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Investigating differences in the ability of XpIA/B-containing bacteria to degrade the explosive hexahydro-1,3,5-trinitro-1,3,5-triazine (RDX)

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- 2 explosive hexahydro-1,3,5-trinitro-1,3,5-triazine (RDX)

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Graphical Abstract and One-Sentence Summary

- Differences in the ability of three bacterial strains to degrade RDX, an explosive and
- environmental pollutant, were investigated using sequence and biochemical analyses.



Abstract

The xenobiotic hexahydro-1,3,5-trinitro-1,3,5-triazine (RDX) is a toxic explosive and environmental pollutant. This study examines three bacterial species that degrade RDX, using it as a sole source of nitrogen for growth. Although isolated from diverse geographical locations, the species contain near identical copies of genes encoding the RDX-metabolizing cytochrome P450, XplA, and accompanying reductase, XplB. Sequence analysis indicates a single evolutionary origin for xplA and xplB as part of a genomic island, which has been distributed around the world via horizontal gene transfer. Despite the fact that xplA and xplB are highly conserved between species, Gordonia sp. KTR9 and Microbacterium sp. MA1 degrade RDX more slowly than *Rhodococcus rhodochrous* 11Y. Both *Gordonia* sp. KTR9 and Microbacterium sp. MA1 were found to contain single base pair mutations in xplB which, following expression and purification, were found to encode inactive XplB protein. Additionally, the Gordonia sp. KTR9 XplB was fused to glutamine synthetase, which would be likely to sterically inhibit XplB activity. Although the glutamine synthetase is fused to XplB and truncated by 71 residues, it was found to be active. Glutamine synthetase has been implicated in the regulation of nitrogen levels; controlling nitrogen availability will be important for effective bioremediation of RDX.

Introduction

Hexahydro-1,3,5-trinitro-1,3,5-triazine (RDX) is a toxic explosive widely used in military munitions. The use of RDX on military lands, coupled with its recalcitrance to biodegradation, has resulted in the build-up of significant levels of pollution. This synthetic nitramine, which has no known equivalent structure in nature, has been in the environment for less than a century but nevertheless, microorganisms have evolved the ability to degrade it (Rylott *et al.*, 2011). The enzymes involved in the aerobic biodegradation of RDX were first

49	isolated in the UK from <i>knodococcus rnodochrous</i> 11 Y and identified as an unusual
50	cytochrome P450, XplA, and accompanying flavodoxin reductase partner, XplB (Seth-Smith
51	et al., 2002). A number of aerobic RDX-degrading bacteria have been reported (Binks et al.,
52	1995, Coleman, 1998, Thompson et al., 2005, Indest et al. 2007, Nejidat et al. 2008, Andeer
53	et al., 2009, Bernstein et al., 2011,) from different geographical locations but all belonging to
54	the order Actinomycetales.
55	Within all the species tested, xplA has been detected, and found to have greater than 99 %
56	identity (Indest et al., 2007, Seth-Smith et al., 2008, Andeer et al., 2009, Bernstein et al.,
57	2011, Rylott et al., 2011, Chong et al., 2014). The highly conserved nature of xplA suggests
58	its rapid distribution by horizontal gene transfer (Seth-Smith et al., 2008, Andeer et al., 2009,
59	Rylott et al., 2011, Chong et al., 2014). Genes involved in xenobiotic catabolism are often
60	located on a mobile genetic element, accompanied by insertion elements, and are integrated
61	into the bacterial chromosomal or plasmid (Nojiri et al., 2004). In agreement with this, xplA
62	is plasmid-encoded in Microbacterium sp. MA1, R. rhodochrous 11Y (Andeer et al., 2009)
63	and Gordonia sp. KTR9 (Indest et al., 2010). Partial sequence analysis of the plasmid
64	carrying xplA in Microbacterium sp. MA1 revealed that the gene is also associated with
65	transposable elements in this bacterium (Andeer et al., 2009). Furthermore, a 6.7 kbp region
66	flanking <i>xplA</i> has been found that is nearly identical (> 99 %) between <i>Microbacterium</i> sp.
67	MA1 and R. rhodochrous 11Y (Andeer et al., 2009).
68	The partnering reductase for XplA is XplB (Seth-Smith et al., 2002), an NADPH-dependent
69	flavoprotein which contains one molecule of FAD as a cofactor and shares sequence
70	homology (and 27 % sequence identity) with the bovine adrenodoxin reductase FDXR (US
71	National Library of Medicine National Institutes of Health (NCBI) accession number
72	P08165.3). The reductase XplB is involved in the activation of the catalytic centre of XplA

- via the transfer of electrons from NADPH to a flavodoxin domain fused to the N-terminal of the P450 domain of XplA (Jackson et al., 2007). The role of XplB in RDX degradation has been demonstrated in both R. rhodochrous 11Y (Chong et al., 2014) and transgenic plant lines (Jackson et al., 2007, Bui et al., 2012). In Gordonia sp. KTR9 the 5' end of xplB is fused to a glutamine synthetase (GS)-encoding gene, glnA (Indest et al., 2010), an arrangement that has not been found in any of the other RDX-degrading bacteria examined so far. Glutamine synthetase (EC 6.3.1.2) is an essential enzyme in nitrogen metabolism, catalysing the ATP-dependant production of glutamine from glutamate and ammonia. Previously, we reported that although xplA and xplB are highly conserved amongst RDX-degrading bacteria, the ability of Gordonia sp. KTR9 and Microbacterium sp. MA1 to grow in minimal medium with RDX as the sole source of nitrogen was significantly less than that of R. rhodochrous 11Y. The ability of these bacteria to remove RDX from the medium correlated with growth rates (Chong et al., 2014). It is possible that the fusion of xplB with glnA and/or additional changes in the genetic components and arrangements of the genes in this region may account for differences in the regulation of RDX degradation in Gordonia sp. KTR9 (Zhu et al., 2014). Here we present analysis of the xplA and xplB-containing gene clusters from R. rhodochrous
- 91 11Y, Microbacterium sp. MA1 and Gordonia sp. KTR9, which reveal differences and
- ommonalities in the arrangement of genes; along with emphasis on the sequence of *xplB*,
- and characterisation of the GS-XplB fusion from *Gordonia* sp. KTR9.
- 94 Materials and Methods
- 95 Genome sequencing

Whole genome sequencing was used to obtain the complete *xplA/B* genomic island of *R. rhodochrous* 11Y (NCBI acc. no. KY488543; Figure 1). To do this, total genomic DNA was extracted by lysing the cells in TE buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, 1 mM disodium EDTA, pH 8.0) containing 10 mg/ml lysozyme, 10 % SDS and 20 mg/ml proteinase K. Cell debris was centrifuged at 10000rpm and protein removed by phenol-chloroform extraction. Nucleic acids were precipitated with 3M sodium acetate and isopropanol, washed in 70 % ethanol and resuspended in nuclease-free water. Prior to sequencing, the 16S rRNA region was sequenced to ensure that the DNA sample was from the correct species. Additionally, the *xplA* gene was amplified from the DNA sample to make sure that the plasmid had not been cured from the bacterial genome during the extraction process. The DNA sample was analysed using an Agilent TapeStation 2200 and sequenced using a Next Generation Sequencing platform Ion Torrent (Life Technologies). Raw sequence reads were assembled using Newbler, version 2.7 (Roche Diagnostics).

Construction of mutant strains

Point mutations in xplB and glnA-xplB were obtained using the QuikChangeII Site-Directed Mutagenesis protocol (Agilent Technologies Inc.). To mutate Trp-386 to Ser in R. rhodochrous 11Y XplB, primers xplB (W386S)-F 5' GTC GAT TTC GAC GGC TCG ATG CGG ATC G-3' and xplB (W386S)-R 5'- CGT CGA TCC GCA TCG AGC CGT CGA AA-3' were used. To mutate the Ser-385 to Trp in GS-XplB, primers xplB (S385W)-GS-F 5'-GTC GAT TTC GAC GGC TGG ATG CGG ATC G-3' and xplB (S385W)-GS-R 5'-CGT CGA TCC GCA TCC AGC CGT CGA AA-3' were used. To mutate Phe-172 to Ile in R. rhododochrous 11Y XplB, primers xplB (F172I)-F 5' AAG CAG CCC GAC GAA ATC ACC GGT TC-3' and xplB (F172I)-R 5' ATC GGA ACC GGT GAT TTC GTC GGG C-3' were used. Mutations were confirmed by sequencing.

Cloning and expression

The glnA-xplB gene was amplified from Gordonia sp. KTR9 by PCR using primers pGEX-xplB-glnA-F 5'- GGTTCCGCGTGGATCCATGAGTACATCCGCGCTCG-3' and pGEX-xplB-glnA-R 5'- GTCGACCCGGGAATTCTCAGCAGACCGATTCGGCCG-3' and cloned at the BamHI and EcoRI restriction sites, using an In-Fusion® HD cloning system, into pGEX2T. The GS-XplB fusion protein was expressed in Escherichia coli BL-21 (DE3). The cells were grown at 37 °C to OD600 ~0.6, then induced with 0.5 mM IPTG supplemented with 50 µg/ml riboflavin and grown for 14 hours at 20 °C. All proteins were expressed and purified as described by Jackson et al. (2007), protein identities were confirmed by MALDI-MS sequence analysis.

Activity assays

Reductase activity of XplB homologs was determined using 75 μl of cell free extract or 100 μg purified protein, 50 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 6.8), 300 μM NADPH, 0.08 mg purified XplA protein (Jackson *et al.*, 2007) (0.65 mg for GS-XplB assays) and 100 μM RDX, in a final volume of 1 mL. For this assay, *R. rhodochrous* 11Y XplA was first purified (Figure 2a), and its activity towards RDX verified using spinach ferredoxin reductase (Sigma-Aldrich), as reported previously (Rylott *et al.*, 2006). The reactions were initiated by the addition of 100 μM of RDX at room temperature and time points samples stopped by the addition of 10 % (v/v) 1M trichloroacetic acid. Levels of RDX were measured using HPLC (Jackson *et al.*, 2007), and nitrite production using Griess reagent (Griess, 1879) as follows: To 180 μl of sample, 50 μL of 10 mg of sulfanilamide/ml in 0.68 M HCl was added and incubated for 5 minutes, and then 20 μL of 10 mg of *N*-(1-naphthyl)-ethylenediamine dihydrochloride in water were added. Following mixing, and a further 10 min incubation at room temperature, absorbance at 540 nm was measured. Sodium nitrite (0 to 100 μM nitrite)

was used as a standard. Glutamine synthetase was measured spectrophotometrically, based on the method of Kingdon *et al.*, 1968 and using a pyruvate kinase and lactic dehydrogenase-linked assay that followed reduction of NADH at wavelength 340nm. Each 3 mL reaction mix cuvette contained 34.1 mM imidazole buffer pH 7.1, 102 mM sodium glutamate, 8.5 mM adenosine 5'-triphosphate, 1.1 mM phosphoenolpyruvate, 60 mM magnesium chloride, 18.9 mM potassium chloride, 45 mM ammonium chloride, 0.25 mM b-nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide, 28 units pyruvate kinase, 40 units L-lactic dehydrogenase and 0.4 - 0.8 unit glutamine synthetase. One enzyme unit will convert 1.0 μmole of L-glutamate to L-glutamine in 1 minute at pH 7.1 at 37°C with specific activity defined as number of units per mg protein.

Measurement of FAD

The amount of FAD cofactor bound to the XplB and GS-XplB proteins was measured following the method described by Aliverti *et al.*, 1999. Protein was boiled at 100 °C, in the dark, for 20 min and precipitated protein removed by centrifugation at 13,000 rpm for 10 minutes. The UV-visible spectrum of the supernatant was recorded (200 to 600 nm) spectrophotometrically. FAD was also determined by HPLC analysis using a C18 column with a mobile phase of 5 mM ammonium acetate buffer, pH 6.5 (solvent A) and methanol (solvent B) and the following gradient: 5 minutes solvent A 85 %: solvent B 15 %; 20 minutes solvent A 25 %: solvent B 75 %; 5 minute solvent A 0 %: solvent B 100 %; 5 minutes solvent A 85 %: solvent B 15 %.). The flow rate was 0.75 ml/min and column temperature 30 °C. Commercially available FAD (Sigma) was used as a reference.

Results

The xplA/B gene clusters

Analysis of the putative *xplA/B* genomic islands in *R. rhodochrous* 11Y, *Microbacterium* sp. MA1 and *Gordonia* sp. KTR9 is shown in Figure 1. Within a 53 kb region in *R. rhodochrous* 11Y, there are 13.8 kb and 11.8kb gene clusters (termed the A and B regions respectively). Further downstream, is a 570 bp sequence encoding a transposable element (termed the C region). While the A region, which contains *xplA* and *xplB*, is highly conserved between *R. rhodochrous* 11Y and *Microbacterium* sp. MA1, *Gordonia* sp. KTR9 shares homology only with 3.1 kbp of the A region, although this includes *xplA* and *xplB*. Conversely, the B and C regions are highly conserved between *R. rhodochrous* 11Y and *Gordonia* sp. KTR9, but absent from *Microbacterium* sp. MA1. Two additional regions, (termed D1 and D2) are nearly identical between *Microbacterium* sp. MA1 and *Gordonia* sp. KTR9; yet absent from *R. rhodochrous* 11Y. Scattered within these gene clusters are a number of transposable elements, indicative of mobility within and between these regions.

Microbacterium sp. MA1 XplB

The only difference between the *R. rhodochrous* 11Y and *Microbacterium* sp. MA1 XplB sequences is that *R. rhodochrous* 11Y contains a Phe-172, which is conserved across a range of RDX-degrading bacterial genera, whereas *Microbacterium* sp. MA1 contains an Ile-172 (Table 1). In *R. rhodochrous* 11Y XplB, a protein-bound flavin (FAD) has been reported to be loosely bound (Jackson *et al.*, 2007). In agreement with this, purified *R. rhodochrous* 11Y XplB contained 25 % of the predicted FAD and was yellow-colored. However, the *Microbacterium* sp. MA1 XplB protein was colorless and lacked detectable FAD (Figure 2b and c). Reductase activity in cell lysates was measured using the Griess assay to detect nitrite released during the degradation of RDX by XplA. Figure 2d shows that in reaction mixtures containing XplA and lysate from cells expressing *R. rhodochrous* 11Y XplB, nitrite release was observed. However, although nitrite was detected in reaction mixtures containing lysate

from cells expressing the <i>Microbacterium</i> sp. MA1 XplB, the level was not significantly
different from that seen from lysate transformed with the empty vector control, indicating that
Microbacterium sp. MA1 XplB was inactive.

Characterisation of the XplB portion of the Gordonia KTR9 GS-XplB fusion In Gordonia KTR9, the sequence of the XplB portion of the GS-XplB fusion was found to differ from the R. rhodochrous 11Y XplB sequence by just two amino acids. Firstly, the Met-1 in Gordonia KTR9 GS-XplB was missing, enabling the uninterrupted translation of XplB following GS to produce the GS-XplB fusion. Secondly, R. rhodochrous 11Y XplB contained a tryptophan (Trp-386) whereas the Gordonia KTR9 GS-XplB fusion contained serine (Ser-385). This difference was the result of a single base change: TCG encoding tryptophan and TGG encoding serine. A multiple sequence alignment, by % identity, of XplB revealed that Trp-386 is highly conserved across a number of bacterial genera (Table 1). Purified Gordonia KTR9 GS-XplB fusion protein was colorless and lacked detectable FAD (Figure 2b and c). Subsequent Griess assays suggested that the GS-XplB fusion was inactive (Figure 2d) and to confirm this, RDX removal rates by cell lysates were measured. When lysate from cells expressing R. rhodochrous 11Y XplB was used as the source of reductase, all the RDX was removed within 10 minutes. Although RDX degradation was detected in reaction mixtures containing lysate from cells expressing the Gordonia KTR9 GS-XplB fusion, this was lower than endogenous E. coli reductase activity measured in lysate from cells transformed with just the empty vector control (Figure 2e). Together, these results demonstrate that the XplB component of the *Gordonia* KTR9 GS-XplB was inactive. To investigate further, the role of Ser-385 and Trp-386 in XplB activity, reciprocal mutations

in R. rhodochrous 11Y XplB (W386S) and the Gordonia KTR9 GS-XplB-S385W fusion

were made. Lysate from cells expressing R. rhodochrous 11Y XplB-W386S lacked the

yellow coloration observed in lysate from unmutated <i>R. rhodochrous</i> 11Y XplB.				
Furthermore, when used as the partnering reductase for XplA, activity towards RDX was				
only observed when unmutated R. rhodochrous 11Y XplB was supplied as the reductase; no				
activity was observed in assays using the mutated R. rhodochrous 11Y XplB-W386S (Figure				
3a). Whereas lysate from cells expressing the <i>Gordonia</i> KTR9 GS-XplB fusion was not				
yellow colored, lysate from cells expressing the mutated <i>Gordonia</i> KTR9 GS-XplB-S385W				
fusion had the same yellow coloration observed in the cell lysate of <i>R. rhodochrous</i> 11Y				
XplB. Figure 3b shows that when mutated <i>Gordonia</i> KTR9 GS-XplB-S385W fusion lysate				
was supplied as a reductase in Griess assays, with purified R. rhodochrous 11Y XplA and				
RDX as substrate, nitrite was detected. In assays measuring RDX using HPLC, lysate from				
the mutated Gordonia KTR9 GS-XplB-S385W fusion removed significantly more RDX than				
lysate from cells transformed with the empty vector (Figure 3c). However, upon purification,				
the mutated <i>Gordonia</i> KTR9 GS-XplB-S385W fusion protein appeared colorless and FAD				
was not detectable using HPLC. Assays monitoring the production of nitrite from RDX by R.				
rhodochrous 11Y XplA, confirmed that the purified, mutated Gordonia KTR9 GS-XplB-				
S385W fusion was inactive.				
Characterization of the GS portion of the Gordonia KTR9 GS-XplB fusion				
Multiple sequence alignments with characterized GS type I protein sequences (Brown et al.,				
1994, Hayward et al., 2009, Murray et al., 2013) revealed that the GS component of the				
Gordonia KTR9 GS-XplB fusion belongs to the GS type I-α class, which lack the insertion				
signature sequence found in the GS type I-β class (Brown et al., 1994; Table 2). The				

Gordonia KTR9 GS-XplB contains 390 amino acids and alignment with the three closest

homologs (> 78 % identity) available in public databases revealed that the fusion protein is

truncated, missing 71 amino acids from the C-terminus. To investigate whether the missing

residues form part of the active site, a model structure of the GS portion was created based on the closest homolog (29.1 % identity) in the protein database bank for which structural data was available: GS from *B. subtilis* (acc. no. P12425). Superimposing the model structure of *Gordonia* KTR9 GS-XplB on the GS from *B. subtilis* (RMSD: 1.141 Å) revealed the structure, and position, of the missing region (Figure 4a). Based on this homology modelling, and knowledge from the structure of the GS type I-α of *B. subtilis* (Murray *et al.*, 2013), it was found that the missing residues in the GS fusion included two residues involved in the formation of a Tyr loop in the active site. Residues located on the other loops mediating the catalytic activity of the enzyme present in GS from *B. subtilis* were also found in the *Gordonia* KTR9 GS-XplB. This included an Asn loop which shares remarkable similarity with GS from *B. subtilis*, while the Asp⁵⁰, on a latch loop was found to be extended in the *Gordonia* KTR9 GS-XplB when compared to the GS from *B. subtilis*. Remarkably, despite fusion and truncation, the GS-XplB protein has glutamine synthetase activity (Figure 4b).

Discussion

Both *xplA* and *xplB* are highly conserved amongst different genera of aerobic RDX-degrading bacteria isolated from distinct geographical locations. This conservation endorses the theory of the recent evolution of these genes, and dissemination around the world through horizontal gene transfer (Seth-Smith *et al.*, 2008, Andeer *et al.*, 2009, Jung *et al.*, 2011). Such evolution and distribution has been reported for other xenobiotic-degrading genes, for example naphthalene degrading genes (*nahAc*) (Herrick *et al.*, 1997), N-heterocycle morpholine degrading genes (*morABC*) (Sielaff & Andreesen, 2005) and atrazine degrading genes (*atzABC*) (de Souza *et al.*, 1998) were also found to be highly conserved to the level of identical copies of the same gene found amongst different bacteria isolated from diverse geographical locations.

263	In addition to $xplA$ and $xplB$, there are several neighboring genes which are nearly identical
264	between the bacteria studied here. In R. rhodochrous 11Y, Microbacterium sp. MA1 (Andeer
265	et al., 2009) and Gordonia sp. KTR9 (Indest et al., 2010), there are transposable elements in
266	neighboring regions, suggesting that xplA and xplB are part of a larger mobile element such
267	as an Integrative and Conjugative Element (ICE) or genomic island in a conjugative plasmid.
268	Similarly, the genes for the degradation of xenobiotics such as chlorobenzoate, by
269	Pseudomonas sp. strain B13 (Ravatn et al., 1998, Gaillard et al., 2006); and biphenyl
270	degradation by Ralstonia eutropha A5 (Springael et al., 2001), are also found partly on larger
271	mobile elements. Genomic islands and ICEs are known to excise and integrate into
272	chromosomes or plasmids through conjugation (Burrus et al., 2002, van der Meer &
273	Sentchilo, 2003). In support of this, <i>R. rhodochrous</i> 11Y.058 (Figure 1) encodes a phage
274	related integrase belonging to the tyrosine recombinase family, which shares complete
275	identity with a site-specific recombinase from R. erythropolis PR4. Moreover, the RDX-
276	degradation capacity of <i>Gordonia</i> sp. KTR9 was successfully transferred into the non-RDX
277	degrading species Gordonia polyisoprenivorans, Rhodococcus jostii RHA1 and Nocardia sp.
278	TW2 through conjugation (Jung et al., 2011), demonstrating that this is a possible transfer
279	mechanism.
280	Sequence analysis of the genes surrounding xplA and xplB showed that there are regions of
281	identity between the three species, and although $xplA$ alone is sufficient for the catabolism of
282	RDX (Rylott et al., 2006, Indest et al., 2010), it has been speculated that some of these
283	neighboring genes contribute towards RDX degradation (Indest et al., 2010, Indest et al.,
284	2013, Chong et al., 2014, Zhu et al., 2014). For example, downstream of xplB in R.
285	rhodochrous 11Y and Microbacterium sp. MA1 are genes encoding a putative permease
286	(AroP; 11Y.026 and MA1.029 in Figure 1) and transcriptional regulator (MarR; 11Y.025 and

MA1.02 / in Figure 1). Orthologous permeases have been found close to genes with related
function (Wehrmann et al., 1995, Yu et al., 2007), and members of the MarR family shown
to play a role in regulating catabolism of aromatic compounds (Bussmann et al., 2010; Chong
et al., 2014). However, gene deletion analysis has demonstrated that AroP and MarR from R.
rhodochrous 11Y do not affect RDX degradation in this species (Chong et al., 2014). In
Gordonia sp. KTR9, sequence analysis of pGKT2, the 182 kb plasmid carrying xplA and
xplB indicated that they are integrated into an operon involved in the degradation of N-
heterocyclic compounds (Zhu et al., 2014). On this operon, the genes upstream of xplA and
xplB (xplR, cyp151C and glnA) share high sequence similarity and arrangement to the mor
and pip gene clusters involved in the degradation of morpholine, piperidine and related
compounds in Mycobacterium and Rhodococcus (Indest et al., 2010).
An <i>xplB</i> knock-out in <i>R. rhodochrous</i> 11Y demonstrated that although XplB is not required
for XplA activity; the absence of XplB reduces the rate of RDX-degradation by 70 % (Chong
et al., 2014). The fact that an xplB knock-out can still degrade RDX indicates that alternative
endogenous reductases can substitute in bacteria, and this has also been demonstrated in
XplA-transformed plants (Jackson <i>et al.</i> , 2007). A previous comparison between the RDX
removal rates of RDX-degrading isolates showed that all <i>Rhodococcus</i> spp. had faster RDX
removal rates than <i>Microbacterium</i> sp. MA1 or <i>Gordonia</i> sp. KTR9 (Chong <i>et al.</i> , 2014).
Considering that XplA alone is able to denitrate the RDX structure in the organism (Rylott <i>et</i>
al., 2006, Indest et al., 2010), and is identical in species across all three genera (Chong et al.,
2014), the differences in the RDX-removal rate are due to the impairment of XplB,
differences in bacterial physiology, or a combination of both.
r-,
The studies presented here indicate that mutations present in XplB in <i>Gordonia</i> sp. KTR9 and
Microbacterium sp. MA1 explain, to a degree, why these species exhibit reduced rates of

RDX degradation when compared with <i>R. rhodochrous</i> 11Y. Our studies comparing the <i>R</i> .
rhodochrous 11Y Trp-386 with the Ser-385 found in Gordonia sp. KTR9 showed that Trp-
386 clearly plays a critical role in retaining FAD in XplB. This residue also appears to be
important for the functionality of other FAD containing proteins as multiple sequence
alignments revealed the residue to be highly conserved amongst FAD-containing proteins
that share as low as 42 % sequence identity with XplB. Additionally, in <i>Gordonia</i> sp. KTR9,
the fusion of GS to XplB is likely to further inhibit the reductase activity of XplB, and thus
RDX-degrading activity of <i>Gordonia</i> sp. KTR9. Considering that <i>Gordonia</i> sp. KTR9 was
isolated from soil where RDX was not detected (Thompson et al., 2005), it is possible that
the recombination and reduction of the genomic island, which resulted in the fusion of the
XplB to GS, arose from the absence of selective pressure from RDX.
Despite the fact that the GS component of the <i>Gordonia</i> sp. KTR9 GS-XplB fusion is
truncated, it was found to be active, demonstrating that the purified GS protein is correctly
folded and the missing residues are not essential for functionality. The GS portion of the
Gordonia sp. KTR9 GS-XplB fusion belongs to GS type I-α. It is already known that the GS
type I- α from B. subtilis plays an important role in regulating cellular nitrogen levels by
controlling the expression of GlnR and TnrA. In the presence of glutamine, GS binds TnrA
directly onto the DNA, forming a GS-TnrA-DNA complex with its formation regulated by
the intracellular levels of ATP, AMP, glutamine, and glutamate. (Fisher & Wray, 2008, Wray
& Fisher, 2010, Murray et al., 2013, Hauf et al., 2016). Mutation of GS in B. subtilis resulted
in the constitutive expression of both GlnR and TnrA proteins (Wray & Fisher, 2010). In
Gordonia sp. KTR9, GlnR is important in the assimilation of nitrite in the cell. Knock-out of
•
glnR in Gordonia sp. KTR9 resulted in the accumulation of nitrite from RDX (Zhu et al., 2014) and down-regulation of the nitrite reductase gene loci KTR9, 1306 and KTR9, 1307
- ZUTATANG GOWN-TEPHIAHON OF THE NITHE TEGHCTASE GENETICS KIRY ISON AND KIRY ISOT

335	(Indest et al., 2013). Additionally, the glnR mutant lacked the ability to utilise RDX, nitrite or
336	nitrate as the sole source of nitrogen, but not ammonium or glutamine.
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345	Figure Legends
346	Figure 1. Schematic representation of the RDX-degrading gene clusters in three genera of
347	aerobic RDX-degrading bacteria.
348	White colored regions have no sequence homology. Dotted lines indicate unsequenced
349	regions, genes encoding transposable elements are shown in yellow.
350	Figure 2. Purification and analysis of XplB proteins from <i>R. rhodochrous</i> 11Y,
351	Microbacterium sp. MA1 and Gordonia sp. KTR9.
352	(a) SDS-PAGE analysis of lysates (L) and purified proteins from E. coli cells expressing
353	XplA or XplB homologues. (b) Overlaid chromatograms showing FAD absorbance peaks
354	from purified proteins. (c) Appearance of purified proteins. (d) Reductase activity in cell
355	lysates expressing XplB homologues, measured using the Griess assay with purified XplA
356	and RDX as substrate (n = $3 \pm SD$. Letters refer to significant differences; ANOVA, Tukey
357	HSD). (e) RDX removal from E. coli cell lysates expressing R. rhodochrous 11Y XplB and
358	Gordonia sp. KTR9 GS-XplB supplemented with purified XplA (n = $3 \pm SD$).
359	Figure 3 Activities of XplB proteins carrying reciprocal mutations from R. rhodochrous 11Y
360	and <i>Gordonia</i> sp. KTR9.
361	(a) Nitrite release from <i>E. coli</i> cell lysates expressing <i>R. rhodochrous</i> 11Y XplB and <i>R.</i>
362	rhodochrous 11Y XplB-(W386S) measured using the Griess assay, with purified XplA and
363	RDX as substrate (n = $3 \pm SD$). (b) Nitrite release, observed using the Griess assay, by E. coli
364	cell lysates expressing R. rhodochrous 11Y XplB and Gordonia sp. KTR9 GS-XplB-
365	(S385W), with purified XplA and RDX as substrate. (c) RDX removal by E. coli cell lysates

expressing the *Gordonia* sp. KTR9 GS-XplB-(S385W) or empty vector (n = $3 \pm SD$).

- Figure 4 Characterization of the glutamine synthetase (GS) and XplB portions of *Gordonia* sp. KTR9 GS-XplB fusion protein.
- 369 (a) Model structure of GS from GS-XplB (blue) superimposed on the GS structure of B.
- 370 subtilis (yellow). Sequence missing from GS-XplB (red). Root mean square deviation 1.14
- 371 °A). (b) GS activity in *E. coli* cell lysates (n = $3 \pm SD$).

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Table 1

Multiple sequence alignment of the *Rhodococcus rhodochrous* 11Y XplB showing closest matches by % identity. The alignment shows the regions containing the phenylalanine-172 (F) residue that is replaced with isoleucine (<u>I</u>) in *Microbacterium* sp. MA1; and the tryptophan-386 (W) residue that in the *Gordonia* sp. KTR9 GS-XplB fusion, corresponds to serine (<u>S</u>). Multiple species for genera have been omitted. The alignment was performed using ClustalW2 (EMBL European Bioinformatics Institute).

0	Identity	UniProt	Sequence
Organism	(%)	AC	(N- to C-terminal)
Rhodococcus rhodochrous 11Y	100	Q8GPH8	DIIRLLSKQPDE f TGSD w mrideaevasaspgrirQkvrevd
Gordonia sp. KTR9	99.8	E1R0R9	…DIIRLLSKQPDE f tgsd… <u>s</u> mrideaevasaspgrirqkvrevd…
Microbacterium sp. MA1	99.8	C3UMY2	…DIIRLLSKQPDE <u>I</u> TGSD… w mrideaevasaspgrirqkvrevd…
Pseudomonas sp.	47.7	A0A0V8SZM6	DVLRLLAKSAED F AGSD W QRIDHAETRAAAPGRVRRKITDRA
Nitratireductor pacificus	47.2	K2MCG5	DLLRLLAKTPDE L AGSD W KRIDAAEIAAAPENRCRVKINSRD
Marinovum algicola	46.7	A0A0H4L107	DLLRLLAKSPEE L EGSD W CRIDSAETANPPPGRCRAKITTRE
Ventosimonas gracilis	44.5	A0A139SRD6	DVLRLL <mark>ikpahdwqgsdwqridteekqcapagrvrqkiterv</mark>
Roseomonas mucosa	44.5	A0A0W0A9P2	DLARMLSKDEAE L AGSD W LRIRAAEEAAASAGRVRRKGATRD
Mameliella alba	44.4	A0A0B3RZQ4	DLLRLLAKAPEE l DGSD W SRIDAAETGAAPEGRCRTKLATRE
Ruegeria sp.	44.1	A0A1E3D8F1	DLLRLLAKAPEE l DGSD W SRIDAAETGAAPEGRCRTKLATRE
Agrococcus jejuensis	43	A0A1G8CDN7	DVARLVARDAAD F DGTD W RRIDAAETLAAAPGRRRAKLRTLD
Agrococcus pavilionensis	43	U1LRN2	DVVRLLARDAEG $oldsymbol{ t L}$ GGTD $oldsymbol{ t W}$ RRIDVREQLGAAPGRSRSKLRSRA
Arthrobacter globiformis	43	H0QK39	DVVRFLIKTPGE F AGSD $oldsymbol{w}$ LRVD $oldsymbol{a}$ AER $oldsymbol{a}$ AERAAAPGNRSRKKLPDHA
Leucobacter sp.	42.1	A0A061LTW8	DVLRFLVKDRDA Y EGSD W LRLDEHERSVAPSGRVRHKLPDHD

Table 2.

Multiple sequence alignment of a region of the glutamine synthetase component of the GS-XplB fusion from *Gordonia* sp. KTR9. The shaded region is unique to class GS type I-β type GS (Brown *et al.*, 1994). The alignment was performed using ClustalW2 (EMBL European Bioinformatics Institute).

Ouganiam	Class	UniProt	Sequence
Organism		AC	(N- to C-terminal)
Mycobacterium tuberculosis	GSI-β	P9WN39	STGIADTAYFGAEAEFYIFDSVSFDSRANGSFYEVDAISGWWNTGAATEA 170
Streptomyces coelicolor	GSI-β	P15106	STGIADTAFFGPEAEFYVFDSVRFATRENESFYHIDSEAGAWNTGALED- 165
Synechococcus sp.	GSI-β	P28605	ASGIGDTAYFGPEAEFFVFDDVRFDQTENKGFYYVDSVEGRWNSGRKEP- 168
Anabaena sp.	GSI-β	K7W630	STGLGDTAFFGPEAEFFIFDDVRYDQTTNSGYYYVDSVEGRWNTGREE 166
Salmonella typhimurium	GSI-β	P0A1P6	ATGIADTVLFGPEPEFFLFDDIRFGASISGSHVAIDDIEGAWNSSTKYE- 166
Pyrococcus furiosus	GSI-α	Q05907	KEGYKAYIGPEPEFYLFKKNGTWELEIPDV- 141
Haloferax volcanii	GSI-α	P43386	ELGY-DVNVA-PEPEFFLFEEDEDGRATTVTNDA- 164
Bacillus subtilis	GSI-α	P12425	DLGFSDFNLG-PEPEFFLFKLDEKGEPTLELNDK- 153
Methanococcus voltae	GSI-α	P21154	EEFKGEYFVG-PEPEFFILKNENGKWVPGDD- 156
Gordonia sp. KTR9	GSI-α	E1R0R9	ERTGLEMRTG-TEPEMTWEGEGFETTFRPDS- 176

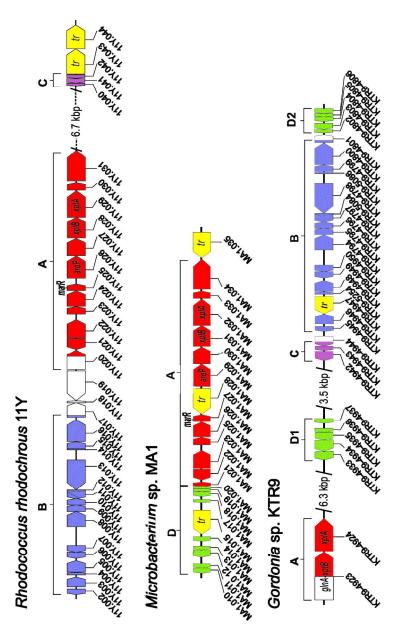


Figure 1. Schematic representation of the RDX-degrading gene clusters in three genera of aerobic RDX-degrading bacteria.

White colored regions have no sequence homology. Dotted lines indicate unsequenced regions, genes encoding transposable elements are shown in yellow.

Figure 2. Purification and analysis of XplB proteins from R. rhodochrous 11Y, Microbacterium sp. MA1 and Gordonia sp. KTR9.

162x267mm (300 x 300 DPI)

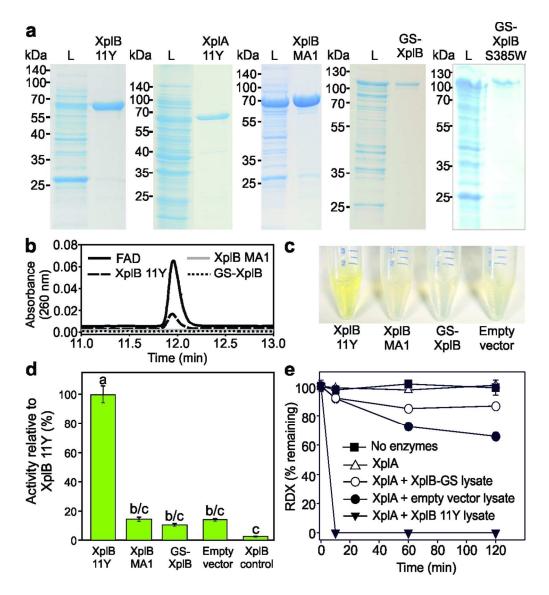


Figure 2. Purification and analysis of *R. rhodochrous* 11Y, *Microbacterium* sp. MA1 and *Gordonia* sp. KTR9 XplB!! + (a) SDS-PAGE analysis of lysates (L) and purified proteins from *E. coli* cells expressing XplA or XplB homologs. (b) Overlaid chromatograms showing FAD absorbance peaks from purified proteins. (c) Appearance of purified proteins. (d) Reductase activity in cell lysates expressing XplB homologs, measured using the Griess assay with purified XplA and RDX as substrate (n = 3 ± SD. Letters refer to significant differences; ANOVA, Tukey HSD). (e) RDX removal from *E. coli* cell lysates expressing *R. rhodochrous* 11Y XplB and *Gordonia* sp. KTR9 XplB-GS supplemented with purified XplA (n= 3 ± SD).

113x124mm (300 x 300 DPI)

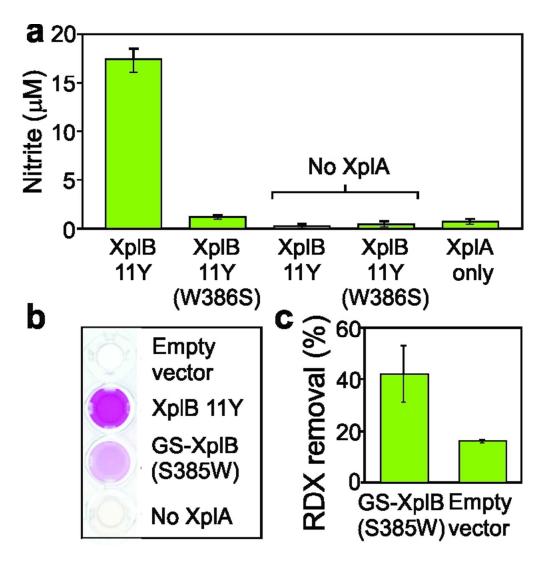


Figure 3 Activities of XplB proteins carrying reciprocal mutations from R. rhodochrous 11Y and Gordonia sp. KTR9.

(a) Nitrite release from $E.\ coli$ cell lysates expressing $R.\ rhodochrous\ 11Y\ XplB$ and $R.\ rhodochrous\ 11Y\ XplB$ (W386S) measured using the Griess assay, with purified XplA and RDX as substrate (n = 3 \pm SD). (b) Nitrite release, observed using the Greiss assay, by $E.\ coli$ cell lysates expressing $R.\ rhodochrous\ 11Y\ XplB$ and $Gordonia\ sp.\ KTR9\ GS-XplB-(S385W)$, with purified XplA and RDX as substrate. (c) RDX removal by $E.\ coli$ cell lysates expressing the $Gordonia\ sp.\ KTR9\ GS-XplB-(S385W)$ or empty vector (n = 3 \pm SD).

63x66mm (300 x 300 DPI)

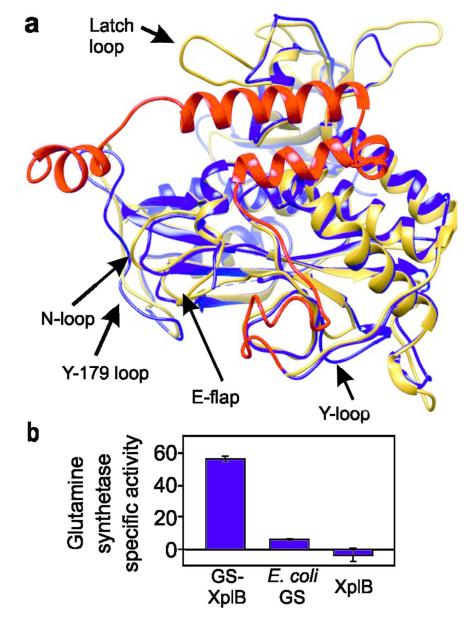


Figure 4 Characterization of the glutamine synthetase (GS) and XpIB portions of Gordonia sp. KTR9 GS-XpIB fusion protein.

(a) Model structure of GS from GS-XplB (blue) superimposed on the GS structure of B. subtilis (yellow). Sequence missing from GS-XplB (red). Root mean square deviation 1.14 $^{\circ}$ A). (b) GS activity in E. coli cell lysates (n = 3 ± SD).

68x93mm (300 x 300 DPI)