereby increasing the probability of ROS formation through the above-mentioned events. Our results that ROS levels directly correlate with the chain length of fatty acids (Fig. 3.5), higher NADH/NAD<sup>+</sup> ratio in LCFA-utilizing cells (Fig. 3.6), and increased enzyme activities of ETC complex I and II in cells cultured in oleate (Figs. 3.7 and 3.8), collectively support the above proposal.

Importantly, a predominant source of ROS during LCFA degradation could be the acyl-CoA dehydrogenase, FadE, which catalyzes the oxidation of acyl-CoA to enoyl-CoA concomitant with the reduction of FAD to FADH2 [\(Campbell and Cronan,](#page-160-2)  [2002\)](#page-160-2). Because the step catalyzed by FadE would result in a high  $FADH<sub>2</sub>/FAD$  ratio and auto-oxidation of flavins is suggested to be a source of ROS, it is important to investigate whether FadE is a major site of ROS during growth in LCFAs. FadE has not been biochemically characterized till date; it has been considered to be the acyl-CoA dehydrogenase in *E. coli* based on genetic studies and the presence of characteristic sequence motifs [\(Campbell and Cronan, 2002\)](#page-160-2). Additionally, whether FadE re-oxidizes  $FADH<sub>2</sub>$  and directly transfers electrons to ubiquinone or requires electron transfer flavoprotein (ETF) is also unclear. Therefore, detailed studies would be required to investigate the contribution of FadE to ROS formation. Experiments such as measuring ROS levels, dehydrogenase activity of FadE and re-oxidation of FADH<sup>2</sup> by FadE or ETF would have to be conducted in parallel in *fad* mutants, blocked in steps downstream of FadE. Our work described in this chapter provides an important basis to address these issues in future studies.
## **CHAPTER IV**

# **Ubiquinone is a key antioxidant during long-chain**

**fatty acid metabolism in** *E. coli* 

#### **4.1 Introduction**

In the previous chapter, we established that long-chain fatty acid (LCFA) transport and degradation in *Escherichia coli* results in elevated levels of reactive oxygen species (ROS). However, despite their ability to cause oxidative stress, *E. coli* and several other important pathogens utilize LCFAs derived from host tissues that contribute to their survival and virulence [\(Fang et al., 2005;](#page-162-0) [McKinney et al., 2000;](#page-166-0) [Son et al., 2007\)](#page-169-0). This suggests that bacteria must have strategies to mitigate LCFAinduced oxidative stress. In this chapter, we investigated the players employed by *E. coli* to counteract oxidative stress during LCFA metabolism. *E. coli* harbors various oxidative stress combat players that include transcriptional regulators, OxyR, SoxRS and RpoS, which govern the expression of >100 oxidative stress response genes including ROS scavenging enzymes, such as superoxide dismutases (SOD) and peroxidases (catalase and alkyl hydroperoxide reductase) to combat the damaging effects of ROS [reviewed in [\(Chiang and Schellhorn, 2012;](#page-161-0) [Imlay, 2013\)](#page-163-0)]. SOD converts superoxide to hydrogen peroxide  $(H_2O_2)$ , which is further detoxified to oxygen and water by peroxidases. Catalases (Kat) and alkyl hydroperoxide reductase (Ahp) are  $H_2O_2$  scavengers in *E. coli.* Importantly, these enzymatic players are redundant, for e.g., there are two catalases in *E. coli*, catalase I (KatG) and catalase II (KatE) [\(Loewen and Switala, 1986\)](#page-165-0). Similarly, there are three SOD isozymes MnSOD, FeSOD and CuZnSOD encoded by *sodA, sodB* and *sodC*, respectively, which differ in their requirement of metal cofactors [\(Benov and Fridovich, 1994\)](#page-160-0). In addition to enzymatic defenses, *E. coli* also uses non-enzymatic antioxidants, such as glutathione and ubiquinone [\(Farr and Kogoma, 1991;](#page-162-1) [Soballe and Poole, 2000\)](#page-169-1). Glutathione (GSH) or L-γ-glutamyl-L-cysteinylglycine, is a tripeptide non-protein thiol molecule which is synthesized in two steps through  $\gamma$ -glutamylcysteine synthetase and glutathione synthetase encoded by *gshA* and *gshB* genes, respectively [\(Carmel-Harel and Storz, 2000\)](#page-160-1). GSH functions to reduce cellular disulfide bonds and control the redox state of cysteine residues in various proteins. Ubiquinone is a lipidsoluble electron carrier in the electron transport chain (ETC) and has also been suggested to be an antioxidant in *E. coli*. An earlier study showed that a *ubiCA* knockout which produces no detectable ubiquinone exhibits several oxidative stress phenotypes in LB: accumulation of superoxide and  $H_2O_2$  in membranes, hypersensitivity to oxidative stress inducing agents, and upregulation of catalases [\(Soballe and Poole, 2000\)](#page-169-1). However, what is the physiological condition under which ubiquinone plays a predominant role as an antioxidant, how ubiquinone counteracts ROS and what is the relative contribution of ubiquinone to the overall oxidative stress response remains to be assessed.

To investigate players involved in counteracting oxidative stress during LCFA metabolism, we referred to the data obtained from a high-throughput genetic screen of the *E. coli* gene deletion library (Keio deletion library) on the LCFA, oleate. The genetic screen revealed that amongst various oxidative stress combat players, genes involved in the biosynthesis of ubiquinone, are highly required for growth on LCFAs. Our detailed genetic and biochemical experiments showed that the increased requirement of ubiquinone for growth on oleate is to counter elevated levels of ROS generated by LCFA degradation. Moreover, we find that amongst various oxidative stress combat players in *E. coli*, ubiquinone is the major antioxidant and acts as the cell's first line of defense against LCFA-induced oxidative stress. Importantly, we showed that ubiquinone accumulates in cells grown in LCFAs and degradation of LCFAs provides the signal for upregulation of ubiquinone. Taken together, our results emphasize that ubiquinone is a key antioxidant during LCFA metabolism and

therefore provides a rationale for investigating its role in LCFA-utilizing pathogenic bacteria.

#### **4.2 Results**

### **4.2.1 High-throughput genetic screen reveals that ubiquinone biosynthesis genes are highly required for growth of** *E. coli* **in oleate**

A high-throughput genetic screen was performed by Dr. Rachna Chaba to test the ability of 3994 gene deletion strains from the Keio deletion library to grow on oleate as the sole carbon source. The requirement of various oxidative stress response players for growth on oleate was assessed by analyzing data from the genetic screen.

#### **4.2.1.1 Screening mutants from Keio deletion library for growth on oleate**

The genetic screen was performed to identify genes required for successful growth of *E. coli* on oleate. For this, the Keio deletion library containing 3994 mutants was pinned on M9 minimal agar plates containing oleate as the sole carbon source (Fig. 4.1A). As a control, the library was also pinned on M9 minimal agar plates containing glucose as carbon source. Since oleate was solubilized in the detergent Brij-58, the minimal medium containing glucose was also supplemented with Brij-58. Plates were incubated at 37ºC and the images of the plates were captured at a single time point, chosen such that growth had not saturated and the fitness differences were apparent. The colony size was quantified using image analysis software [\(Collins et al., 2006\)](#page-161-1). Fitness-score was assigned to the strains in the oleate condition by calculating the statistical significance of the difference in colony size between oleate and the glucose control (in collaboration with Dr. Anthony L. Shiver). The fitness-scores thus reported represent the statistical significance of a change in colony size on oleate as compared to growth on glucose with positive and negative fitness-scores representing increased and decreased colony size, respectively. A full list of fitness scores of Keio library strains in oleate (normalized to a glucose control) is available in Appendix 1. Here, the mutants are ranked according to their fitness scores. Mutants ranked at the top in the LCFA dataset are those with negative fitness scores indicating the severe requirement of the gene for growth in oleate. In contrast, the mutants ranked at the bottom in the LCFA dataset are those with positive fitness scores indicating growth advantage, where deleting a gene results in better growth of cells in oleate.

The screen was setup in triplicate and each replicate had two independent clones of each strain. The reproducibility of the colony size measurements from the replicates was checked by determining the Pearson's correlation coefficient. Fig. 4.1B depicts the scatter plot for colony size obtained from the replicates. The plot is linear with a Pearson's coefficient of 0.86 (R-value) which depicts highly reproducible data from the replicates.

 $(A)$ 





**Figure 4.1 Screening Keio deletion library on oleate and data processing.** (A) Strains from Keio deletion library were arrayed in 1536-format on minimal medium plates containing either oleate (test) or glucose with Brij-58 (control) as carbon source. Plates were incubated and imaged at appropriate time point. Colony size was determined by using image analysis software. On the basis of colony size, fitness score was assigned to each strain. (B) Colony sizes of individual mutants are normalized to the plate average and replicates  $(n > 3)$  are plotted for the two conditions tested: oleate and glucose with Brij-58. Points are colored by the logarithm of local density in the plot. Normalized colony sizes from replicates are highly correlated  $(R = 0.86$ , Pearson's coefficient). The screen was set-up by Dr. Rachna Chaba and the statistical analysis of the data was done in collaboration with Dr. Anthony L. Shiver.

Before performing a detailed analysis of the LCFA dataset to probe players required to mitigate LCFA-induced oxidative stress, we first verified the accuracy of our dataset by ensuring that genes already known to play a role in LCFA metabolism are required for growth on oleate in our screen. Hence, we checked the ranks of *fad* deletion strains in our LCFA dataset because *fad* genes are absolutely required for degradation of LCFAs. Importantly, we found that strains carrying deletion of *fad* genes involved in aerobic β-oxidation i.e., *fadL*, *fadD*, *fadE*, *fadB* and *fadA* were amongst the top 25 candidates in the LCFA dataset (Table 4.1). The phenotype of *fad* strains validates the robustness of our high-throughput genetic screen and our statistical approach to calculate the fitness scores, and emphasizes that our LCFA dataset can serve as a rich source to identify genes involved in LCFA-related pathways.



**Table 4.1 Positions of various** *fad* **deletion strains in the LCFA dataset.** All *fad* knockouts were present amongst the top 25 candidates in the LCFA dataset. It shows that *fad* genes are highly required for growth in oleate.

#### **4.2.1.2 Genetic screen reveals the pathways used by** *E. coli* **to metabolize oleate**

Oleate, an LCFA, is a non-fermentable carbon source which is degraded to acetyl-CoA by β-oxidation pathway. Acetyl-CoA is further metabolized by tricarboxylic acid (TCA) and glyoxylate cycles that provide cellular metabolites required for growth of cell. Reduced cofactors generated during β-oxidation and TCA cycle are oxidized in the ETC to generate ATP. During growth in oleate, ATP is solely generated by oxidative phosphorylation in the ETC. In contrast to oleate, glucose is a fermentable carbon source which is metabolized by glycolysis to pyruvate. Pyruvate is further converted to acetyl-CoA that finally enters TCA cycle for degradation. During glucose metabolism, ATP is produced through both, substrate-level phosphorylation in glycolysis and oxidative-phosphorylation in ETC [\(Clark and Cronan, 2005;](#page-161-2) [Cronan](#page-161-3)  [and Laporte, 2005;](#page-161-3) [Romeo and Snoep, 2005\)](#page-168-0). To understand the physiological basis of deletion strains that showed growth defect in oleate in comparison to glucose, a global analysis using Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) and gold-standard biological pathways [\(Keseler et al., 2013;](#page-164-0) [Mootha et al., 2003;](#page-166-1) [Subramanian et al.,](#page-169-2)  [2005\)](#page-169-2) was performed to find pathways that play a significant role in growth on oleate (in collaboration with Dr. Anthony L. Shiver). Table 4.2 enlists the significantly enriched pathways during LCFA metabolism. Importantly, global analysis highlighted the β-oxidation pathway (FDR q-value: 1.1%), critical for the utilization of LCFAs as an energy source, as a signature of growth in oleate. In addition, significant enrichment in the TCA and glyoxylate cycles (FDR q-value <5%) was obtained, a result consistent with these pathways being critical for the generation of reduced cofactors and metabolites for growth in oleate. Furthermore, oleate utilization exhibited enrichment in multiple pathways for electron transfer activity (FDR q-value  $\langle 5\%$ ), underscoring the importance of ETC for energy generation during growth in oleate (Table 4.2).



**Table 4.2 Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) of metabolic pathways in** *E. coli* **during LCFA metabolism.** Statistical significance of the enrichment of pathways in *E. coli* for strains defective in growth on oleate as a carbon source. Name is the pathway name as reported from Ecocyc. Size is the number of genes within this group. The Normalized Enrichment Score (NES) reflects the maximal enrichment of a pathway for defective mutants,

normalized for set size and average enrichment across the dataset. NES is the primary metric for comparing significance between gene sets. The Nominal p-value reflects the statistical significance of a given NES score without multiple hypothesis correction. The False Discovery Rate (FDR) q-value reflects the fraction of gene sets with a given NES score that are expected to be false-positives. Pathways with FDR q-value <10% are listed. The GSEA analysis was performed in collaboration with Dr. Anthony L. Shiver.

### **4.2.1.3 The requirement of ubiquinone is higher in cells grown in oleate compared to another non-fermentable carbon source, succinate**

Our GSEA analysis showed that along with other ETC components, ubiquinone biosynthesis pathway is also enriched during LCFA metabolism (Table 4.2). Biosynthesis of ubiquinone requires eleven *ubi* genes [\(Aussel et al., 2014b\)](#page-159-0). Of these, knockouts of *ubiA*, *ubiD* and *ubiJ* are not present in the Keio deletion library [\(Baba et](#page-159-1)  [al., 2006\)](#page-159-1). Additionally, for *ubiB* only the SPA-tagged strain is available in the library. Therefore in the absence of a clean deletion strain it is difficult to interpret the growth requirement of *ubiB* on oleate. Importantly, out of the seven *ubi* deletion strains present in the Keio deletion library, *ubiE*, *ubiF* and *ubiH* knockouts showed no growth in oleate, and *ubiI* and *ubiX* mutants exhibited growth defect in oleate. These *ubi* deletion strains had significant negative fitness scores and ranked amongst the top 60 candidates in our LCFA dataset (Appendix 1 and Table 4.3). Oleate and succinate are non-fermentable carbon sources, which unlike glucose, a fermentable carbon source, require optimal functioning of ETC [\(Berger, 1973;](#page-160-2) [Campbell et al., 2003\)](#page-160-3). Traditionally, the increased requirement of ubiquinone for energy generation during growth with succinate compared to glucose has been the rationale for identifying genes involved in ubiquinone biosynthesis [\(Stroobant et al., 1972;](#page-169-3) [Wu et al., 1993\)](#page-171-0). However, it was surprising that a recent study showed that a *ubiI* deletion strain that produces only 10-15% ubiquinone compared to wild-type (WT) cells exhibited normal growth in succinate [\(Hajj Chehade et al., 2013;](#page-163-1) [Pelosi et al., 2016\)](#page-167-0). The growth defect of *ubiI* knockout in oleate suggested that in addition to energy generation through electron carrier function of ubiquinone in ETC, it might have an additional role in oleate. Because ubiquinone has been suggested to be an antioxidant in *E. coli* [\(Soballe and Poole, 2000\)](#page-169-1), we argued that the higher requirement of ubiquinone in oleate might be to mitigate LCFA-induced oxidative stress. To ascertain the requirement of ubiquinone in comparison to the overall oxidative stress response processes in *E. coli*, in addition to *ubi* deletion strains we also checked the rank of knockouts of other oxidative stress combat players in our LCFA dataset (Table 4.3). Surprisingly, we found that none of the mutants defective in oxidative stress combat players other than *ubi* deletion strains showed significant fitness defects in our screen on oleate. The above results prompted us to investigate the role of ubiquinone in relieving oxidative stress during LCFA metabolism.



**Table 4.3 Relative positions of deletion strains of various oxidative stress combat players in LCFA dataset.** The relative fitness score for oleate compared to glucose control was obtained for strains in the Keio deletion library. Table shows the fitness score of strains deleted individually for oxidative stress combat players. Description of the function of these players is provided in Chapter 1 (Section 1.7.3). Negative and positive fitness scores represent growth defect and growth advantage, respectively, of mutants in oleate compared to glucose control. N.D.: Not determined; NA: Not available.

### **4.2.2 Validation of growth phenotype of ubiquinone deficient strains on oleate in candidate studies**

Although high-throughput genetic screens are a rapid and efficient tool to study a large number of strains/conditions at a time, but it also has certain limitations that must be considered while analyzing the data. Problems include presence of incorrect strains in the library, suppressors and cross-contamination. Therefore, before investigating the role of ubiquinone in LCFA metabolism in detail, we first verified the growth phenotypes of various *ubi* mutants at a candidate level. This was important especially considering that out of the seven *ubi* deletion strains in the Keio deletion library,  $\Delta ubiC$  did not show growth defect in oleate and the fitness score of  $\Delta ubiG$ strain could not be determined. The compromised growth of these *ubi* mutants has been reported on succinate in earlier candidate studies [\(Hsu et al., 1996;](#page-163-2) [Lawrence et](#page-164-1)  [al., 1974\)](#page-164-1). We thus tested the growth phenotype of one of these *ubi* deletion strains ( $\Delta ubiC$ ) in candidate studies along with five other *ubi* mutants ( $\Delta ubiE$ ,  $\Delta ubiF$ ,  $\Delta ubiH$ ,  $\Delta ubiI$  and  $\Delta ubiX$ ) that had shown growth phenotypes in our genetic screen. We made several transductants of the six *ubi* deletion strains and confirmed these by colony PCR. To determine the growth behavior of *ubi* mutants, similar to screen conditions, we used minimal medium containing either glucose or oleate as carbon source. In this study, we also included succinate as a control carbon source where the growth phenotype of various *ubi* mutants is reported in the literature [\(Gulmezian et al., 2007;](#page-163-3) [Lawrence et al., 1974;](#page-164-1) [Pelosi et al., 2016;](#page-167-0) [Swearingen et al., 2006\)](#page-169-4), and thus would serve as additional control to validate the phenotypes. The experiment was performed in six different sets where each set represents one *ubi* deletion strain*.* Figs. 4.2, A to F show the images of each *ubi* mutant spotted on solid minimal medium plates containing different carbon sources. The growth phenotype of all tested *ubi* mutants corroborated with their known phenotype in succinate; whereas *ubiE*, *ubiF* and *ubiH*  mutants exhibited no growth, *ubiC* and *ubiX* mutants showed growth defect and *ubiI*  mutant displayed growth equivalent to WT. In glucose, *ubiC, ubiE*, *ubiF*, *ubiH* and *ubiX* mutants showed growth defect while *ubiI* mutant had growth equivalent to WT.

However, in oleate, in comparison to WT, *ubi* mutants either did not grow at all (*ubiC*, *ubiE*, *ubiF*, and *ubiH*) or showed a significant growth defect (*ubiI* and *ubiX*). In a separate set of experiments conducted in our lab (Kanchan Jaswal, Ph.D. student), the growth profile of *ubiH* and *ubiI* deletion strains was compared in liquid minimal medium. Corroborating with our results on solid medium, whereas *ubiH* mutant showed growth defect in glucose, and did not grow at all with oleate and succinate, the *ubiI* mutant showed a significant growth defect only in oleate (Fig. 3A, Agrawal S et al., *JBC* 2017). Taken together, the growth phenotype of various *ubi* mutants (*ubiE*, *ubiF*, *ubiH, ubiI* and *ubiX*) obtained from genetic screen was reproducible in candidate studies. Moreover, the no growth phenotype of *ubiC* mutant in oleate in candidate studies suggests that its unexpected growth behavior in screen was due to problems associated with high-throughput studies.





**Figure 4.2 Growth defect of** *ubi* **deletion strains in different carbon sources.** (A to F) Dilutions of the cultures were spotted on minimal medium containing one of the carbon sources. Each minimal medium condition had Brij-58. *fadL* (FadL is the outer membrane transporter for LCFAs), which does not grow on oleate was used as a control. T1, T2, T3 and T4 represent four transductants of *ubi* deletion strains. WT, *fadL* and the four transductants of each *ubi* deletion strain were spotted on the same plate with a particular carbon source and imaged.

Upon relating the growth profile of *ubi* deletion strains observed in our study with their ubiquinone levels reported in the literature, we find that mutants with no detectable ubiquinone (*ubiE*, *ubiF*, and *ubiH*) [\(Kwon et al., 2000;](#page-164-2) [Pelosi et al., 2016;](#page-167-0) [Swearingen et al., 2006\)](#page-169-4) show growth defect in glucose and do not grow at all in succinate and oleate, whereas a *ubiI* mutant, which produces reduced levels of ubiquinone [\(Hajj Chehade et al., 2013\)](#page-163-1), exhibits growth defect only in oleate. Importantly, these results suggest that there is a differential requirement of ubiquinone for growth on various carbon sources, requirement being maximal in oleate.

### **4.2.3 Maximal requirement of ubiquinone for growth of** *E. coli* **in oleate is to mitigate elevated levels of ROS generated by LCFA degradation**

The higher requirement of ubiquinone for growth in oleate compared to other carbon sources, succinate and glucose, and the significant requirement of ubiquinone biosynthesis genes in oleate compared to various other oxidative stress combat players led us to investigate the role of ubiquinone in relieving LCFA-induced oxidative stress. We performed a series of experiments to test this idea. We argued that if the higher requirement of ubiquinone in oleate is to counter oxidative stress, then cells cultured in oleate should have higher level of ROS compared to succinate and glucose. In a recent study, *E. coli* grown in oleate has been reported to accumulate higher levels of ROS compared to cultures grown in glucose [\(Doi et al., 2014\)](#page-161-4), however the comparison of ROS levels in cells cultured in oleate and succinate has not been reported. Here, we measured intracellular ROS levels in WT cultured in Tryptone broth (TB) supplemented with glucose, succinate or oleate by a colorimetric assay using nitroblue tetrazolium (NBT) dye. We found that WT had the highest ROS levels in oleate (Fig. 4.3A). Moreover, ROS levels further increased in *ubiI* in all media conditions with maximal ROS levels again in TB-Ole grown cells. Next, we investigated whether the growth defect of ubiquinone deficient strains in oleate is due to elevated levels of ROS. Therefore we checked the growth of  $\Delta ubiI$  strain in oleate medium supplemented with antioxidants. We used thiourea and vitamin C (ascorbate) as antioxidants [\(Dwyer et al., 2014;](#page-162-2) [Fuentes and Amabile-Cuevas, 1998\)](#page-162-3), where thiourea scavenges hydroxyl radicals [\(Chueca et al., 2014\)](#page-161-5) and ascorbate acts as a lipid hydroperoxyl radical scavenger [\(Traber and Stevens, 2011\)](#page-170-0). Both thiourea and ascorbate partially recovered the growth defect of  $\Delta u \, b \, i \, I$  strain in oleate (Fig. 4.3B). Consistent with our results in solid medium, in another set of experiments performed in liquid medium in our lab (Kanchan Jaswal, Ph.D. student), the supplementation of antioxidants, glutathione and thiourea, partially recovered the growth defect of  $\Delta ubiI$ in oleate (Figs. 3, B and C, Agrawal S et al., *JBC* 2017). We did not observe a complete recovery because another factor responsible for the poor growth of  $\Delta ubiI$  in oleate would be reduced energy generation due to lowering of ETC function. To further examine the antioxidant function of ubiquinone in countering ROS in oleate grown cells, we checked the effect of ubiquinone supplementation on ROS levels. We measured ROS levels in WT and *ubiI* mutant grown either in TB or TB-Ole with or without exogenous supplementation of ubiquinone-8. Importantly, ROS levels decreased by ~15–25% in WT grown in TB-Ole and *ubiI* mutant grown either in TB or TB-Ole upon ubiquinone-8 supplementation (Fig. 4.3C), reiterating that ubiquinone relieves oxidative stress.

In order to confirm that all the above phenotypes of  $\Delta ubiI$  strain are due to the loss of function of UbiI, we performed complementation experiments using clone, pKJ7, which carries *ubiI* gene on plasmid pBAD24. Transformation of pKJ7 in  $\Delta ubiI$ strain restored ROS levels of cells grown in TB and TB-Ole to WT levels (Fig. 4.3D), as well as rescued the growth defect of  $\Delta ubiI$  in oleate (Fig. 4.3E).

Collectively, our above results validate that the higher requirement of ubiquinone in oleate is to relieve oxidative stress generated by LCFA metabolism.



**Figure 4.3 The increased requirement of ubiquinone for growth in oleate is to mitigate elevated levels of ROS**. (A) WT and  $\Delta ubil$  strains exhibit maximum ROS levels in TB-Ole.

WT and  $\Delta ubiI$  were grown either in TB or TB supplemented with carbon sources or Brij-58: glucose (TB-Glu), succinate (TB-Suc), oleate (TB-Ole), and Brij-58 (TB-Brij). ROS levels were determined by NBT assay. Data were normalized to the ROS level of WT in TB and represent average  $(\pm S.D.)$  of 5 independent experiments. (B) The growth defect of  $\Delta ubil$  in minimal medium containing oleate is partially recovered by supplementing antioxidants. WT, *ΔfadL and ΔubiI* strains were grown in minimal medium containing oleate with or without 0.5 mM ascorbate or 1 mM thiourea. (C) Supplementation of ubiquinone-8 suppresses ROS levels. WT and  $\Delta u \, b$ *iI* were grown either in TB or TB-Ole. Medium contained either 20  $\mu$ M ubiquinone-8 or 0.1% ethanol (solvent for ubiquinone-8). ROS levels were determined by NBT assay. Data were normalized to the ROS level of WT in TB containing 0.1% ethanol and represent average  $(\pm S.D.)$  of 3 independent experiments.  $*, p < 0.05; **$ ,  $p < 0.005; NS$ , not significant (unpaired two-tailed Student's t test). (D) Restoring ubiquinone in ubiquinone deficient strain decreases the elevated levels of ROS. WT carrying empty plasmid (pBAD24), and *ubiI* carrying either pBAD24 or pBAD24 with *ubiI* (pKJ7) were grown either in TB or TB-Ole. ROS levels were determined by NBT assay. Data were normalized to the ROS level of WT carrying pBAD24 in TB and represent average  $(\pm S.D.)$  of 3 independent experiments. (E) *ubiI* cloned on plasmid complements the growth defect of  $\Delta ubiI$  in oleate. Dilutions of WT and  $\Delta ubiI$  carrying either empty plasmid (pBAD24) or pBAD24 with *ubiI* (pKJ7) were spotted on minimal medium containing either glucose or oleate as the sole carbon source. *fadL* transformed with pBAD24 was used as a control.

#### **4.2.4 Ubiquinone is a major antioxidant during LCFA metabolism**

*E. coli* has a suite of oxidative stress combat players, both enzymatic and nonenzymatic. We compared the requirement of various known oxidative stress combat systems in managing ROS in *E. coli* during LCFA metabolism. We selected representative players from each of the known oxidative stress response systems: OxyR regulon member AhpC; SoxR and its regulated target SodA; a RpoS regulon member KatE; enzyme involved in glutathione biosynthesis, GshB [\(Cheng et al.,](#page-161-6)  [2006;](#page-161-6) [Imlay, 2003\)](#page-163-4); and four out of the eleven players involved in ubiquinone biosynthesis [\(Aussel et al., 2014b;](#page-159-0) [Soballe and Poole, 2000\)](#page-169-1). All these strains deleted either for genes encoding regulatory proteins or enzymes were grown in TB and TB-

Ole, and ROS levels were determined. In TB medium, ROS levels were ~1.3 to 1.5 fold higher when strains lacked either the *ubi* genes or other oxidative stress combat players (Fig. 4.4). In contrast, in TB-Ole medium, ROS levels increased only in *ubi* deletion strains; >2-fold in comparison to WT in TB medium. These results indicate that whereas all oxidative stress response systems play a role in protecting cells against ROS generated during basal metabolism, ubiquinone plays a major role in counteracting ROS produced during oleate metabolism. We considered two possibilities for the TB-Ole results: i) there is redundancy of enzymatic scavengers and their regulators; thus deleting any one of the components does not have a major effect, and ii) as long as ubiquinone is present, it does not allow ROS to build-up further in TB-Ole; thus cells are not dependent on other oxidative stress players. Consistent with the second possibility, from a separate line of experiments in our lab (Kanchan Jaswal, Ph.D. student), we find that the enzymatic scavengers, *katG* and *ahpC* are induced (~2-fold) during oleate metabolism only in a *ubiI* mutant and this increased expression is reduced by  $\sim$ 25% upon exogenous supplementation of ubiquinone-8 (Figs. 4, B to D, Agrawal S et al., *JBC* 2017). Therefore, we conclude that ubiquinone is a key antioxidant and acts as the cell's first line of defense against LCFA-mediated oxidative stress.



**Figure 4.4 Ubiquinone is a major player that counteracts oxidative stress during LCFA metabolism.** WT and various deletion strains were grown either in TB or TB-Ole. ROS levels were determined by NBT assay. Data were normalized to the ROS level of WT in TB and represent average  $(\pm S.D.)$  of 3 independent experiments.

#### **4.2.5 Ubiquinone accumulates in response to LCFA degradation in** *E. coli*

Our above data showed that ubiquinone is a major player that mitigates LCFAmediated oxidative stress and therefore we examined whether this defense system is also induced by LCFAs. Ubiquinone is a benzoquinone that contains a polyisoprene chain attached to a quinone ring, where the number of isoprene units in a ubiquinone molecule varies in different organisms. In *E. coli,* ubiquinone has eight isoprene units hence termed as ubiquinone-8 or  $Q_8$  or Coenzyme  $Q_8$  or Co $Q_8$  [\(Meganathan,](#page-166-2) 2001). Ubiquinone is present in the inner membrane and exists in two redox states; the oxidized form is ubiquinone and the reduced form is ubiquinol. The upregulation of ubiquinone in LCFA-utilizing cells was investigated by measuring the total ubiquinone content in these cells, i.e. ubiquinone and ubiquinol by High Performance Liquid Chromatography-photodiode array detector analysis (HPLC-PDA).

### **4.2.5.1 Assigning peaks to ubiquinone-8 and ubiquinol-8 in HPLC chromatograms**

In order to measure the total ubiquinone content in *E. coli* cells, we extracted lipids from cultures and injected these in HPLC system. The chromatogram obtained showed various peaks corresponding to different compounds. In HPLC, each compound is detected at an appropriate wavelength (lambda max;  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$ ) and displayed in the form of a peak with a specific elution time. We assigned peaks for ubiquinone-8 and ubiquinol-8 in the chromatograms of lipid extracts based on the behavior of pure standards i.e., elution time at  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$ . The  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$  for ubiquinone-8 standard was found to be 275 nm (Fig. 4.5A). Since ubiquinol-8 standard was not available commercially, ubiquinone-8 was treated with sodium borohydride and reduced to ubiquinol-8. The  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$  of ubiquinol-8 was found to be 290 nm (Fig. 4.5B). Analysis of these quinone standards on HPLC showed that ubiquinone-8 at 275 nm had a single peak with elution time  $\sim$ 14.0 min (Fig. 4.5C), and ubiquinol-8 at 290 nm had the elution time  $\sim$ 11 min (Fig. 4.5D). We also injected lipid extracts from  $\Delta ubil$  strain as a control where ubiquinone levels are reported to be only 10-15% of WT (Hajj Chehade et al., [2013\)](#page-163-1) and thus manifests as a reduction in ubiquinone and ubiquinol peaks in the chromatogram (Figs. 4.5, C and D). A previous study has shown that a compound, 3 octaprenyl-4-hydroxyphenol (4-HP<sub>8</sub>), accumulates in  $\Delta ubiI$  strain and the peak corresponding to 4-HP8 lies next to ubiquinone-8 [\(Hajj Chehade et al., 2013\)](#page-163-1). In our experiments, we also observed a peak (Peak X) next to ubiquinone-8 with elution time  $\sim$ 15 min in the  $\Delta ubiJ$  strain, which we suggest corresponds to 4-HP<sub>8</sub> (Fig. 4.5C).



**Figure 4.5 Determining peaks for ubiquinone-8 and ubiquinol-8 in HPLC-PDA analysis.** (A and B) Absorbance of ubiquinone-8  $(Q_8)$  and ubiquinol-8  $(Q_8H_2)$  standards was monitored in the wavelength range of 240 to 300 nm.  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$  for ubiquinone-8 and ubiquinol-8 was found to be 275 nm and 290 nm, respectively. (C and D) HPLC-PDA analysis of ubiquinone-8 and ubiquinol-8. Lipid extracts from WT and *ubiI* strains were run on HPLC system and the peaks for ubiquinone-8 and ubiquinol-8 were assigned at 275 nm and 290 nm, respectively, based on the elution time of standards and reduction of peaks in  $\Delta ubil$ . Peak corresponding to an additional compound (peak X) was observed in  $\Delta ubiI$ , next to the ubiquinone-8 peak at 275 nm.

#### **4.2.5.2 Ubiquinone-8 accumulates in cells grown in oleate**

Ubiquinone content in the cell can be quantified by measuring the corresponding peak area, however certain parameters such as difference in the number of cells and difference in the extraction efficiency amongst various samples have to be normalized. We accounted for the difference in cell number amongst samples by normalizing 'peak area' with 'the mass of cell pellet before extraction'. Variation in

'extraction efficiency' amongst samples was taken care by using ubiquinone-10  $(Q_{10})$ as an internal control. Various features of Q<sup>10</sup> allow it to serve as a good internal control. First, Q<sup>10</sup> does not exist naturally in *E. coli* [\(Meganathan, 2001\)](#page-166-2)*.* Second, the elution time of  $Q_{10}$  (~25 min,  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$  275 nm) (Figs. 4.6, A and B) is well apart from both ubiquinone-8 and ubiquinol-8. The known and equal amount of  $Q_{10}$  was added to each sample before extraction of lipids. The 'peak area per unit pellet mass' was further normalized with 'peak area of  $Q_{10}$ ' for each sample. The amount of ubiquinone-8 or ubiquinol-8 in a particular sample was calculated as:

 *Amount of ubiquinone-8 = (peak area of Q8/pellet mass)/peak area of Q<sup>10</sup> Amount of ubiquinol-8 = (peak area of*  $Q_8H_2$ */pellet mass)/peak area of*  $Q_1$ *<sup>0</sup>* The total ubiquinone content in the cell was calculated as:

> Total Q8 content  $=$ peak area of Q8  $\frac{peller\ mass}{peak\ area\ of\ Q10} +$ peak area of Q8H2 pellet mass peak area of Q10

We measured total  $Q_8$  content in WT cells grown either in TB or TB-Ole. We observed  $\sim$  1.8 fold higher  $Q_8$  levels in cells grown in TB-Ole compared to cells grown in TB. There was no change in the total  $Q_8$  content in TB-Brij in comparison to cells grown in TB medium (Fig. 4.6C). Our results thus show that ubiquinone accumulates in the presence of oleate.



**Figure 4.6 Ubiquinone accumulates in** *E. coli* **cells grown in oleate.** (A) Absorbance of ubiquinone-10  $(Q_{10})$  standard was monitored in the wavelength range of 240 to 300 nm and  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$  was found to be 275 nm. (B) HPLC-PDA analysis of ubiquinone-10 standard, showing peak at elution time  $\sim$  25 min. (C) Ubiquinone accumulates in WT cells grown in oleate. The total  $Q_8$  level in lipid extracts from WT grown in TB, TB-Ole and TB-Brij was determined.  $Q_8$  levels were normalized to the  $Q_8$  level of WT in TB and represent average ( $\pm$  S.D.) of at least 4 independent experiments.

#### **4.2.5.3. Accumulation of ubiquinone-8 in cells cultured in oleate is in response to**

#### **LCFA degradation**

We investigated the reason for upregulation of ubiquinone during LCFA metabolism. For this, we checked ubiquinone levels in various *fad* knockouts, which are defective in LCFA transport and degradation (Δ*fadL*, Δ*fadD*, and Δ*fadE*) [\(Clark and Cronan,](#page-161-2)  [2005;](#page-161-2) [Klein et al., 1971\)](#page-164-3). Each mutant was grown either in TB or TB-Ole medium, lipid mix was extracted and run on the HPLC system. In contrast to WT cells,  $Q_8$ levels did not increase in TB-Ole in *fad* knockouts (Fig. 4.7). These results show that LCFA degradation signals the accumulation of ubiquinone in oleate utilizing cells.



**Figure 4.7 LCFA degradation signals the accumulation of ubiquinone in oleate utilizing cells.** The total Q<sup>8</sup> level in lipid extracts from WT and various *fad* deletion strains grown either in TB or TB-Ole was determined.  $Q_8$  levels were normalized to the  $Q_8$  level of WT in TB and represent average  $(\pm S.D.)$  of at least 4 independent experiments.

#### **4.3 Discussion**

#### **4.3.1 Ubiquinone relieves oxidative stress generated by LCFAs**

We investigated the combat strategies employed by *E. coli* to counter LCFA-induced oxidative stress. For this, we analyzed data from high-throughput genetic screen of the *E. coli* Keio deletion library on an LCFA, oleate. The GSEA analysis of the LCFA dataset showed that ubiquinone biosynthesis pathway is significantly enriched during LCFA metabolism (Table 4.2). Further, our detailed analysis showed that ubiquinone is maximally required in oleate to mitigate elevated levels of ROS. Compared with WT cells, ROS levels were  $\sim$ 1.5-fold higher in a  $\Delta u \, b$ *iI* strain grown in glucose or succinate (Fig. 4.3A) but there was no difference in the growth profile of WT and  $\Delta$ *ubiI* in these carbon sources (Fig. 4.2E). The utilization of oleate resulted in a ~1.5fold increase in ROS levels in WT cells compared with other carbon sources that further increased to  $\sim$ 2.5-fold in a  $\Delta ubiI$  strain (Fig. 4.3A). Importantly, this elevated level of ROS (~2.5-fold) was deleterious as evident from the significant growth defect of the  $\Delta u \, b$ *iI* strain in oleate and that the growth defect could be partially recovered by chemical antioxidants (Fig. 4.3B). These data clearly indicate that in oleate-utilizing cells optimum levels of ubiquinone are required to manage ROS below a toxic threshold. Furthermore, we find that among various oxidative stress combat players, ubiquinone is the key antioxidant during LCFA metabolism. This is supported by the observation that strains deleted for oxidative stress combat players other than *ubi*  genes do not exhibit an increase in ROS in oleate-utilizing cells (Fig. 4.4). Moreover, whereas ubiquinone accumulates in the presence of oleate (Fig. 4.6), other players are induced only in a mutant defective in ubiquinone biosynthesis (Figs. 4, B and C, Agrawal S et al., *JBC* 2017). Interestingly, oleate degradation generates ROS (Fig. 3.4, Chapter 3) and also provides a signal for ubiquinone accumulation (Fig. 4.7). These results suggest a feedback loop that prevents excessive ROS formation during growth in LCFAs. An earlier study has shown that ubiquinone is present in excess over flavins and cytochromes in the *E. coli* inner membrane [\(Cox et al., 1970\)](#page-161-7). Thus under normal conditions ubiquinone is not limiting for its electron transfer function. Considering this, ~2-fold increase in ubiquinone levels in cells utilizing oleate could bring a significant physiological response. Few *ubi* genes are regulated by the ArcA– ArcB two-component system and catabolite repression [\(Gibert et al., 1988;](#page-162-4) [Zhang and](#page-171-1)  [Javor, 2003\)](#page-171-1). It will be interesting to investigate the mechanisms that regulate ubiquinone levels during LCFA degradation. We suggest that ROS itself might not be the signal for upregulation of ubiquinone, because despite exhibiting a higher level of ROS the *AfadD* strain had basal ubiquinone levels in TB medium (compare Fig. 3.4B, Chapter 3 and Fig. 4.7).

### **4.3.2 Mechanisms by which ubiquinone might counteract LCFA-mediated oxidative stress**

Several mechanisms have been suggested for ROS formation in the ETC that includes extraction of electrons from reduced metal centers of certain enzymes by molecular O2, leakage of electrons during oxidation-reduction cycles of ETC promoting the reaction of free electrons with  $O_2$ , and autoxidation of flavoproteins [\(Imlay, 2003\)](#page-163-4). Søballe and Poole first demonstrated the role of ubiquinone in counteracting ROS in bacteria and proposed two mechanisms to explain its antioxidant function. First, ubiquinone limits ROS formation due to its ability to rapidly transfer electrons from upstream respiratory dehydrogenases to terminal oxidases thereby decreasing the chance of single-electron donation to oxygen. Second, the reduced form of ubiquinone (ubiquinol) can scavenge ROS [\(Soballe and Poole, 2000\)](#page-169-1).

The predominant mechanism by which ubiquinone combats ROS during LCFA degradation would depend on the major site of ROS formation. Fig. 4.8 shows the probable sites of ROS formation during growth of *E. coli* in LCFAs and the mechanisms by which ubiquinone might counteract LCFA-induced oxidative stress. Our results from chapter 3 suggests that the large amount of reduced cofactors generated by LCFA degradation increases electron flow in ETC increasing the probability of adventitious collision of electrons with  $O<sub>2</sub>$  resulting in elevated levels of ROS (Figs. 3.5, 3.6, 3.7 and 3.8, Chapter 3). Thus one would speculate that during LCFA metabolism ubiquinone limits ROS formation by rapidly transferring electrons from upstream respiratory dehydrogenases to terminal oxidases. If this is the sole mechanism by which ubiquinone functions during LCFA metabolism, then similar to ubiquinone, the requirement of other ETC components should also be higher in oleate in comparison to other non-fermentable carbon sources. However, additional studies from our lab where LCFA dataset was compared with already published genome-wide screens of various carbon sources has revealed that unlike respiratory dehydrogenases and terminal oxidases whose requirement for growth is inversely correlated with the energy yield of non-fermentable carbon sources, the requirement of ubiquinone correlates with oxidative stress. Acetate is a poorer carbon source than oleate in terms of energy yield [\(Clark and Cronan, 2005\)](#page-161-2), whereas oleate metabolism generates higher ROS levels than acetate (Fig. 3.5B, Chapter 3). In a comparison of acetate and oleate, studies from our lab has shown that the requirement of the NADH dehydrogenase, Nuo, and the terminal oxidase, Cyo, is higher in acetate to meet energy requirement whereas ubiquinone requirement is higher in oleate to counteract oxidative stress (Kanchan Jaswal, Ph.D. student) (Agrawal S et al., *JBC* 2017). Therefore, these studies suggest that at least in LCFA metabolism the antioxidant role of ubiquinone cannot be explained solely by its known electron carrier function in ETC. Importantly, a predominant source of ROS during LCFA degradation could be the predicted acyl-CoA dehydrogenase, FadE, which is suggested to catalyze the oxidation of acyl-CoA to enoyl-CoA concomitant with reduction of FAD to FADH<sup>2</sup> [\(Campbell and Cronan, 2002\)](#page-160-4). It is likely that ubiquinone limits ROS formation at FadE by transferring electrons from FadE to the ETC. In addition, a recent study has demonstrated the *in vitro* quinol peroxidase activity of Cyd where quinol serves as a substrate for the peroxidase to detoxify  $H_2O_2$  [\(Al-Attar et al., 2016\)](#page-159-2). Thus, during LCFA catabolism, besides decreasing ROS formation because of its electron shuttling role in ETC, ubiquinone might promote the peroxidase activity of terminal oxidase to

detoxify ROS. Because ETC is one of the sites for ROS formation, it might be advantageous for the cell to have antioxidants in the membrane to detoxify ROS locally. Ubiquinone in conjunction with Cyd might fulfill this role.



**Figure 4.8 Probable sites of ROS formation during LCFA degradation and the mechanisms employed by ubiquinone to mitigate LCFA-induced oxidative stress.** Exogenous LCFAs are transported inside the cell by an outer membrane protein, FadL. Subsequently, the inner membrane-associated acyl-CoA synthetase, FadD, extracts LCFAs from the inner membrane concomitant with esterification to acyl-CoA. Acyl-CoAs are degraded to acetyl-CoA via the β-oxidation pathway mediated by enzymatic activities of FadE, FadB, and FadA. Acetyl-CoA feeds into the TCA cycle for further metabolism. High NADH/NAD<sup>+</sup> and FADH<sub>2</sub>/FAD ratios during β-oxidation and TCA cycle increase the electron flow in the ETC thereby increasing electron leakage and autoxidation of the reduced form of NADH dehydrogenase resulting in ROS formation. In addition, a predominant source of ROS could be the acyl-CoA dehydrogenase, FadE, which reduces FAD to FADH2. Ubiquinone limits ROS formation by rapidly transferring electrons from upstream dehydrogenases to terminal oxidases (Cyo and Cyd) thus preventing electron leakage and autoxidation of the reduced form of dehydrogenases. In addition, the quinol peroxidase activity of Cyd will detoxify  $H_2O_2$ . *Arrows* with  $e^r$  labeled on the line show the direction of electron transfer. *Dotted arrows* indicate reactions for which either the components involved are not known (oxidation of FadE and electron transfer from FadE to the ETC) or the mechanisms are not established *in vivo* (detoxification of H2O<sup>2</sup> by Cyd). Abbreviations: *Oaa*, oxaloacetate; *Cit*, citrate; *Isocit*, isocitrate; *α-KG*, α-ketoglutarate; *Suc-CoA*, succinyl-CoA; *Suc*, succinate; *Fum*, fumarate; *Mal*, malate; *Glo*, glyoxylate; *O<sup>2</sup> -* , superoxide; *Sdh*, succinate dehydrogenase; *Q8*, ubiquinone-8; *Q8H2*, ubiquinol-8; *Cyd*, cytochrome bd; *Cyo*, cytochrome bo.

Several bacterial pathogens use LCFAs derived from host tissues as their nutrient source [\(Fang et al., 2005;](#page-162-0) [McKinney et al., 2000;](#page-166-0) [Son et al., 2007\)](#page-169-0). It will be interesting to examine whether ubiquinone participates in managing LCFA-mediated oxidative stress in these pathogens. In fact, a few *ubi* mutants of *S. typhimurium* are impaired for intracellular proliferation in macrophages [\(Aussel et al., 2014a\)](#page-159-3). Because *S. typhimurium* utilizes fatty acids in macrophages during chronic infection [\(Fang et](#page-162-0)  [al., 2005\)](#page-162-0), it is possible that ubiquinone is required by this intracellular pathogen to combat oxidative stress generated by LCFAs.

## **CHAPTER V**

**Identification of** *yqiC* **as a novel gene involved in** 

**ubiquinone biosynthesis in** *E. coli*

#### **5.1 Introduction**

Ubiquinone is a redox-active lipid located in the inner membrane of *Escherichia coli* and plays important role in various physiological processes in the cell [\(Aussel et al.,](#page-159-0)  [2014b\)](#page-159-0). Ubiquinone being an electron carrier in the electron transport chain (ETC) is critical for energy generation and governs various proton motive force (PMF) dependent processes such as antibiotic resistance and motility [\(Bar-Tana et al., 1980;](#page-159-4) [Ezraty et al., 2013\)](#page-162-5). Ubiquinone also modulates redox sensing of the two-component system, ArcAB [\(Georgellis et al., 2001\)](#page-162-6), which mediates the response of *E. coli* to varying respiratory growth conditions by acting as a global regulator of gene expression under microaerobic and anaerobic conditions [\(Bekker et al., 2010\)](#page-159-5). Various studies have also shown the requirement of ubiquinone in bacterial virulence [\(Aussel et al., 2014a;](#page-159-3) [Gomez et al., 2012\)](#page-162-7). Besides this, prior to our work, there has been only one report in *E. coli* that suggested ubiquinone to function as an antioxidant [\(Soballe and Poole, 2000\)](#page-169-1). From our work presented in the previous chapter we established that ubiquinone is a key antioxidant during metabolism of long-chain fatty acids (LCFAs)*.*

Structurally, ubiquinone consists of an aromatic benzene ring and polyprenyl hydrophobic chain, where number of isoprene units in the polyprenyl chain varies among organisms [\(Meganathan, 2001\)](#page-166-2). Because *E. coli* ubiquinone contains eight isoprene units it is termed as ubiquinone-8 [\(Meganathan, 2001\)](#page-166-2). Ubiquinone is synthesized in *E. coli* by a dedicated ubiquinone biosynthesis pathway involving eleven *ubi* genes [\(Aussel et al., 2014b\)](#page-159-0) (Fig. 1.4, Chapter 1). The precursors for ubiquinone biosynthesis, 4-hydroxybenzoate (4-HB) and octaprenyl diphosphate, are synthesized from shikimate pathway and methylerythritol phosphate pathway (MEP), respectively [\(Meganathan,](#page-166-2) 2001). 4-HB contains an aromatic benzene ring that is modified by one prenylation, one decarboxylation, three hydroxylation, and three methylation reactions to synthesize ubiquinone-8. UbiC catalyzes the first committed step converting chorismate to 4-HB [\(Meganathan, 2001\)](#page-166-2). Next, UbiA catalyzes the prenylation of 4-HB with octaprenyl diphosphate chain to form 3-octaprenyl-4 hydroxybenzoate (OHB). Further, OHB undergoes decarboxylation by both UbiD and UbiX to form 3-octaprenylphenol (OPP). Next, three hydroxylation (by UbiI, UbiH and UbiF) and three methylation (by UbiG and UbiE) reactions occur in alternate fashion in the benzene ring forming ubiquinone-8 [\(Aussel et al., 2014b;](#page-159-0) [Meganathan,](#page-166-2)  [2001\)](#page-166-2).

Despite decades of active research on the identification and characterization of players involved in ubiquinone biosynthesis in *E. coli* there are obvious knowledge gaps in the pathway. Although UbiB and UbiJ have been shown to be involved in ubiquinone biosynthesis, their exact role in the pathway remains elusive [\(Aussel et al.,](#page-159-0)  [2014b\)](#page-159-0). UbiJ has been predicted to bind lipids and thus could serve as an accessory factor in ubiquinone biosynthesis [\(Aussel et al., 2014a\)](#page-159-3). Further, residual levels of ubiquinone in certain *ubi* mutants suggest that there is redundancy in the ubiquinone biosynthesis pathway [\(Cox et al., 1969;](#page-161-8) [Gulmezian et al., 2007;](#page-163-3) [Hajj Chehade et al.,](#page-163-1)  [2013;](#page-163-1) [Stroobant et al., 1972\)](#page-169-3). A very early study suggested that Ubi proteins constitute a large multiprotein complex. Authors isolated a soluble enzyme complex of ~2000 kDa, comprising at least 12 proteins, from the cytoplasmic membrane of *E. coli*. The complex contained high amount of OPP but no ubiquinone-8. Interestingly, on providing S-Adenosylmethionine (SAM), NADPH, and  $O_2$  to the complex, ubiquinone-8 could be synthesized from OPP [\(Knoell, 1979\)](#page-164-4). However, till date, the ubiquinone biosynthesis complex has not been established. It is likely that certain Ubi proteins such as UbiJ and as yet unidentified Ubi players are involved in the assembly of the mega ubiquinone biosynthesis complex in the membrane.

In the last several years, classical genetic approaches have been employed to identify ubiquinone biosynthesis genes. Because the requirement of ubiquinone for growth on non-fermentable carbon sources (where energy generation occurs only by oxidative phosphorylation in the ETC) is higher compared to growth on fermentable carbon sources (where energy generation happens both by substrate-level and oxidative phosphorylation), this rationale has been used to screen for genes involved in ubiquinone biosynthesis [\(Stroobant et al., 1972;](#page-169-3) [Wu et al., 1993\)](#page-171-0). Thus, *E. coli* mutants that were more defective for growth on non-fermentable carbon sources such as malate or succinate, compared to the fermentable carbon source, glucose, were investigated further for their role in ubiquinone biosynthesis. However, a recent study showed that a *ubiI* deletion strain, where ubiquinone levels are reduced to 10-15% of wild-type WT levels exhibits normal growth in succinate [\(Hajj Chehade et al., 2013\)](#page-163-1) [\(Pelosi et al., 2016\)](#page-167-0), indicating that *ubi* deletion strains that have residual ubiquinone levels might not be identified by their phenotype using this carbon source. Importantly, from our work presented in the previous chapter we found that *ubiI* deletion strain shows significant growth defect in oleate. Therefore, we suggest that oleate is a better carbon source than succinate for identifying *ubi* players especially ones that have a partial effect on ubiquinone levels. Because there is redundancy in the ubiquinone biosynthesis pathway and possibility of accessory factors required for building the multiprotein complex in the inner membrane, we analyzed our LCFA dataset obtained from the genetic screen on oleate, to identify new genes involved in ubiquinone biosynthesis. Our detailed investigation identified *yqiC* as a novel gene required for ubiquinone biosynthesis. In addition, our results provide a strong genetic evidence of the interaction between *ubiI* and *yqiC*.

#### **5.2 Results**

### **5.2.1 High-throughput genetic screen reveals the requirement of several genes of unknown function for optimal growth in oleate**

To identify new players involved in ubiquinone biosynthesis, we examined the data obtained from genetic screen in oleate (Result section 4.2.1.1, Chapter 4). We analyzed top 100 candidates from the LCFA dataset, constituting ~2.5% of the LCFAresponsive genome. Amongst top 100 candidates there were 21 'genes of unknown or putative function' ('*y*' genes) (Appendix 2). *yqiC* deletion strain had the most severe defect in oleate (17<sup>th</sup> rank in the LCFA dataset) amongst deletion strains of the 21 'v' genes. We thus pursued with investigating the role of *yqiC* in LCFA metabolism.

## **5.2.2. Validation of the growth phenotype of**  $\Delta$ *yqiC* **strain in oleate at a candidate level**

Due to problems associated with high-throughput genetic screens (Result section 4.2.2, Chapter 4), before any detailed investigation, we first verified the growth phenotype of  $\Delta$ *yqiC* strain at a candidate level. We made fresh transductants of the strain and confirmed these by colony PCR. We further checked the growth of  $\Delta yq$ *iC* strain in minimal medium containing either glucose or oleate as the sole carbon source. *yqiC* deletion strain showed growth equivalent to WT in minimal medium with glucose but exhibited growth defect in oleate (Fig. 5.1A). Thus our results at a candidate level corroborated with the phenotype of  $\Delta yq$  ic strain in high-throughput screens. Further, the growth phenotype of  $\Delta vaiC$  in oleate could be complemented by
providing *yqiC* gene on a plasmid, pACYC184 (pSA4) (Fig. 5.1B). We next investigated the role of *yqiC* in LCFA metabolism.



**Figure 5.1 Verification of the growth phenotype of**  $\Delta yqiC$  **strain in oleate.** (A)  $\Delta yqiC$ shows significant growth defect in oleate. Dilutions of the cultures were spotted on minimal medium containing either glucose or oleate. Minimal medium with glucose had Brij-58.  $\Delta$ *fadL* was used as a control. C1 and C2 represent two independent clones of  $\Delta$ *yqiC* from the Keio deletion library and T1, T2, T3 and T4 are their transductants. (B) *yqiC* cloned on plasmid complements the growth defect of  $\Delta$ *yqiC* in oleate. Dilutions of WT and  $\Delta$ *yqiC* carrying either empty plasmid (pACYC184) or pACYC184 with *yqiC* (pSA4) were spotted on minimal medium containing either glucose or oleate as the sole carbon source. Minimal medium with glucose had Brij-58. *fadL* transformed with pACYC184 was used as a control.

#### **5.2.3.** *yqiC* **is a novel ubiquinone-8 biosynthesis gene in** *E. coli*

In order to predict the function of *yqiC* we searched for known or predicted interacting partners of YqiC or the genes with similar phenotypic profile as *yqiC* in various available databases. This analysis led us to investigate the role of *yqiC* in ubiquinone biosynthesis. Various genetic and biochemical experiments were further performed to elucidate its involvement in ubiquinone biosynthesis.

### **5.2.3.1 Search through various databases indicates strong correlation between**

### *yqiC* **and ubiquinone biosynthesis genes**

String is a database of known and predicted protein-protein interactions for an organism [\(Szklarczyk et al., 2017\)](#page-170-0). For each interacting partner a 'score' is designated, which represents the extent of likelihood of a candidate to interact with the desired protein. Analysis of YqiC in 'String' gave a list of predicted interacting partners with significant scores. Fig. 5.2 shows the protein-protein interaction network for top 10 YqiC interacting proteins, and Table 5.1 provides their interaction scores. Interestingly, amongst the 10 predicted interacting partners, seven proteins are those that are known to be involved in ubiquinone biosynthesis. UbiF is the topmost protein with a score of 0.736 and UbiE is the  $10<sup>th</sup>$  protein with a score of 0.592.



**Figure 5.2 Predicted protein-protein interaction network for YqiC.** Proteins interacting with YqiC were predicted from String database and interaction network is shown for top 10 proteins. Nodes represent proteins and Edges represent protein-protein associations. Cyan and pink represents known interactions; Cyan: from curated databases, and Pink: experimentally determined. Green, red or blue represents predicted interactions; Green: gene neighborhood, Red: gene fusions, and Blue: gene co-occurrence. Others are represented by Yellow: text mining, Black: co-expression, and light blue: protein homology.

S. No.	<b>Protein</b>	Score
1	UbiF	0.736
$\overline{2}$	UbiI	0.732
3	UbiA	0.722
4	RatA	0.712
5	UbiH	0.711
6	UbiJ	0.695
7	YccU	0.658
8	YigQ (UbiB)	0.642
9	YigF	0.634
10	UbiE	0.592

**Table 5.1 List of proteins predicted to interact with YqiC.** Scores of top 10 proteins predicted to interact with YqiC protein from String database is shown. Amongst top ten proteins, seven proteins (shaded in grey) are involved in ubiquinone biosynthesis.

In a previous study, authors tested the growth of Keio deletion library in around 300 different media conditions. Growth phenotype for each strain in various conditions is given a score and is available in a dataset "High-Throughput Phenotype Data Analysis" [[\(Nichols et al., 2011\)](#page-167-0), http://www.porteco.org/phenotypes/]. In this dataset, correlation between two strains is indicated by the Pearson correlation coefficient of the scores of two strains across all conditions. Therefore a positive and negative correlation coefficient between two strains represents related and anticorrelated growth phenotypes, respectively. Analysis of  $\Delta yqiC$  strain in this dataset revealed a positive correlation of various *ubi* genes with *yqiC* (Table 5.2)*.* Importantly, the highest correlation of *yqiC* was observed with *ubiI* with a correlation coefficient of 0.776. Together, the analysis of *yqiC* in various databases strongly suggested its involvement in ubiquinone biosynthesis.



Table 5.2 Correlation between  $\Delta yq$ *iC* strain and various *ubi* deletion strains. High-Throughput Phenotype Data Analysis was used to analyze the correlation between  $\Delta yq$  and other *ubi* deletion strains in the Keio library. Out of seven *ubi* deletion strains in the Keio library, six *ubi* strains showed a positive correlation coefficient with  $\Delta yq$ *iC*.

### 5.2.3.2  $\Delta ubiI$  and  $\Delta vgiC$  have related phenotypes

Our results from previous chapter showed that amongst the tested non-fermentable carbon sources, succinate and oleate,  $\Delta u \, b \, i \, I$  exhibits growth defect only in oleate (Fig. 4.2 E, Chapter 4). Because, *yqiC* shows highest correlation with *ubiI* in the High-Throughput Phenotype Dataset (Table 5.2), we investigated whether similar to  $\Delta ubiI$ the growth defect of  $\Delta$ *yqiC* is also specific to oleate. Fig. 5.3A shows the images of  $\Delta$ *yqiC* and  $\Delta$ *ubiI* strains spotted on solid medium containing different carbon sources. We observed that similar to  $\Delta u \, \text{d} u$ ,  $\Delta v \, \text{d} u$  as growth equivalent to WT in minimal medium with either glucose or succinate, however it showed growth defect in oleate. Because we had observed that one of the reasons for the growth defect of  $\Delta ubiI$  in oleate is oxidative stress (Result section 4.2.3, Chapter 4), we wanted to determine whether high ROS levels is also a reason for the growth defect of  $\Delta yq\ni C$  strain in oleate. Therefore, we assessed the growth of  $\Delta vq\ni\hat{C}$  in oleate medium supplemented with antioxidants, thiourea and vitamin C (ascorbate) [\(Dwyer et al., 2014;](#page-162-0) [Fuentes](#page-162-1)  [and Amabile-Cuevas, 1998\)](#page-162-1). For better comparison we also included  $\Delta ubiI$  in this experiment. The growth defects of both *ubiI* and *yqiC* deletion strains in oleate were partially recovered by thiourea and ascorbate (Fig. 5.3B). Further, using NBT assay, we observed that similar to  $\Delta ubiI$ ,  $\Delta yqiC$  also has elevated ROS levels.  $\Delta yqiC$  showed ~1.3 fold increase in ROS levels in TB and ~2 fold higher ROS levels in TB-Ole in comparison to WT grown in TB (Fig. 5.3C). Altogether, these results indicate that *yqiC* functions in a pathway similar to *ubiI* and thus prompted us to investigate its role in ubiquinone biosynthesis.



**Figure 5.3**  $\Delta$ *yqiC* **exhibits phenotypes similar to**  $\Delta$ *ubiI***.** (A)  $\Delta$ *yqiC* shows significant growth defect only in oleate. Dilutions of the cultures were spotted on minimal medium containing one of the carbon sources: glucose, succinate or oleate. Each minimal medium condition had Brij-58.  $\Delta$ *fadL* was used as a control. (B) The growth defect of  $\Delta$ *yqiC* in minimal medium containing oleate is partially recovered by supplementing antioxidants. WT,  $\Delta$ *fadL*,  $\Delta$ *ubiI* and  $\Delta$ *yqiC* strains were grown in minimal medium containing oleate with or without 0.5 mM ascorbate or 1 mM thiourea. T1 and T2 represent transductants of parent strains obtained from

the Keio library. (C)  $\Delta$ *yqiC* has elevated ROS levels. WT,  $\Delta$ *ubiI* and  $\Delta$ *yqiC* strains were grown in TB, TB-Brij and TB-Ole. ROS levels were determined by NBT assay. Data were normalized to the ROS level of WT in TB and represent average  $(\pm S.D.)$  of 3 independent experiments.

#### **5.2.3.3** *yqiC* **is a novel ubiquinone biosynthesis gene**

We determined ubiquinone levels in  $\Delta$ *yqiC* strain through HPLC analysis. Because *yqiC* has strong correlation with *ubiI*, for comparison we also included  $\Delta ubiI$  strain in our experiments. WT,  $\Delta u \, \text{d} u \, \Delta y \, \text{d} u \, \text{d} u$  and  $\Delta y \, \text{d} u \, \text{d} u$  strains were grown in TB medium, lipid extracts were prepared and run on HPLC system. We found that similar to  $\Delta u \ddot{\omega}$ , the total ubiquinone content in  $\Delta$ *yqiC* was 15-20% of WT level (Fig. 5.4A). This result shows that *yqiC* is involved in ubiquinone biosynthesis. Figs. 5.4, B and C represent the merge chromatograms of lipid extracts from WT,  $\Delta u \dot{b}$  and  $\Delta y \dot{q}$  c strains grown in TB medium with ubiquinone-8 standard at 275 nm (Fig. 5.4B) and with ubiquinol-8 standard at 290 nm (Fig. 5.4C).  $\Delta u \, \text{b} \, \text{d} \, \Delta v \, \text{d} \, \text{d} \, C$  strains show diminished peak for both ubiquinone-8 and ubiquinol-8. Intriguingly, similar to  $\Delta ubil$ ,  $\Delta yqiC$  also has a peak (Peak X) next to the peak for ubiquinone-8 (Result section 4.2.5.1, Chapter 4) [\(Hajj Chehade et al., 2013\)](#page-163-0). Collectively, the similar growth pattern of *ubiI* and *yqiC* deletion strains in various carbon sources, elevated levels of ROS and same HPLC profile suggests involvement of these players in a common step of ubiquinone biosynthesis.



**Figure 5.4** *yqiC* **is identified as a new gene involved in ubiquinone biosynthesis.** (A) WT,  $\Delta$ *ubiI* and  $\Delta$ *yqiC* cells were grown in TB, and the total  $Q_8$  level in lipid extracts was determined.  $Q_8$  levels were normalized to the  $Q_8$  level of WT in TB and represent average (±S.D.) of 3 independent experiments. (B) HPLC-PDA analysis of ubiquinone-8 standard, lipid extracts from WT,  $\Delta ubiI$  and  $\Delta yqiC$  cells. Absorbance of ubiquinone-8 was determined at 275 nm. Peaks corresponding to ubiquinone-8, and an additional compound (Peak X) observed in  $\Delta ubiI$  and  $\Delta ygiC$  are indicated. (C) HPLC-PDA analysis of ubiquinol-8 standard, lipid extracts from WT,  $\Delta ubiI$  and  $\Delta ygiC$  cells. Absorbance of ubiquinol-8 was determined at 290 nm. Peak corresponding to ubiquinol-8 is indicated. The HPLC data was independently reproduced in [\(Balecha, 2017\)](#page-159-0).

We ensured that the reduced level of ubiquinone in  $\Delta yq$ *iC* strain was due to loss of YqiC by determining ubiquinone levels in  $\Delta$ *yqiC* transformed with plasmid carrying *yqiC* (pSA4). Ubiquinone levels were restored to WT (Fig. 5.5A). Also, there was no accumulation of the compound corresponding to Peak X in the complemented strain (Fig. 5.5B). Figs. 5.5, B and C represent the merge chromatograms for various strains for ubiquinone-8 at 275 nm (Fig. 5.5B) and ubiquinol-8 at 290 nm (Fig. 5.5C).



**Figure 5.5 Q**<sup>8</sup> levels are restored to WT in  $\Delta yqiC$  cells transformed with plasmid **carrying** *yqiC*. (A) WT,  $\Delta$ *yqiC*, WT carrying either pACYC184 or pSA4 and  $\Delta$ *yqiC* cells transformed either with pACYC184 or pSA4 were grown in TB, and the total  $Q_8$  level in lipid extracts was determined.  $Q_8$  levels were normalized to the  $Q_8$  level of WT in TB and represent average  $(\pm S.D.)$  of  $\geq 4$  independent experiments. (B) HPLC-PDA analysis of ubiquinone-8 standard, lipid extracts from WT transformed with pACYC184 and lipid extracts from  $\Delta$ *yqiC* cells transformed either with pACYC184 or pSA4. Absorbance of ubiquinone-8 was determined at 275 nm. Peaks corresponding to ubiquinone-8 and an additional compound (Peak X) are indicated. (C) HPLC-PDA analysis of ubiquinol-8 standard, lipid extracts from WT transformed with pACYC184 and lipid extracts from  $\Delta yq\bar{c}$ 

cells transformed either with pACYC184 or pSA4. Absorbance of ubiquinol-8 was determined at 290 nm. Peak corresponding to ubiquinol-8 is indicated. The HPLC data was independently reproduced in [\(Balecha, 2017\)](#page-159-0).

## **5.2.4. A novel genetic interaction between ubiquinone biosynthesis genes,** *yqiC* **and** *ubiI*

The related phenotypes of  $\Delta ubil$  and  $\Delta yqiC$  strains prompted us to examine the phenotype of the *ubiI*-*yqiC* double mutant. In this direction, we determined ubiquinone levels of the double mutant in LB-glucose medium as well as assessed its growth in various carbon sources.

#### **5.2.4.1.** *ubiI***-***yqiC* **double mutant produces no detectable ubiquinone**

In contrast to the normal growth of  $\Delta ubiI$  and  $\Delta vaiC$  strains in LB medium, the *ubilyqiC* double mutant formed tiny colonies on LB. Therefore, we resorted to growing the cultures in a rich LB-glucose medium where there is reduced dependence on ubiquinone for growth. WT,  $\Delta ubiI$ ,  $\Delta ygiC$  and  $\Delta ubiI\Delta ygiC$  strains were grown in LB with 0.2% glucose, lipids were extracted and run on the HPLC system. In  $\Delta u \, b$ il and  $\Delta$ *yqiC* strains the total ubiquinone content was reduced to ~30% of WT levels. Interestingly, there was no detectable ubiquinone in the *ubiI*-*yqiC* double mutant (Fig. 5.6A), suggesting redundancy in the ubiquinone biosynthesis pathway. Figs. 5.6, B and C show the merge chromatograms of lipid extracts from WT,  $\Delta ubiI$ ,  $\Delta ygiC$  and  $\Delta ubiI\Delta yqiC$  strains for ubiquinone-8 at 275 nm (Fig. 5.6B) and ubiquinol-8 at 290 nm (Fig. 5.6C). Similar to  $\Delta u \dot{\theta}$  and  $\Delta v \dot{a}$  c strains, an additional peak (Peak X) was also observed in the *ubiI*-*yqiC* double mutant (Fig. 5.6B).



**Figure 5.6 Ubiquinone is not detected in the** *ubiI***-***yqiC* **double mutant. (A) Total**  $Q_8$  **level** in lipid extracts from WT,  $\Delta u \, \text{d} u \, \text{d} u$   $\Delta u \, \text{d} u \, \text{d} u \, \text{d} u$   $\Delta u \, \text{d} u \, \text{d} u \, \text{d} u$  cells grown in LB-glucose was determined.  $Q_8$  levels were normalized to the  $Q_8$  level of WT in LB-glucose and represent the average  $(\pm$  S.D.) of 3 independent experiments. (B) HPLC-PDA analysis of ubiquinone-8 standard, and lipid extracts from WT,  $\Delta ubiI$ ,  $\Delta ygiC$  and  $\Delta ubiI\Delta ygiC$  cells. Absorbance of ubiquinone-8 was determined at 275 nm. Peaks corresponding to ubiquinone-8 and an additional compound (Peak X) are indicated. (C) HPLC-PDA analysis of ubiquinol-8 standard, and lipid extracts from WT,  $\Delta ubiI$ ,  $\Delta ygiC$  and  $\Delta ubiI\Delta ygiC$  cells. Absorbance of ubiquinol-8 was determined at 290 nm. Peak corresponding to ubiquinol-8 is indicated. The HPLC data was independently reproduced in [\(Balecha, 2017\)](#page-159-0).

## **5.2.4.2.** *ubiI***-***yqiC* **double mutant does not grow on non-fermentable carbon sources**

Our results presented in chapter 4 showed that whereas *ubi* deletion strains with no detectable ubiquinone ( $\Delta ubiE$ ,  $\Delta ubiF$  and  $\Delta ubiH$ ) exhibit growth defect in glucose, these strains do not grow at all in non-fermentable carbon sources, succinate and oleate (Figs. 4.2, B, C and D, Chapter 4). Here, we created a double mutant,  $\Delta ubiI\Delta yqiC$  that produces no detectable ubiquinone. We therefore investigated whether this synthetic strain has a similar growth profile on different carbon sources as the single *ubi* deletion strains that do not produce ubiquinone. In this experiment, we included  $\Delta ubiE$  strain for comparison. Similar to  $\Delta ubiE$ , the  $ubiI$ -*yqiC* double mutant showed growth defect in glucose but did not grow at all in oleate and succinate (Fig. 5.7). Collectively, our results that a double mutant of *yqiC* and *ubiI*, shows synthetic sick/lethal phenotype with no detectable ubiquinone provides strong genetic evidence of the interaction between YqiC and UbiI.



**Figure 5.7** *ubiIyqiC* **shows a synthetic sick/lethal phenotype in different carbon sources.** Dilutions of the cultures were spotted on minimal medium containing one of the carbon sources; glucose, succinate or oleate. Each minimal medium condition had Brij-58. *ΔfadL* was used as a control.

### **5.3 Discussion**

The increased requirement of ubiquinone for growth of *E. coli* in oleate compared to other carbon sources led us to analyze data from our LCFA screen with the objective to identify novel players involved in ubiquinone biosynthesis. In this chapter, we established *yqiC* as a new ubiquinone biosynthesis gene. Importantly, we found that the phenotypes of *ubil* and *yqiC* deletion strains are related. Both strains show  $\sim 80\%$ reduction in ubiquinone levels, accumulate same pathway compound, show significant growth defect only in oleate and exhibit elevated levels of ROS (Figs. 5.3 and 5.4). The related phenotypes of *ubiI* and *yqiC* mutants led us to investigate the phenotype of *ubiI-yqiC* double mutant. Importantly, the double mutant showed no detectable ubiquinone (Fig. 5.6), and whereas it exhibited growth defect in glucose, the double mutant did not grow at all with oleate and succinate (Fig. 5.7). These data suggest functional redundancy between *ubiI* and *yqiC*. To further explore this, in another set of experiments in our lab, we find that whereas transforming *ubiI* on multicopy plasmid does not recover the growth of Δ*yqiC* strain on oleate, multicopy *yqiC* recovers the growth of Δ*ubiI* strain after prolonged incubation (Balecha 2017). Collectively, our results besides identifying  $\gamma q \in C$  as a novel ubiquinone biosynthesis player provide a genetic evidence of the redundancy between *ubiI* and *yqiC*.

On the basis of biochemical and biophysical features such as high  $\alpha$ -helical content, coiled-coil domain involved in trimerization and membrane fusions *in vitro*, YqiC from *Salmonella typhimurium* was reported to be a member of the *Brucella* membrane fusogenic protein (BMFP) family. Further, in this study, the *yqiC* deletion strain was severely attenuated for virulence in the murine model [\(Carrica et al., 2011\)](#page-160-0). While our work was in progress, in another study in *S. typhimurium, yqiC* was shown to be involved in bacterial colonization and invasion, biofilm formation, motility, regulation of flagella and fimbriae expression, and induction of host innate immunity post-infection. Further, in the same study, based on the absence of menaquinone-8 peak in HPLC in *yqiC* mutant, *yqiC* was reported to be a menaquinone biosynthesis player [\(Wang et al., 2016\)](#page-170-1). Contrary to the above report, a recent study in *E. coli*  showed that menaquinone biosynthesis is not impaired in a *yqiC* mutant, however, ubiquinone-8 levels are reduced by  $\sim 80\%$  [\(Loiseau et al., 2017\)](#page-165-0). The discrepancy between the two studies is suggested to be due to the erroneous identification of *S. typhimurium* endogenous menaquinone [\(Wang et al., 2016\)](#page-170-1) since these authors used vitamin K2 (menaquinone-4) as a standard to assign menaquinone-8 peak in HPLC of *S. typhimurium* lipid extracts, even though menaquinone-4 and menaquinone-8 have very different retention times on C-18 column. Our findings that *yqiC* deletion strain has ~20% ubiquinone-8 levels (Fig. 5.4) are entirely consistent with the results of Loiseau et al. [\(Loiseau et al., 2017\)](#page-165-0). Hence, *yqiC* is a bona fide ubiquinone biosynthesis player. Because of its involvement in ubiquinone biosynthesis, YqiC has been renamed as UbiK [\(Loiseau et](#page-165-0) al., 2017).

*E. coli* UbiK was reported to physically interact with a non-enzymatic ubiquinone biosynthesis player, UbiJ, and proposed to be an assembly factor for additional Ubi proteins. Further, the UbiK–UbiJ complex was shown to interact with palmitoleic acid, a major lipid in *E. coli*; an observation consistent with the idea that the UbiK-UbiJ complex might serve as a platform for the assembly of mega complex of ubiquinone biosynthesis players in the membrane [\(Loiseau et al., 2017\)](#page-165-0). Our result that a double mutant of *ubiK* and *ubiI* shows synthetic sick/lethal phenotype with no detectable ubiquinone provides strong genetic evidence of the interaction between UbiK and other Ubi proteins. Furthermore, additional data from our lab that multicopy *ubiK* recovers the growth of Δ*ubiI* strain in oleate suggest that overexpression of UbiK in Δ*ubiI* strain stabilizes a Ubi protein which has functional redundancy with UbiI. In fact, in a previous study, the residual level of ubiquinone in a Δ*ubiI* strain was attributed to the suboptimal C5-hydroxylase activity of a C6 monooxygenase, UbiF [\(Hajj Chehade et al., 2013\)](#page-163-0). Therefore, overexpression of UbiK might stabilize UbiF in the mega complex, which allows for suboptimal ubiquinone biosynthesis in the absence of UbiI.

Despite extensive study of the ubiquinone biosynthesis pathway over the past several decades, our high-throughput genetic screen on LCFAs identified a new ubiquinone biosynthesis player, *yqiC*. We suggest that our LCFA dataset can be mined further to identify additional missing players of the ubiquinone biosynthesis pathway.

# **CHAPTER VI**

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### **APPENDIX**

### **Appendix 1:**






































**Appendix table 1**: Relative fitness-scores of Keio library strains in oleate condition compared to a glucose control. Unless otherwise mentioned, the mutations are precise gene deletions from the Keio knockout library. N.D.: Not Determined

## **Appendix 2:**

S. No.	<b>Strain</b>	<b>Position</b>
		(LCFA dataset)
$\mathbf{1}$	yqiC::kan	17
$\overline{c}$	yhcB::kan	37
$\overline{3}$	yebK::kan	39
$\overline{4}$	ybhP::kan	48
5	ybgA::kan	54
6	yqaA::kan	55
7	ydeS::kan	66
8	ygeH::kan	67
9	yidK::kan	68
10	ygcR::kan	70
11	yhbT::kan	72
12	yjjM::kan	76
13	yeaN::kan	78
14	yqiH::kan	79
15	ydfU::kan	81
16	yjcZ::kan	82
17	yegT::kan	87
18	ybaP::kan	88
19	ytfL::kan	93
20	yeaD::kan	98
21	$yfcS$ :: $kan$	99

**Appendix table 2: Position of '***y***' genes among top 100 candidates in the long-chain fatty acid (LCFA) dataset.** The genes of unknown function (*y* genes), which were significantly required for growth of *E. coli* in oleate, were selected from top 100 candidates in the LCFA dataset. *yqiC* knockout was first in this list with  $17<sup>th</sup>$  rank in the LCFA dataset.