

# A Matter of Timing: Contrasting Effects of Hydrogen Sulfide on Oxidative Stress Response in *Shewanella oneidensis*

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## ABSTRACT

Hydrogen sulfide ( $H_2S$ ), well known for its toxic properties, has recently become a research focus in bacteria, in part because it has been found to prevent oxidative stress caused by treatment with some antibiotics.  $H_2S$  has the ability to scavenge reactive oxygen species (ROS), thus preventing oxidative stress, but it is also toxic, leading to conflicting reports of its effects in different organisms. Here, with *Shewanella oneidensis* as a model, we report that the effects of  $H_2S$  on the response to oxidative stress are time dependent. When added simultaneously with  $H_2O_2$ ,  $H_2S$  promoted  $H_2O_2$  toxicity by inactivating catalase, KatB, a heme-containing enzyme involved in  $H_2O_2$  degradation. Such an inhibitory effect may apply to other heme-containing proteins, such as cytochrome *cbb*<sub>3</sub> oxidase. When  $H_2O_2$  was supplied 20 min or later after the addition of  $H_2S$ , the oxidative-stress-responding regulator OxyR was activated, resulting in increased resistance to  $H_2O_2$ . The activation of OxyR was likely triggered by the influx of iron, a response to lowered intracellular iron due to the iron-sequestering property of  $H_2S$ . Given that *Shewanella* bacteria thrive in redox-stratified environments that have abundant sulfur and iron species, our results imply that  $H_2S$  is more important for bacterial survival in such environmental niches than previously believed.

## IMPORTANCE

Previous studies have demonstrated that  $H_2S$  is either detrimental or beneficial to bacterial cells. While it can act as a growth-inhibiting molecule by damaging DNA and denaturing proteins, it helps cells to combat oxidative stress. Here we report that  $H_2S$  indeed has these contrasting biological functions and that its effects are time dependent. Immediately after  $H_2S$  treatment, there is growth inhibition due to damage of heme-containing proteins, at least to catalase and cytochrome *c* oxidase. In contrast, when added a certain time later,  $H_2S$  confers an enhanced ability to combat oxidative stress by activating the  $H_2O_2$ -responding regulator OxyR. Our data reconcile conflicting observations about the functions of  $H_2S$ .

As an important signaling molecule, along with nitric oxide (NO) and carbon monoxide (CO), hydrogen sulfide ( $H_2S$ ) has been a focus of research in mammals in recent years and has been found to have many beneficial functions (1). The most important one is its cytoprotective effect against oxidative stress (2). Although studies of the physiological roles of  $H_2S$  in bacteria have lagged behind significantly, it was recently reported that  $H_2S$  is important in the abilities of certain species, such as *Escherichia coli*, *Bacillus anthracis*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, and *Staphylococcus aureus*, to survive and grow well in various niches (3). By stimulating protection against reactive oxygen species (ROS),  $H_2S$  provides bacteria a general defense against antibiotics (3). However,  $H_2S$  has also long been known for its toxic properties, especially as a growth inhibitor by damaging DNA, by denaturing proteins through disruption of disulfide cross-links, by inactivating the redox centers of metalloenzymes, and by enhancing oxidative stress (4–7).  $H_2S$  significantly inhibits the growth of several bacteria, including *E. coli*, *Bacillus subtilis*, *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium, and *S. aureus*, as well as some marine bacteria (7, 8). In addition,  $H_2S$  was also found to act as an antifungal agent for several pathogens, including *Aspergillus niger* and *Penicillium italicum*, by decreasing the activities and expression of superoxide dismutase (SOD) and catalase (CAT) (8). While the contrasting effects of  $H_2S$  reported in these studies may be attributed to differences in the concentrations used, it is possible that  $H_2S$  has distinct impacts on different species of bacteria.

*Shewanella* bacteria are facultative Gram-negative gammaproteobacteria with a remarkable respiratory versatility and potential

for bioremediation of metals, as well as for its use in microbial fuel cells (9, 10). *Shewanella* species are also gradually emerging as human and animal pathogens, as reports of *Shewanella* infections have been increasingly reported (11). Owing to these properties, some species, the model species *Shewanella oneidensis* in particular, have been intensively studied. There is endogenous  $H_2S$  generation in *S. oneidensis* (12), but not until recently was its enzymatic foundation determined (13–15). Through anaerobic respiration of inorganic sulfur compounds in the periplasm, including thiosulfate ( $S_2O_3^{2-}$ ), sulfite ( $SO_3^{2-}$ ), tetrathionate ( $S_4O_6^{2-}$ ), and elemental sulfur ( $S^0$ ), *S. oneidensis* generates  $H_2S$  with sulfite reductase SirACD, as well as thiosulfate and polysulfide reductase PsrABC (13, 14, 16). Cysteine degradation via methionine  $\gamma$ -lyase MdeA is the predominant source of endogenous  $H_2S$  production, with other mechanisms via SO\_1095 and SseA being of lesser importance (15). While MdeA and SO\_1095 are homologous to P.

Received 23 July 2015 Accepted 25 August 2015

Accepted manuscript posted online 31 August 2015

Citation Wu G, Wan F, Fu H, Li N, Gao H. 2015. A matter of timing: contrasting effects of hydrogen sulfide on oxidative stress response in *Shewanella oneidensis*. *J Bacteriol* 197:3563–3572. doi:10.1128/JB.00603-15.

Editor: W. W. Metcalf

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Supplemental material for this article may be found at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JB.00603-15>.

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TABLE 1 Strains and plasmids used in this study

Strain or plasmid	Description	Reference or source
<i>E. coli</i>		
DH5 $\alpha$	Host strain for plasmids and general use	Lab stock
WM3064	Donor strain for conjugation; $\Delta$ <i>dapA</i>	W. W. Metcalf, UIUC <sup>a</sup>
<i>S. oneidensis</i>		
MR-1	Wild type	ATCC 700550
HG1070	$\Delta$ <i>katB</i> mutant derived from MR-1	19
HG1095	$\Delta$ <i>SO1095</i> mutant derived from MR-1	15
HG1261	$\Delta$ <i>sseA</i> mutant derived from MR-1	15
HG1328	$\Delta$ <i>oxyR</i> mutant derived from MR-1	19
HG1812	$\Delta$ <i>mdeA</i> mutant derived from MR-1	15
HG2364	$\Delta$ <i>ccoN</i> mutant derived from MR-1	40
HG2903	$\Delta$ <i>cysK</i> mutant derived from MR-1	15
HG4056	$\Delta$ <i>metB</i> mutant derived from MR-1	15
$\Delta$ <i>cysK</i> <sup>C</sup>	$\Delta$ <i>cysK</i> mutant with copy of <i>cysK</i> integrated into chromosome	15
$\Delta$ <i>triple</i>	$\Delta$ <i>mdeA</i> $\Delta$ <i>SO1095</i> $\Delta$ <i>sseA</i> mutant derived from MR-1	This study
$\Delta$ <i>penta</i>	$\Delta$ <i>mdeA</i> $\Delta$ <i>SO1095</i> $\Delta$ <i>sseA</i> $\Delta$ <i>psrA</i> $\Delta$ <i>sirA</i> mutant derived from MR-1	This study
Plasmids		
pHGM01	Ap <sup>r</sup> Gm <sup>r</sup> Cm <sup>r</sup> suicide vector	23
pHG101	Promoterless broad-host-range Km <sup>r</sup> vector	24
pHG102	pHG101 containing <i>S. oneidensis</i> <i>arcA</i> promoter	24
pHGEI01	Integrative <i>lacZ</i> reporter vector	32
pBBR-Cre	Sp <sup>r</sup> helper plasmid for antibiotic cassette removal	39
pHGE-P <sub><i>katB</i></sub> - <i>lacZ</i>	Reporter vector carrying P <sub><i>katB</i></sub> - <i>lacZ</i>	This study
pHGE-P <sub><i>dps</i></sub> - <i>lacZ</i>	Reporter vector carrying P <sub><i>dps</i></sub> - <i>lacZ</i>	This study
pHGE-P <sub><i>ahpC</i></sub> - <i>lacZ</i>	Reporter vector carrying P <sub><i>ahpC</i></sub> - <i>lacZ</i>	This study
pHGE-P <sub><i>katG1</i></sub> - <i>lacZ</i>	Reporter vector carrying P <sub><i>katG1</i></sub> - <i>lacZ</i>	This study

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*aeruginosa* cystathionine  $\gamma$ -lyase (CSE), SseA is a homologue of 3-mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferase (3MST) (3, 15, 17).

Endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S is particularly important for *Shewanella* species because it is critical to iron reduction (18). In alkaline environments containing multiple electron acceptors, including sulfur and iron species, *S. oneidensis* first generates H<sub>2</sub>S (HS<sup>-</sup>), which in turn reduces iron compounds abiotically. In parallel, in the redox-stratified environments where *Shewanella* bacteria thrive, ROS are likely to occur. Hence, for these bacteria, H<sub>2</sub>S may not only function as a reductive chemical for abiotic iron reduction but also play a role in the cellular response to oxidative stress. Like *E. coli* and many other bacteria, *S. oneidensis* utilizes OxyR, a LysR family transcriptional regulator, as the predominant regulator mediating the cellular response to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (19–21). OxyR controls a large number of genes by acting as both an activator and a repressor. Two such genes under OxyR repression, *katB* and *dps*, are particularly important in protecting cells from H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> damage (19). While KatB is a CAT dominating H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> degradation, Dps, as an iron-sequestering protein, plays a role in the control of cellular iron homeostasis, especially when cells are challenged by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>.

In this study, we have attempted to understand the effects of H<sub>2</sub>S on the response of *S. oneidensis* to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. We found that H<sub>2</sub>S either aggravates or protects from H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> lethality, depending on the time of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> addition. Enhanced killing was due primarily to H<sub>2</sub>S inactivation of KatB, and such a mechanism appeared to be applicable to some other heme-containing proteins. In contrast, protection against H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> induced by pretreatment with H<sub>2</sub>S depended on the activation of OxyR, the master regulator mediating the cellular response to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (19–21). This appears to be due to

iron influx triggered by lowered intracellular free-iron levels resulting from the iron-sequestering activity of H<sub>2</sub>S.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Bacterial strains, plasmids, and culture conditions.** The bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study are described in Table 1. All chemicals were acquired from Sigma Co. (Shanghai, China) unless otherwise noted. Information about the primers used in this study is available upon request. For genetic manipulation, *E. coli* and *S. oneidensis* strains were grown in lysogeny broth (LB; Difco, Detroit, MI) under aerobic conditions at 37 and 30°C, respectively. When needed, the growth medium was supplemented with 2,6-diaminopimelic acid at 0.3 mM, ampicillin at 50  $\mu$ g/ml, kanamycin at 50  $\mu$ g/ml, and gentamicin at 15  $\mu$ g/ml.

**H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> sensitivity.** The response of *S. oneidensis* to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was assessed as previously described (19). For growth analysis, overnight cultures from a single colony on LB plates were inoculated into fresh LB to an optical density at 600 nm (OD<sub>600</sub>) of ~0.01. The cultures were supplemented with chemicals as indicated in Results and the figure legends and monitored for growth by recording OD<sub>600</sub> values. To assess susceptibility to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, properly diluted mid-log-phase cultures (OD<sub>600</sub> of ~0.2) were spread onto fresh LB plates (200  $\mu$ l of culture, approximately 10<sup>6</sup> CFU). After a bacterial lawn had become visible, paper discs 6 mm in diameter containing 10  $\mu$ l of 5 M H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> were placed on plates, which were incubated for 16 h at 30°C before photography. To determine the effects of chemicals on the survival of *S. oneidensis*, mid-log-phase cultures were challenged and at various time intervals, samples were serially diluted and plated onto LB. Colonies were counted after overnight incubation at 30°C. All experiments were repeated at least three times.

**H<sub>2</sub>S detection.** To keep levels of H<sub>2</sub>S from both endogenous and exogenous sources in growing cultures relatively stable, cells for H<sub>2</sub>S-related physiological assays were grown under aerobic conditions on a shaker

at 50 rpm at 30°C. H<sub>2</sub>S production in *S. oneidensis* was monitored by a lead acetate detection method and the methylene blue formation assay (3, 15, 22).

**Mutagenesis and genetic complementation.** *S. oneidensis* in-frame deletion strains were constructed by the *att*-based fusion PCR method (23). In brief, two fragments flanking the target gene were generated by PCR with primers containing *attB* and gene-specific sequences and joined by a second round of PCR. The fused fragments were introduced into plasmid pHGM01 by site-specific recombination with BP Clonase (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The resulting vectors were transformed into *E. coli* WM3064 and then transferred into relevant *S. oneidensis* strains via conjugation. Mutagenesis constructs integrated into the chromosome were selected by resistance to gentamicin and confirmed by PCR. These transconjugants were grown in LB broth in the absence of NaCl and plated on LB supplemented with 10% sucrose. Gentamicin-sensitive and sucrose-resistant colonies were screened by PCR for deletion of the target gene. All mutations were verified by sequencing the mutated regions.

All mutants from previous studies were successfully complemented by a copy of the corresponding gene on plasmids pHG101 and pHG102 (Table 1) (24, 25). In this study, these complementation vectors were used with similar results.

**DNA damage assays.** Measurement of DNA damage was initially performed by quantitative PCR (qPCR) (26). Total genomic DNA was isolated from 10 ml of mid-log-phase cultures with a DNeasy Tissue kit (Qiagen) and quantified with NanoVue (GE Health Care). A fragment of ~10 kb close to the *ccm* (encodes the cytochrome *c* maturation system) region was selected for analysis. qPCR was performed with an ABI 7300 96-well qPCR system (Applied Biosystems) as described previously (27), and DNA damage was calculated by an established method (26). The amount of amplified product from the treated samples was normalized to that from an untreated control. DNA damage was also assessed by measurement of the rate of mutagenesis with the *thyA* (encodes thymidylate synthase) forward mutagenesis assay scoring resistance to trimethoprim (TMP) (28). TMP is a dihydrofolate reductase inhibitor that suppresses the growth of wild-type cells but not that of mutants lacking *thyA* as long as thymine is present in the medium. Mid-log-phase cultures were treated with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>S, or both and incubated for 20 min. After serial dilution, 250 μl was plated on LB containing 0.2 mg/ml thymine and 0.1 mg/ml TMP and incubated at 30°C.

**Enzyme assays.** Mid-log-phase cultures were centrifuged, and cell pellets were washed with 0.2 M phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, pH 7.2), resuspended in PBS to an OD<sub>600</sub> of ~0.5, and lysed by sonication. After centrifugation for 10 min at 10,000 rpm, the supernatants were used as crude enzyme extracts. H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentrations in aliquots of crude extracts were determined at various time points, as indicated in the relevant figures, by a method described previously (29). The same procedure was used to measure H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-degrading activity by extracts and by a commercial heme CAT from bovine liver (Sigma, St. Louis, MO). SOD and peroxidase (POD) activities were measured on the basis of pyrogallol autoxidation and guaiacol as the electron donor, respectively (29, 30). Quantitative analysis of cytochrome *c* oxidase (Cco) was carried out as described previously (31).

**Expression analyses.** β-Galactosidase assays were performed to determine gene expression with the integrative *lacZ* reporter plasmid pHGEI01 (32). In brief, the sequence of ~400 bp upstream of a gene of interest was amplified and placed immediately upstream of the full-length *E. coli lacZ* gene. The resulting vector was maintained in *E. coli* WM3064 and transferred to *S. oneidensis* after verification by sequencing. Log-phase cells (OD<sub>600</sub>, ~0.2) were harvested by centrifugation, washed with PBS, suspended in lysis buffer (0.25 M Tris HCl, 0.5% Triton X-100, pH 7.5) for 30 min, and assayed with *ortho*-nitrophenyl-β-D-galactopyranoside as described previously (24). Activity was determined by monitoring color development at 420 nm with a Synergy 2 Multi-Detection microplate reader (M200 Pro; Tecan) and reported in Miller units. In addition, gene

expression was determined by qRT-PCR, which was performed with an ABI 7300 96-well qRT-PCR system (Applied Biosystems) essentially as described above.

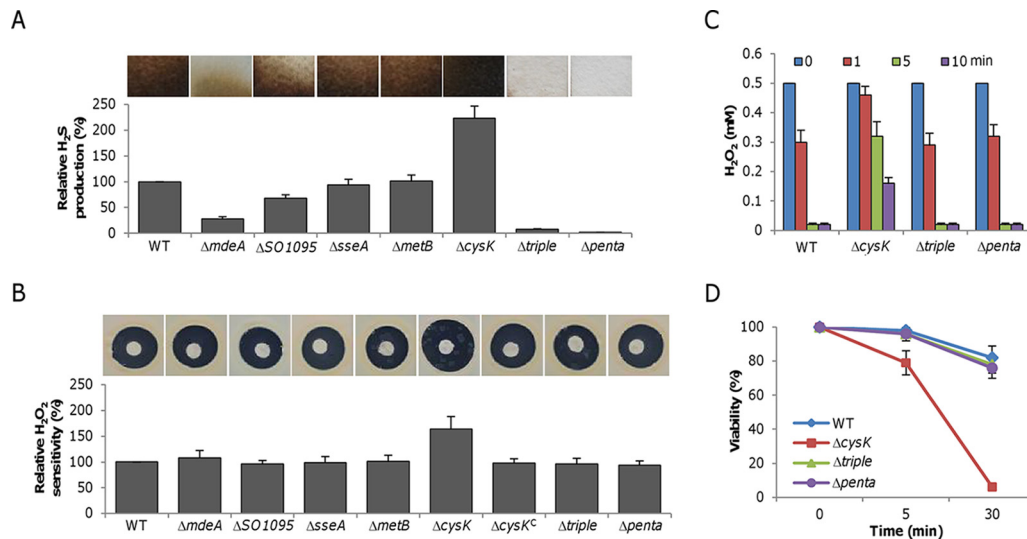
**Quantification of intracellular total and free iron species.** The total cellular iron content of 1-liter cultures was assayed by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) as described elsewhere (33). For sample preparation, log-phase cells (OD<sub>600</sub> of ~0.2) grown under the conditions indicated in Results or the figure legends were harvested by centrifugation, washed with PBS, and lysed by sonication. The supernatants were analyzed by ICP-MS on an iCAP (Thermo Scientific). The iron content was normalized to the total protein in the lysates. All data were evaluated with at least three independent biological experiments. Measurements of free iron species were performed with a calcein assay as described previously (21, 34).

**Other analyses.** Experimental values were subjected to statistical analyses and presented as the mean ± standard deviation (SD). Student's *t* test was performed for pairwise comparisons of groups.

## RESULTS

**Endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S has a negligible role in protecting cells from H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>.** *S. oneidensis* is able to produce H<sub>2</sub>S through both cysteine degradation and respiration of sulfur species (13–15). Under aerobic conditions, H<sub>2</sub>S produced through respiration is negligible, especially when the relevant sulfur species is not added (15). Thus, endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S results from the activity of the CSE homologues MdeA and SO1095, as well as from the 3MST homologue SseA, with MdeA accounting for >70% (15) (Fig. 1A). In addition, loss of CysK resulted in H<sub>2</sub>S hyperproduction. To test whether endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S plays a cytoprotective role against ROS in *S. oneidensis*, as reported in other bacteria (3), an H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> susceptibility assay was done (Fig. 1B). Surprisingly, the wild type and all of the mutant strains with an impaired ability to generate H<sub>2</sub>S exhibited similar levels of susceptibility to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. In contrast, the Δ*cysK* mutant, which overproduces H<sub>2</sub>S, displayed substantially increased sensitivity. The lower sensitivity was restored by *cysK* expression in *trans*, indicating that high levels of intracellular H<sub>2</sub>S sensitize *S. oneidensis* to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. To further confirm that the loss of H<sub>2</sub>S generation does not affect resistance to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, we constructed a strain lacking all three of the genes contributing to cysteine degradation (Δ*triple* mutant). This mutant, which produced very little H<sub>2</sub>S under aerobic conditions (Fig. 1A), had a level of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> resistance comparable to that of the wild type (Fig. 1B). Moreover, additional removal of the *psrA* and *sirA* genes (Δ*penta* mutant), which completely eliminated the ability to produce H<sub>2</sub>S (Fig. 1A), did not compromise H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> resistance (Fig. 1B).

We also determined the abilities of the Δ*cysK*, Δ*triple*, and Δ*penta* mutant strains to degrade H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and their viability after exposure to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Cells in the early stationary phase (4 h after the end of exponential growth), when endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S levels were relatively stable (see Fig. S1 in the supplemental material), were collected for the two assays. Loss of endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S production did not significantly compromise the ability to scavenge H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 2C). However, the Δ*cysK* mutant strain, consistent with its hypersensitivity to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, degraded H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> at a significantly lower rate. With respect to survival, the Δ*triple* and Δ*penta* mutant strains resembled the wild type whereas the Δ*cysK* mutant strain was substantially impaired (Fig. 1D). Overall, these data demonstrate that endogenously generated H<sub>2</sub>S in *S. oneidensis* provides little protection from exogenous H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> damage; rather, H<sub>2</sub>S at high concentrations negatively regulates the ability to cope with the stress.

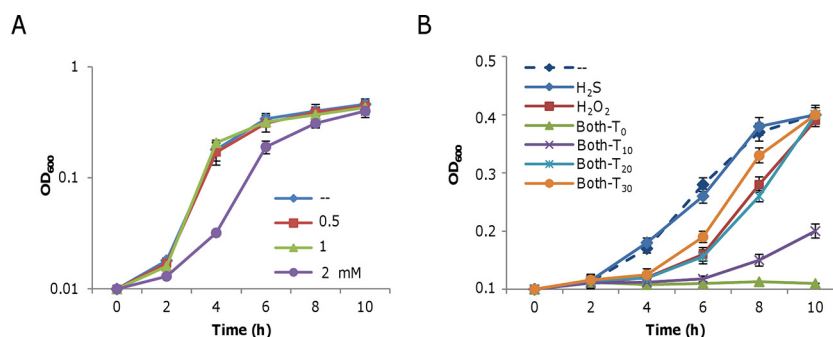


**FIG 1** Endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S does not protect bacteria against H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. (A) H<sub>2</sub>S production in various *S. oneidensis* strains. Lead acetate-soaked paper strips show a brown or black PbS stain as a result of reaction with H<sub>2</sub>S under aerobic conditions. The relative H<sub>2</sub>S levels shown were obtained by normalization to the average level of the wild type (WT), which was set to 100%. The  $\Delta triple$  ( $\Delta mdeA \Delta SO1095 \Delta sseA$ ) mutant strain lacks the ability to produce H<sub>2</sub>S via cysteine metabolism, while the  $\Delta penta$  mutant strain carries additional deletions in the *psrA* and *sirA* genes, thus removing the ability to produce H<sub>2</sub>S through respiration. (B) H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> sensitivity assay. Paper disks of 6 mm loaded with 10  $\mu$ l of 5 M H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> were placed on a bacterial lawn and photographed after 16 h at 30°C. The relative H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> susceptibilities shown were obtained by normalization to the average level of the wild type, which was set to 100%. The  $\Delta cysK^C$  mutant is a complemented mutant carrying a copy of the *cysK* gene integrated into the chromosome and produces H<sub>2</sub>S like the wild type. (C) H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> consumption assay. H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> at 0.5 mM was added to mid-log-phase cultures (OD<sub>600</sub> of ~0.2, the same afterward), and the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> remaining at the time points indicated was measured. (D) Survival assay. One millimolar H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was added to mid-log-phase cultures. After 5 and 30 min, samples were diluted and plated on LB. Colony counting was done after 24 h. For panels A and B, experiments were performed five times and representative results are shown. In panels B and D, data are reported as the mean  $\pm$  SD ( $n = 4$ ).

**The impact of H<sub>2</sub>S on H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-treated cells is temporally dependent.** The unexpected findings obtained with H<sub>2</sub>S-deficient and -overproducing mutants raise questions about the roles that H<sub>2</sub>S plays in bacteria, since it is apparently not simply acting as a protective molecule. Given that the  $\Delta triple$  and  $\Delta penta$  mutant strains responded the same way, the  $\Delta penta$  mutant strain was used as the H<sub>2</sub>S-deficient strain. Moreover, comparable results were obtained in all subsequent experiments with the wild-type and  $\Delta penta$  mutant strains, and H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations in mutant cultures can be accurately controlled with NaHS as the source of exogenous H<sub>2</sub>S. For clarity, we present data from the H<sub>2</sub>S-deficient strain rather than the wild type unless otherwise noted. The impact of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> on the growth and viability of *S. oneidensis* has been extensively studied recently, showing that it is able to inhibit

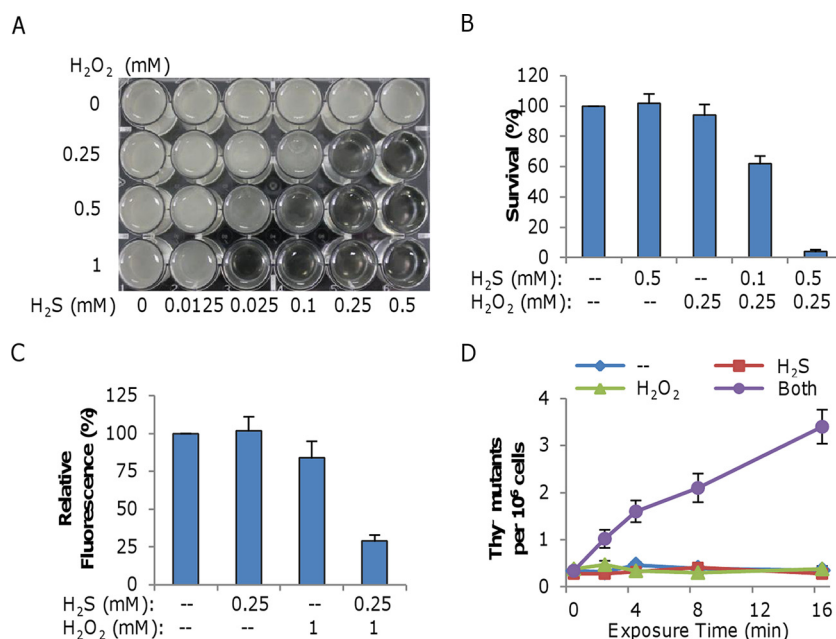
growth even at concentrations as low as 100  $\mu$ M, although the MIC is  $\sim$ 1.25 mM (19). At physiological pH, most H<sub>2</sub>S exists as HS<sup>-</sup> (bisulfide ion) and there are only small amounts of H<sub>2</sub>S and S<sup>2-</sup>. It should be noted that we mention only H<sub>2</sub>S for simplicity, but all of the ionic forms are included. Unlike H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>S did not noticeably inhibit the growth of *S. oneidensis* at concentrations of up to 1 mM (Fig. 2A).

We then assessed the impact of H<sub>2</sub>S on growth inhibition by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. H<sub>2</sub>S and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> were added to mid-log-phase cultures (OD<sub>600</sub> of  $\sim$ 0.2) at the same and different times, and the growth of the cultures was monitored. Strikingly, in the presence of 0.1 mM H<sub>2</sub>S, the timing of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> addition was found to be important for eliciting a detectable effect on growth (Fig. 2B). When both compounds were added simultaneously ( $T_0$ ), H<sub>2</sub>S significantly in-



**FIG 2** Effects of H<sub>2</sub>S, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, and both together on the growth of the *S. oneidensis*  $\Delta penta$  mutant. Mid-log-phase cultures were inoculated into LB medium containing the chemicals indicated and incubated statically at 30°C in 24-well plates. (A) Effect of H<sub>2</sub>S (from NaHS) on growth. (B) Effects of 0.1 mM H<sub>2</sub>S, 1 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, and both on the growth of the  $\Delta penta$  mutant strain.  $T_0$ ,  $T_{10}$ ,  $T_{20}$ , and  $T_{30}$  represent the addition of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> at the same time as H<sub>2</sub>S and 10, 20, and 30 min later, respectively. In both panels A and B, -- represents the LB control. Data are reported as the mean  $\pm$  SD ( $n = 4$ ).





**FIG 3** H<sub>2</sub>S promotes H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> killing when added promptly after H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. (A) Synergistic inhibition of *S. oneidensis* growth by H<sub>2</sub>S and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> when added at the same time. Cells at an OD<sub>600</sub> of ~0.01 were inoculated into LB in 24-well plates containing H<sub>2</sub>S, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, or both at the concentrations indicated and incubated statically at 30°C. The plates were photographed 24 h after inoculation. Experiments were performed five times, and similar results were obtained. (B) Mid-log-phase cells (OD<sub>600</sub> of ~0.2) were treated for 20 min with H<sub>2</sub>S, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, or both at the concentrations indicated. The treated cultures were diluted, plated on LB, and incubated at 30°C. Survival was calculated as the ratio of the number of colonies in the treated cultures to that in the untreated control. Only plates containing 100 to 300 colonies were counted. (C) H<sub>2</sub>S-H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment generates extensive DNA damage, as determined by qPCR. Mid-log-phase cells were treated with 0.25 mM H<sub>2</sub>S, 1.0 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, or both. Total genomic DNA was extracted, and qPCR was performed with equivalent amounts of template DNA. The relative fluorescence was normalized to that of the untreated control. Data are reported as the mean ± SD (*n* = 4). (D) H<sub>2</sub>S-H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment generates extensive DNA damage, as determined by *thyA* mutation analysis. Mid-log-phase cells grown in LB were diluted 100-fold with fresh LB (--) or with LB containing 0.1 mM H<sub>2</sub>S, 0.25 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, or both. At each time point, CAT was added to degrade H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, and both total viability and the frequency of *thyA* mutants were determined. Data are reported as the mean ± SD (*n* = 4).

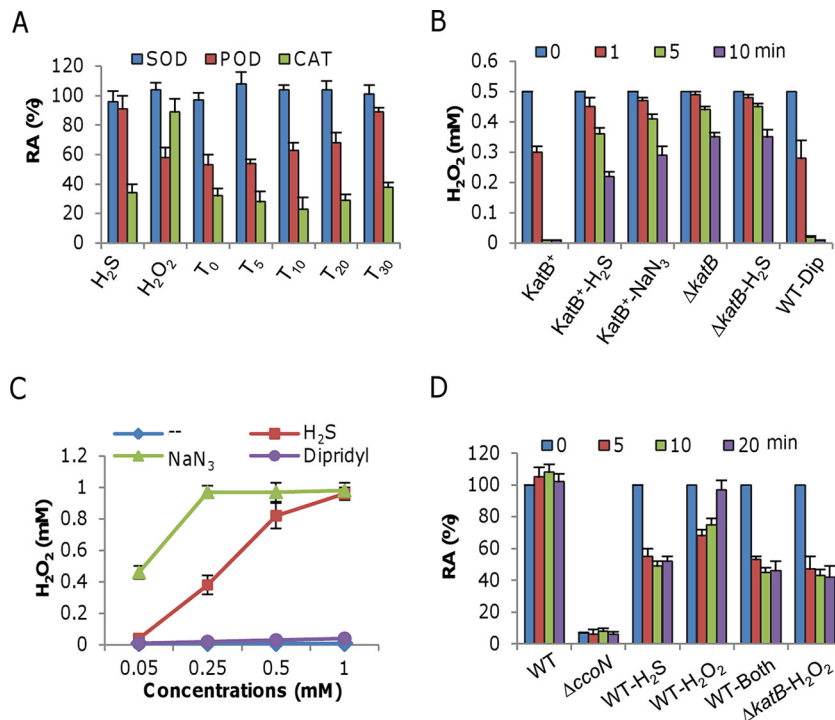
creased the growth-inhibiting effects of 1 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. In contrast, when H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was added 30 min after H<sub>2</sub>S (*T*<sub>30</sub>), its effect on growth was protective. The balancing point was about 20 min after the addition of H<sub>2</sub>S, at which time growth was comparable to that of cultures containing only H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Before 20 min, the general trend was that the later the addition of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, the lower the growth inhibition. These data indicate two distinct time-dependent effects of H<sub>2</sub>S on the action of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in *S. oneidensis*.

**H<sub>2</sub>S promotes H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> killing when added promptly after the addition of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>.** To assess whether H<sub>2</sub>S aggravates growth inhibition by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> when added promptly, we measured growth in the presence of various concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>S or H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 3A). Similar levels of inhibition could be observed at different combinations; the higher the level of H<sub>2</sub>S, the lower the level of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. For instance, in the presence of 0.025 mM H<sub>2</sub>S and 1 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, growth was completely prevented and a similar level of inhibition was achieved with 0.25 mM H<sub>2</sub>S and 0.25 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. To determine whether growth inhibition by the simultaneous addition of H<sub>2</sub>S and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was due to the bactericidal effect of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, we examined the survival of treated cells. Plating assays showed that cells were readily killed by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S (Fig. 3B). After treatment for 20 min, a combination of 0.5 mM H<sub>2</sub>S and 0.25 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> reduced the proportion of viable cells to only ~4%, whereas killing by either 0.25 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> alone or by 1 mM H<sub>2</sub>S alone was insignificant. These results show that H<sub>2</sub>S *per se* is not bactericidal but that it facilitates killing by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>.

In general, DNA damage is the most lethal impact of oxidative

stress on viability (35). To test this, chromosomal DNA damage was measured by qPCR, which detects any lesions or strand breaks that block the progression of the PCR DNA polymerase and result in fewer PCR products than with intact DNA (36). A fragment of ~10 kb near the *ccm* gene (encodes the cytochrome *c* maturation system) was used for analysis because this PCR product can be reliably obtained (37). We found that the yield of full-length PCR fragments from the treated samples decreased by approximately 3-fold in comparison to that from the untreated control (Fig. 3C). We also measured H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced mutagenesis in cells challenged with a combination of 0.1 mM H<sub>2</sub>S and 0.25 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, a condition where a majority of the cells are not killed but mutations could accrue. The number of *thyA* mutants increased 7-fold in H<sub>2</sub>S-H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-treated cells, whereas neither molecule alone was mutagenic compared to the control (Fig. 3D). On the basis of these results, we conclude that H<sub>2</sub>S-H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-treated cells suffer gross DNA damage.

**Reduced CAT activity underlies H<sub>2</sub>S-induced enhancement of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> killing.** Since H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> does not oxidize DNA directly, the observed DNA damage most likely results from the product of the Fenton reaction (35), in which H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> reacts with unincorporated iron to produce hydroxyl radicals, extremely strong oxidizing agents that can react with virtually all organic molecules (35). As H<sub>2</sub>S can bind ferric or ferrous iron to form insoluble FeS or Fe<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>, it is conceivable that the levels of unincorporated iron would not increase. It is possible, therefore, that H<sub>2</sub>S treatment blocks the degradation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and/or other ROS agents, as indicated by the



**FIG 4** Effects of H<sub>2</sub>S, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, and both on selected heme-containing enzymes. (A) Mid-log-phase cells were harvested, washed, and sonicated for the preparation of crude enzyme extracts. H<sub>2</sub>S at 0.25 mM, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> at 0.5 mM, or the two together were added to crude enzyme extracts at the times indicated, and SOD, POD, and CAT activities were measured. Subscript numbers are the times (in minutes) when H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was added after the addition of H<sub>2</sub>S. The activities of the treated samples were normalized to the activity of the untreated control and are reported as relative activities (RA). Importantly, the activities of all three enzymes from untreated samples were found to be stable for 30 min. (B) Crude enzyme extracts prepared as described for panel A were treated with the reagents indicated and assayed for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> degradation. Concentrations: H<sub>2</sub>S, 0.25 mM; NaN<sub>3</sub>, 0.1 mM; dipyridyl (Dip), 0.5 mM. WT, wild type. (C) Two thousand five hundred units of bovine liver CAT was treated with the chemicals indicated at various concentrations for 5 min and then assayed for the ability to degrade 1 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> at 37°C compared to the control (--). After 5 min, the remaining H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentrations were measured. (D) Cco assay. Crude enzyme extracts prepared as described for panel A were treated with the reagents indicated. The  $\Delta$ ccoN mutant strain, lacking the essential catalytic subunit of the *cbb*<sub>3</sub> oxidase, was used as a negative control, and the  $\Delta$ katB mutant strain was also included for reference. All chemicals were added at the same time. Concentrations: H<sub>2</sub>S, 0.25 mM; H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, 0.5 mM. In all panels, data are reported as the mean  $\pm$  SD ( $n = 4$ ).

compromised H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-scavenging capacity of the *cysK* mutant (Fig. 1B). *S. oneidensis* has a full set of ROS-scavenging enzymes, including CAT, POD, and SOD (19, 20). To determine whether H<sub>2</sub>S affects the activities of these enzymes, exponentially growing cells (OD<sub>600</sub> of ~0.2) were harvested to prepare crude enzyme extracts as described in Materials and Methods. The extracts were treated with H<sub>2</sub>S and/or H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and assayed 5 min later (Fig. 4A). Consistent with previous observations (19), the SOD activities were relatively constant, implying a negligible role for SOD in the enhanced killing seen. In contrast, the activities of POD and CAT were inhibited by H<sub>2</sub>S, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, or both, but there were substantial differences. H<sub>2</sub>S alone had an insignificant effect on POD activity, whereas H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in the presence or absence of H<sub>2</sub>S caused a reduction to about 60% of the wild-type level. These data indicate that neither SOD nor POD was the target of H<sub>2</sub>S.

In the case of CAT, the inhibitory effect of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was rather minor but the addition of H<sub>2</sub>S resulted in a drastic reduction of activity (Fig. 4A). Given that the CAT KatB is the predominant enzyme for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> degradation in *S. oneidensis* (19), we hypothesized that the observed enhanced killing by the combination of H<sub>2</sub>S and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> may be due to the reduced activity of KatB, thus preventing removal of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. This hypothesis was supported by the finding that a *katB* mutant was unable to respond to H<sub>2</sub>S addition with respect to its ability to degrade H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 4B). To

confirm this, we repeated the experiment with the heme-binding agent sodium azide (NaN<sub>3</sub>), which specifically inhibits heme-containing CAT (38). As shown in Fig. 4B, the presence of NaN<sub>3</sub> resulted in extensive reduction of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> degradation, supporting evidence that KatB is directly inhibited by H<sub>2</sub>S. H<sub>2</sub>S is an iron-sequestering agent; thus, it is possible that this property plays a role in the inactivation of KatB. To test this, 0.5 mM dipyridyl, a specific iron-chelating agent, was added to the extracts but H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> degradation was hardly affected, suggesting that it is unlikely that H<sub>2</sub>S inactivates KatB through its interaction with unincorporated iron species. As a further confirmation, we examined the effects of H<sub>2</sub>S, NaN<sub>3</sub>, and dipyridyl on commercially available heme CAT from bovine liver. Not surprisingly, we found that the activity was drastically inhibited by either H<sub>2</sub>S or NaN<sub>3</sub> but not by dipyridyl (Fig. 4C). NaN<sub>3</sub> appears to be a stronger inhibitor than H<sub>2</sub>S. Moreover, the addition of dipyridyl and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> did not elicit enhanced inhibition of growth (see Fig. S2 in the supplemental material), supporting the *in vivo* evidence that H<sub>2</sub>S negatively regulates the activity of heme-containing CAT but this activity is independent of its iron-sequestering ability.

To test whether H<sub>2</sub>S inhibits other heme-containing proteins, we examined its effect on the *cbb*<sub>3</sub> oxidase. This oxidase is composed of at least three subunits, CcoN, CcoP, and CcoO, and is the primary system for respiration of oxygen and the only enzyme that

has Cco activity (39, 40). As shown in Fig. 4D, the activity of the *cbb<sub>3</sub>* oxidase was inhibited by 0.25 mM H<sub>2</sub>S to approximately 55% of the untreated level after a 5-min treatment. Although H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was also able to inhibit the *cbb<sub>3</sub>* oxidase, the effect was rather modest, with approximately 65% of the activity remaining in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> at the growth-inhibitory concentration of 1.25 mM (19). Besides, unlike the activity of the enzyme in the H<sub>2</sub>S-treated samples, that in H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-treated samples was restored to the untreated level 20 min after the addition, most likely because of the removal of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. When the experiment was repeated with the *katB* mutant strain, the activity of the *cbb<sub>3</sub>* oxidase was no longer recoverable. Furthermore, the combination of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (1.25 mM) and H<sub>2</sub>S (0.25 mM) failed to further reduce this activity. These data show that H<sub>2</sub>S is effective in negatively regulating the activity of the two heme-containing proteins KatB and *cbb<sub>3</sub>* oxidase.

**H<sub>2</sub>S induces the OxyR-mediated stress response in *S. oneidensis*.** In contrast to facilitating killing by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>S improves the growth of *S. oneidensis* under H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> stress conditions if pre-treatment for 20 min or longer is applied (Fig. 2B), indicating a protective role, as observed in four other bacterial species (3). It is proposed that H<sub>2</sub>S, as for NO, confers resistance to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced oxidative stress by (i) suppressing the damaging Fenton reaction and (ii) improving the antioxidant capacity of bacterial cells involving the major ROS scavengers CAT, POD, and SOD (3, 41). These two mechanisms are in accord with the OxyR-mediated stress response, suggesting that the cytoprotective role of these molecules relies on the OxyR system. To test whether this is true for *S. oneidensis*, we examined the amounts of ROS-scavenging enzymes after a 30-min treatment with H<sub>2</sub>S by in-gel staining analysis of proteins separated by native PAGE. As previously reported (19), KatB, whose expression is directly repressed by OxyR, was the only CAT visible in the staining analysis (Fig. 5A). As expected, production of KatB was substantially increased in samples treated with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> or in an *oxyR* mutant. H<sub>2</sub>S, although less effective, was also able to induce KatB production. Noticeable induction was observed with H<sub>2</sub>S at 0.25 mM, and at higher concentrations (0.5 to 2 mM), induction was more robust.

The observation that H<sub>2</sub>S alone induces enhanced production of KatB, similar to that from treatment with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, supports the idea that the OxyR system mediates the cytoprotection of H<sub>2</sub>S. To confirm this possibility, we examined the expression of three other genes (*ahpC*, *dps*, and *katG1*) of the OxyR regulon, as well as the *katB* gene, in samples treated with H<sub>2</sub>S by using an integrative *lacZ* reporter system. While the *ahpC* and *katG1* genes (encode alkyl-hydroperoxide reductase and CAT KatG1, respectively) are positively regulated by OxyR, the *dps* gene, which encodes an iron storage protein, is repressed by OxyR, as is the *katB* gene (19). As shown in Fig. 5B, in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S or H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, the β-galactosidase activities driven by promoters of the test genes were upregulated in the *oxyR*<sup>+</sup> background but no longer responsive to either compound in the absence of OxyR. A similar trend was observed by qRT-PCR (see Fig. S3 in the supplemental material). In summary, these data indicate that H<sub>2</sub>S, when added after 10 min, enhanced resistance to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> by activating OxyR.

**Iron sequestration likely triggers activation of OxyR.** Because iron is both essential and potentially harmful (42), bacteria have evolved various mechanisms to ensure adequate supplies and at the same time tight restriction of free-iron levels to protect against iron-induced toxicity. As H<sub>2</sub>S is an iron-sequestering agent, we first tested whether this feature is associated with the

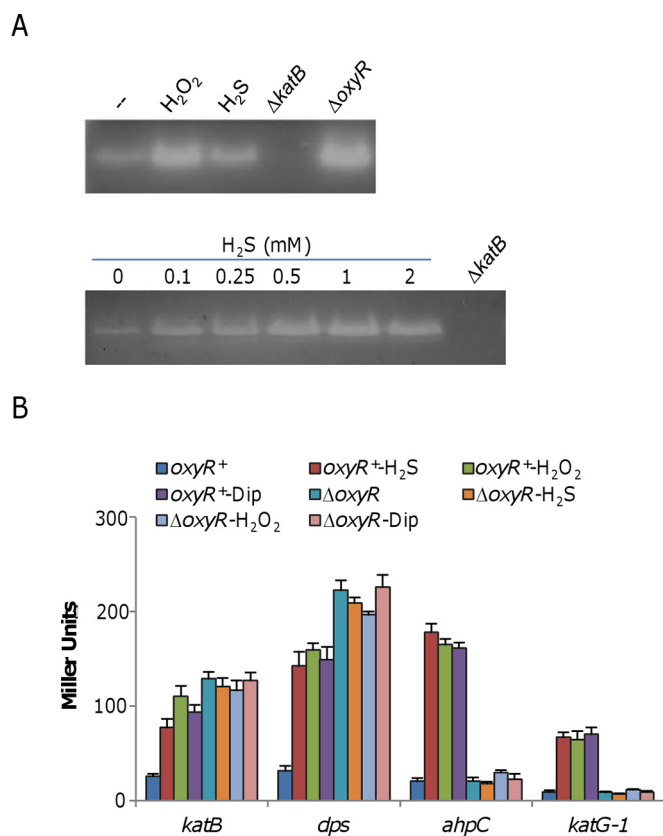
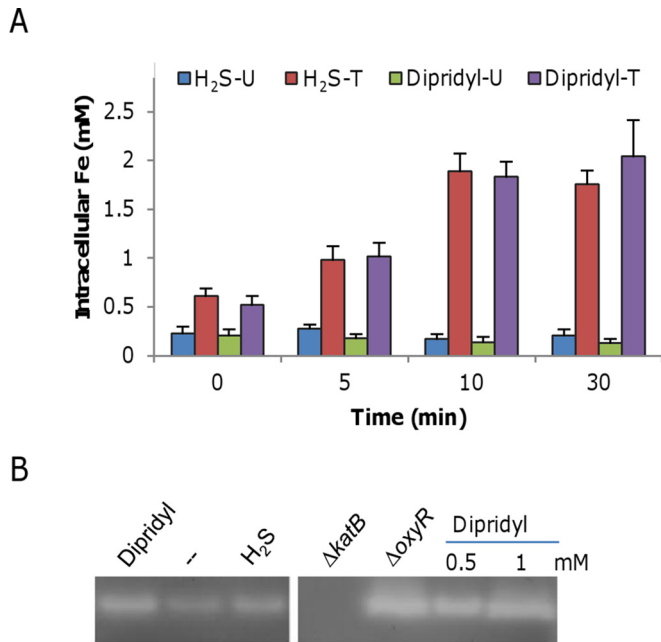


FIG 5 H<sub>2</sub>S induces the OxyR-mediated stress response. (A) CAT staining analysis. Cells were harvested just prior to (-) and 30 min after the addition of 0.25 mM H<sub>2</sub>S or 0.1 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (top). Protein samples of ~10 μg from the cell lysates indicated were separated by native PAGE and stained for CAT activity. The Δ*katB* and Δ*oxyR* mutant strains (constitutive high-level expression) were used as negative and positive controls. In the analysis shown at the bottom, various concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>S were examined for the ability to induce expression of the *katB* gene. (B) Impact of H<sub>2</sub>S on the expression of four members of the OxyR regulon. β-Galactosidase assays were carried out with *lacZ* reporter vectors. Cells grown to mid-log phase were treated with the chemicals indicated for 30 min and then harvested for the assays. Concentrations: H<sub>2</sub>S, 0.25 mM; H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, 0.2 mM; dipyrindyl (Dip), 0.25 mM. β-Galactosidase activities are reported as the mean ± SD (*n* = 4). Similar results were obtained by qRT-PCR assay (see Fig. S3 in the supplemental material).

activation of OxyR. The intracellular levels of total and unincorporated iron after the addition of H<sub>2</sub>S were measured (Fig. 6A). Surprisingly, the addition of H<sub>2</sub>S had a minor effect on the concentrations of unincorporated iron but substantially increased the amounts of total iron. This result implies that H<sub>2</sub>S may cause an iron influx, presumably triggered by the decreased intracellular levels of free iron immediately after its addition. If this were the case, then the addition of dipyrindyl should produce a similar result. Indeed, total intracellular iron levels were elevated in the presence of 0.5 mM dipyrindyl, although unincorporated iron was diminished to some extent, implying that dipyrindyl may be able to activate OxyR, although it differs from H<sub>2</sub>S in its inability to promote H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> killing when added simultaneously with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, as shown in Fig. 4. To test this, we measured KatB activity by in-gel staining and found that it was increased after the addition of dipyrindyl (Fig. 6B). Furthermore, the expression pattern of four OxyR-regulated genes in cells treated with dipyrindyl resembled that found after H<sub>2</sub>S treatment (Fig. 6B). These data, collectively,



**FIG 6** H<sub>2</sub>S induces the OxyR-mediated stress response. (A) Intracellular iron levels induced by H<sub>2</sub>S. One-liter cultures grown to mid-log phase (OD<sub>600</sub> of ~0.2) were harvested just before (0 min) and 5, 10, and 30 min after the addition of 0.25 mM H<sub>2</sub>S or 0.2 mM dipyridyl, and the unincorporated (U) and total (T) intracellular iron concentrations were measured. The experiments were performed at least three times. Error bars show standard deviations. (B) CAT staining analysis. Cells were harvested 30 min after the addition of 0.25 mM H<sub>2</sub>S or 0.2 mM dipyridyl along with the untreated control (--). Ten-microgram samples of protein from the cell lysates indicated were separated by native PAGE and stained for CAT activity. The  $\Delta katB$  and  $\Delta oxyR$  mutant strains (constitutive high-level expression) were used as negative and positive controls. In the right panel, two higher concentrations of dipyridyl were tested for enhanced induction of the *katB* gene. The data are representative of three independent experiments.

suggest that iron sequestration is the likely mechanism by which H<sub>2</sub>S activates the OxyR-mediated cellular response to oxidative stress.

## DISCUSSION

Previous studies have demonstrated that H<sub>2</sub>S may be either detrimental or beneficial to bacterial cells (3, 7, 8). Growth inhibition is attributed to the abilities of H<sub>2</sub>S to damage DNA and denature proteins. In contrast, a beneficial role played by H<sub>2</sub>S is its ability to combat oxidative stress. However, there are reports that, in some organisms, H<sub>2</sub>S stimulates rather than inhibits ROS production (4, 5, 43). The basis of these differences has not been resolved. One possible explanation is that species inhabiting various niches may evolve different mechanisms for responding to H<sub>2</sub>S, given the unparalleled diversity of all physiological aspects of living organisms. But the presence of a general strategy is equally possible. Here, we present evidence that H<sub>2</sub>S is indeed able to perform these contrasting functions, depending upon the time of addition.

In this study, endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S was found to be dispensable for protecting *S. oneidensis* cells from oxidative stress, in contrast to findings recently reported (3). Conceivably, the production of H<sub>2</sub>S from metabolic processes is continuous and steady but unable to reach levels sufficiently high to trigger a cellular response. This possibility is supported by the finding that mutation of *cysK*,

resulting in substantially enhanced production of H<sub>2</sub>S, sensitizes cells to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Using exogenous H<sub>2</sub>S, we demonstrated that it promotes H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> killing by specifically damaging heme-containing proteins, especially the CAT KatB, even though it is able to induce the protective OxyR regulon, as described in other bacterial species (3). Such an inhibitory effect on heme-containing proteins such as Cco (mitochondrial *aa<sub>3</sub>* type), myoglobin, and hemoglobin by H<sub>2</sub>S is well documented in eukaryotes (44–46). In general, the reaction between these proteins and H<sub>2</sub>S induced modification of the heme component, reversibly inhibiting activity (46, 47). Sulfheme species, resulting from the binding of H<sub>2</sub>S, are reduced because of this interaction (48). Intriguingly, although the inhibitory effect of H<sub>2</sub>S on mitochondrial Cco was first reported more than 80 years ago, the cellular targets of H<sub>2</sub>S are still largely restricted to proteins implicated in oxygen transport and consumption (46). Results presented here clearly show that CATs, at least those from *S. oneidensis* and bovine liver, and cytochrome *cbb<sub>3</sub>* oxidase are inactivated by H<sub>2</sub>S, expanding the repertoire of H<sub>2</sub>S targets. It is very likely that there are more H<sub>2</sub>S targets, based on the very large pool of heme-containing proteins. Nevertheless, with respect to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> killing, CAT is the most crucial target of H<sub>2</sub>S because its loss largely disables the cell's ability to degrade H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Furthermore, it should be noted that the effect of H<sub>2</sub>S on different heme-containing proteins may vary considerably, given that amino acid residues near the heme play an essential role in sulfheme formation (46).

In contrast to the inhibitory effect, activation of OxyR by H<sub>2</sub>S appears to rely on its iron-sequestering capability, as a similar result was obtained with the iron-chelating agent dipyridyl. Iron- and heme-containing proteins, mononuclear iron proteins in particular, are primary targets of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (49, 50). Some bacteria, such as *E. coli*, are able to replace the iron atom of these enzymes with manganese to maintain activity in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (51, 52). However, in *S. oneidensis*, this protective mechanism is likely to be heavily compromised because of the extremely low Mn/Fe ratio (19, 53). More importantly, *S. oneidensis* lacks an H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-inducible manganese transporter, preventing the accelerated import of Mn for protection during oxidative stress. As a result, free iron is abundant for the Fenton reaction when challenged by exogenous H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. To effectively prevent the formation of lethal hydroxyl radicals, *S. oneidensis* activates OxyR, resulting in the rapid removal of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and reduction of intracellular unincorporated iron concentrations. For the former, the strategy is to produce multiple scavenging enzymes, with KatB dominating. For the latter, the situation is rather complicated, however, because there are a large number of iron- and heme-containing proteins in *S. oneidensis* (such as up to 42 *c*-type cytochromes, while *E. coli* has 5 to 7), thus requiring relatively high levels of iron for its normal physiological activities (54, 55).

To control intracellular free-iron levels under stress conditions, the iron-sequestering ferritin Dps is extensively induced upon the activation of OxyR (19). In addition, *S. oneidensis* limits its iron uptake rate to prevent a sudden increase, as evidenced by its accumulation of 20 times less iron than by *E. coli* in a 24-h period (53). It is therefore conceivable that although addition of H<sub>2</sub>S, as well as dipyridyl, reduces levels of free iron to some extent and thus transiently impedes growth, the process overall triggers an iron influx, which likely serves as a signal for activation of OxyR. This hypothesis gains support from the finding that the total iron concentration is significantly elevated but the amounts



of free iron are rather constant. Presumably, most of the imported free iron is bound to Dps under oxidative stress conditions. This protective effect of H<sub>2</sub>S as an iron-sequestering agent seems to coincide with that of superoxide (56). While superoxide can lead to cellular damage and death, its accumulation induces the protective SoxRS and MarRAB regulons (57). Thus, pretreatment with low-to-moderate concentrations of superoxide provides cells a greater ability to cope with subsequent more severe stress and, more importantly, prevents cells from entering programmed cell death (56).

*Shewanella* bacteria thrive in redox-stratified environments where ROS are likely to form (9) and microbes with high resistance to ROS are presumably favored. However, *S. oneidensis* is very susceptible to ROS, in comparison to *E. coli* (19, 53, 58). We do not yet know the reason for this difference, but it may be associated with novel properties of this species. We have previously shown that *S. oneidensis* prefers insoluble to soluble electron acceptors for respiration, such as Fe (III) oxide versus oxygen, thus preventing endogenous generation of ROS from autoxidation of components of the respiratory chain (35, 59). In addition, unlike other organisms containing cytochrome *caa*<sub>3</sub>-type and *ccb*<sub>3</sub>-type oxidases, where the low-affinity (*caa*<sub>3</sub>-type) oxidase plays a dominant role under high-oxygen conditions and the *ccb*<sub>3</sub> oxidase is induced only at low O<sub>2</sub> concentrations, *S. oneidensis* utilizes the *ccb*<sub>3</sub>-type oxidase under both high- and low-oxygen conditions and does not express the *caa*<sub>3</sub> oxidase (39, 40). As respiration of oxygen by the *ccb*<sub>3</sub> oxidase is relatively slow, less ROS would be generated. Moreover, H<sub>2</sub>S that is produced endogenously may play a beneficial role. The elevated sensitivity to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is observed only in the H<sub>2</sub>S-hyperproducing ( $\Delta$ *cysK* mutant) strain, implying that H<sub>2</sub>S generated in the wild type is not sufficient to elicit a detrimental response. Hence, H<sub>2</sub>S may simply act as an agent to help maintain a relatively reduced environment for cells, either inside or outside in proximity.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (31270097, 41476105), the Major State Basic Research Development Program (973 Program: 2010CB833803), and the Doctoral Fund of the Ministry of Education of China (20130101110142).

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