A di-iron protein recruited as an Fe[II] and oxygen sensor for bacterial chemotaxis functions by stabilizing an iron-peroxy species

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Many bacteria contain cytoplasmic chemoreceptors that lack sensor domains. Here, we demonstrate that such cytoplasmic receptors found in 8 different bacterial and archaeal phyla genetically couple to metalloproteins related to β-lactamases and nitric oxide reductases. We show that this oxygen-binding di-iron protein (ODP) acts as a sensor for chemotactic responses to both iron and oxygen in the human pathogen Treponema denticola (Td). The ODP di-iron site binds oxygen at high affinity to reversibly form an unusually stable μ-peroxo adduct. Crystal structures of ODP from Td and the thermoophile Thermotoga maritima (Tm) in the Fe[III]-O22−, Zn[II], and apo states display differences in subunit association, conformation, and metal coordination that indicate potential mechanisms for sensing. In reconstituted systems, iron-peroxy ODP destabilizes the phosphorylated form of the receptor-coupled histidine kinase CheA, thereby providing a biochemical link between oxygen sensing and chemotaxis in diverse prokaryotes, including anaerobes of ancient origin.

Significance

We report that a previously uncharacterized protein genetically associated with cytoplasmic chemoreceptors of undefined function senses both iron and oxygen to mediate chemotaxis. Spectroscopic and crystallographic studies reveal an unusual di-iron center with remarkable oxygen-binding properties in this oxygen-binding di-iron protein (ODP). Moreover, the oxygen-bound state of ODP facilitates phosphate release from the histidine kinase CheA. This study defines a class of oxygen sensors and reveals functions for cytoplasmic chemoreceptors in diverse phyla of bacteria and archaea that include human pathogens and distantly related extremophiles. The presence of these systems in anaerobic bacteria of deep phylogeny suggests that they may represent early adaptations to oxic environments.


The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Data deposition: The atomic coordinates and structure factors have been deposited in the Protein Data Bank, www.pdb.org (PDB ID codes 6R9N, 6QWO, 6QNM, and 6QR2).

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encode for a protein that contains a signal transduction domain (Fig. 1 and SI Appendix, Fig. S1 and Dataset S1). A conserved metal-binding site in FDPs and ODPs is strikingly similar, but different from the rest of the superfamily (SI Appendix, Fig. S1 and Dataset S2). Collectively, the results of genomic and protein sequence analyses suggest that ODPs are di-iron–binding domains recruited to signal transduction pathways in bacteria and archaea.

**ODP Coevoles with Specific Cytoplasmic Chemoreceptors.** Database searches and genome and protein sequence analyses revealed that all closely related orthologs of TM13 that were identified in 8 bacterial and archaeal phyla come from genomes that also encode closely related orthologs of the TM14 chemoreceptor (SI Appendix, Fig. S2 and Dataset S1). In most cases, genes encoding ODP and the chemoreceptor were predicted to form a 2-gene operon (Dataset S1). Topology analysis of corresponding maximum-likelihood phylogenetic trees (SI Appendix, Fig. S2) provided further strong support for coevolution of ODP and the soluble chemoreceptor, thus suggesting that ODP might serve as input for the chemotaxis pathway and prompting its further analysis.

**ODP Binds Iron.** Both Tm ODP and Td ODP were expressed in and purified from *Escherichia coli* (Ec). Td ODP is purple in color and has a visible absorbance spectrum characteristic of an Fe(III)₂-O₂⁻ species (8) (Fig. 2A). Metal analysis by inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES) reveals that the protein binds iron in an ~2:1 iron/subunit ratio, with no other metals being found in significant abundance (SI Appendix, Fig. S3A). Unlike Td ODP, Tm ODP is colorless after purification, and ICP-AES detected no bound metal ions. Lack of metal incorporation by recombinant Tm ODP is not surprising because Tm ODP originates from an extremophile (*Tm* grows at 90 °C, 2 atm), and thus may not display native behavior at room temperature (9).

Tm ODP was reconstituted with iron and zinc ions, and thermal melts were used to assess the relative extent of protein stabilization. Although Zn[II] and Fe[III] increase the melting temperature of the apo protein, Tm ODP is most stable upon reconstitution with Fe[II] (SI Appendix, Fig. S3B). Furthermore, oxidation of the Fe[II]-reconstituted Tm protein produces a color and absorbance spectrum similar to that of as-purified Td ODP (SI Appendix, Fig. S3E).

**The ODP Oligomeric State Depends on Iron.** Multangle light scattering (MALS) indicates that Td ODP forms a dimer in solution when the iron-peroxo adduct is present (60 kDa). However, the average molecular weight of the protein increases when the iron is removed (85 kDa). These data suggest that apo Td ODP undergoes a shift to a higher oligomeric state (SI Appendix, Fig. S4A). MALS experiments with apo and iron-reconstituted Tm ODP demonstrate that, like Td ODP, the average molecular weight of Tm ODP increases in the apo state. Specifically, apo Tm ODP forms a 120-kDa tetramer, while the metal-reconstituted protein is predominantly a dimer (SI Appendix, Fig. S4B). Thus, conversion to the apo forms of both Tm and Td ODP causes a transition from dimer to tetramer and decreases thermodynamic stability (SI Appendix, Figs. S3B and S4).

**ODP Binds Oxygen as an Fe(III)₂-PeroxO Species.** Purified ODP has a broad absorption band with peaks at 590 nm and 500 nm (Fig. 2A), indicative of a di-iron peroxo adduct (8, 10, 11). This spectrum is lost when Td ODP is reduced by dithionite but recovers upon re-oxidation with oxygen. Fe(II)–reconstituted ODP displays an absorption peak at 560 nm after incubation in the presence of oxygen (Fig. 2B). The broad absorption band with peaks at 469 cm⁻¹ upon isotopic substitution of ¹⁸O₂ with ¹⁶O₂ (Fig. 2C) closely resembles that of Fe[III]₂(O–O)(µ−η⁻¹−O⁻²⁻) biomimetic complexes, and thereby support the assignment of a symmetric cis µ-1,2 iron-peroxo species (8, 10) to the Fe[II]–reconstituted ODP (12). Typically, other proteins with cis µ-1,2 iron-peroxo adducts have optical transitions red-shifted relative to the 590-nm ODP charge-transfer band and also have ν(O–O) ~ 30 to 40 cm⁻¹ higher in energy than found for ODP (12). Spectral features like those displayed by ODP are often observed for asymmetric end-on η² or η⁴ coordination of peroxide to 1 iron atom (12–14). However, there is considerable variability in these parameters; notably, the cis µ-1,2 iron-peroxo complex of human deoxyhypusine hydroxylase (hDOHH; discussed below) has RR and Mössbauer parameters similar to those of ODP (15) (SI Appendix, Table S1). Furthermore, biomimetic compounds that contain carboxylate bridges between iron atoms produce ultraviolet (UV)/visible (Vis) absorbance and RR spectra closely resembling those of Td ODP (8, 10). A single iron environment represented by the ODP Mössbauer parameters indicates near-symmetric coordination of the peroxo to the di-iron center.

**Td ODP Oxygen Binding Is Reversible.** FDPs and other di-iron oxygen-binding proteins commonly generate iron-peroxo adducts to activate oxygen for redox reactions. In these cycles, a diferrous site is oxidized to a diferrous state after substrate turnover. In the absence of substrate, the iron-peroxo species decays to an Fe[III]₂ species (16, 17). Unlike most other non-heme iron-peroxo proteins, ODP spontaneously releases oxygen from the iron center under anaerobic conditions to return to the Fe[II]₃ state, which can again bind oxygen to reform the Fe[III]₂-O₂⁻ adduct. Incubating oxygenated ODP under anaerobic conditions results in a steady decrease in absorbance at 590 nm that can be recovered by re-exposure to oxygen (Fig. 2A).

![Fig. 1. ODP is a family of metalloproteins associated with signal transduction in bacteria and archaea. A maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree of ODP representatives is shown, with gene neighborhoods and fusions to known signal transduction domains (Pfam nomenclature) depicted for each ODP branch. Nodes with bootstrap support >60 are marked by circles. Tm and Td indicate nodes containing TM13 orthologs from Tm and Td. Complete underlying data are shown as Dataset S1.](https://example.com/fig1.png)
Likewise, oxygen removal by either the glucose oxidase-catalase (GO-CAT) system (18, 19) or anaerobic incubation produces Mössbauer spectra indicative of an Fe[II] center (20) (Fig. 2C and SI Appendix, Figs. S3G and S8 and Table S1). In both cases, a fraction of the Fe[III]_2-peroxo species remains in the samples. Deconvolution of the data indicates that the major species is di-Fe[II] S ∼ 2 (δ = 1.20 mm s⁻¹, ΔE₀₂ = 2.60 mm s⁻¹, Γ = 0.35 mm s⁻¹) (Fig. 3D). Stable, reversible oxygen binding by ODP meets the requirements of an oxygen sensor.

To determine the rate of oxygen dissociation from the di-iron center, the GO-CAT system was used to scavenge released oxygen from Td ODP; spectral changes associated with O₂ release were followed at 590 nm (SI Appendix, Fig. S3F). Conditions under which the rate of oxygen release did not depend on the concentration of GO-CAT gave a first-order off-rate constant (k⁺off) of 0.002 ± 0.0004 s⁻¹, or t½ ∼ 5.8 min (SI Appendix, Fig. S3F). Assuming that O₂ binding by ODP has a typical on-rate constant (k⁻off) in the range of 10⁶ to 10⁸ M⁻¹ s⁻¹, the dissociation constant (Kd) k⁻off/k⁺off is ∼2.0 to 0.02 mM, considerably lower than that of the di-iron oxygen carrier hemerythrin (Hr) (21–23). Under aerobic conditions, the steady-state stability of the Td ODP peroxo complex is extremely high and limited only by the degradation of the iron center and/or protein unfolding (t½ ∼ 50 h at 20 °C; SI Appendix, Fig. S3D). This stability contrast with the majority of protein iron-peroxo adducts, which are short-lived intermediates. Several rare exceptions (14, 17) include hDHOH, mentioned above, which has a steady-state t½ ∼ 30 h at 20 °C (12).

**ODP Mediates Chemotaxis Toward Iron and Away from Oxygen.** To test if ODP is responsible for sensing iron and oxygen as part of a chemotactic response, chemotaxis capillary assays were conducted in Td using oxygen and iron as candidate chemoeffectors (SI Appendix, Fig. S5A). An ODP knockout strain of Td (Δ2498) was generated and compared with the behavior of wild-type (WT). RNA analysis indicates that the ODP gene is expressed under anaerobic growth conditions, but not in Δ2498 (SI Appendix, Fig. S5B).

No significant difference was found between the WT and Δ2498 for chemotaxis to the known Td attractant glucose (24) (Fig. 3C). Notably, nearly all of the bacterial species that possess a receptor-coupled ODP homolog are anaerobes, and thus may contain a system for recognizing and avoiding oxygen. Indeed, although WT cells avoid oxygenated buffer, the Δ2498 mutants are deficient in this response (Fig. 3A). In addition, WT cells exhibit strong chemotraction to Fe[II], whereas the Δ2498 mutants cells do not. Chemotaxis toward hemin, a previously reported Td iron source (25), was also impaired in the Δ2498 mutant (SI Appendix, Fig. S5C). Together, these data confirm that Td ODP is an oxygen and iron sensor that interfaces with the chemotaxis system of Td.

**ODP Accelerates CheA Dephosphorylation.** To explore the link between ODP and chemotaxis, Td CheA, CheW, CheY, and TM14 receptor were cloned; recombiantly expressed in E.c; and purified. Td CheA autophosphorylates in the presence of adenosine 5’-triphosphate (ATP), transfers phosphate to the response regulator CheY, and is inhibited by the TM14 homolog (SI Appendix, Fig. S6 A and B). To aid in assembly of the CheA/CheW complex, the TM14 homolog was artificially trimerized into its presumed trimeric oligomeric state by addition of a trimerization motif, as previously described (26) (SI Appendix, Fig. S6C). Surprisingly, addition of excess di-iron-peroxo ODP significantly decreases the relative amount of phosphorylated CheY (CheA-inorganic phosphate [Pi]) over time, whereas apo-ODP has no apparent effect (Fig. 4A). However, physical interaction between ODP and CheA could not be detected by pulldown or chemical cross-linking, suggesting a transient interaction between the proteins under these conditions.

The ability of ODP to decrease CheA-Pi levels could be due to an inhibition of autophosphorylation or an activation of phosphatase activity. To differentiate between these potential mechanisms, Pi was quantified in samples containing CheA and ATP in the absence and presence of di-iron-peroxo ODP or CheY. As expected, CheY increases phosphate release from CheA (Fig. 4B).

Similarly, samples containing iron-peroxo ODP show an increase in [Pi] release compared with CheA and CheW alone (Fig. 4B), although not to the same extent as with CheY (Fig. 4B). Phosphate released from CheA by ODP and CheY matches that released by only CheY, indicating that under these conditions, CheY out-competes ODP and ODP does not increase phosphate loss from CheY. To investigate whether the di-iron-peroxo species directly participates in phosphate hydrolysis, the stability of the peroxo adduct was monitored at 590 nm in the presence of CheA, CheW, and ATP. CheA only in the presence of ATP destabilized the ODP di-iron peroxo species (Fig. 4C). Free phosphate or ATP alone has little effect (SI Appendix, Fig. S3D). Therefore, the decay of the iron-peroxo adduct depends on CheA-Pi, a strong indication that phosphate release involves the di-iron-peroxo species.

**Crystal Structures of Metal-Reconstituted Td ODP and Tm ODP.** The 2.07-Å resolution crystal structure of Td ODP (6R9N) reveals a protein dimer with a di-iron site. Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDXS) of the crystals confirmed that iron is the only metal present (SI Appendix, Fig. S3H). As expected, Td ODP assumes the canonical β-lactam fold exhibited by β-lactamases and FDPS (Fig. 5A). Like most FDPS, the active site contains seven ligand residues: His80, Asp82, and His148 coordinate the iron closest to the dimer interface, whereas Asp84, Glu224, and His225 coordinate the other, and Asp167 bridges both metal ions (7, 27) (Fig. 5B). Most FDPS have a conserved histidine residue in place of the ODP residue Glu224 (28). Furthermore, the electron density around the active site reveals the presence of a bridging μ-oxo hydroxo species and the cis µ-1,2 peroxo species that was identified by RR and Mössbauer spectroscopic techniques (Fig. 5 C and D). The bond lengths are consistent with those found in previously crystallized di-iron-peroxo proteins (17). Although the bridging peroxo species is not solvent-exposed, only minor conformational
changes in the Val33-Tyr38 loop would be needed to expose it to solution or a substrate. With both oxygen and protein ligands, the coordination geometry of each iron atom is pseudo-octahedral, with the sixth coordination site occupied by the peroxo ligand. At this resolution, peroxide coordination (refined and unrestrained) is largely symmetric in both subunits (Fig. S5D and SI Appendix, Fig. S7D), consistent with results from spectroscopy (Fig. 2).

The di-iron-peroxo centers of the subunits are buried at the dimer interface with the peroxo moiety occluded from solvent by a ring of aromatic residues (F109, F195, Y199, and W106). Additionally, Gln81 and iron-ligand His148 coordinate a single ion that resides directly on the dimer axis and structurally couples the 2 active centers (SI Appendix, Fig. S5A). ICP-AES, several spectroscopic techniques (UV/Vis, RR, Mössbauer, and EDXS), and X-ray anomalous scattering did not identify an additional bound cation in the protein, whereas the coordination geometry suggests an anion, possibly chloride.

The iron complex of Tm ODP is unstable in most aerobic conditions; as such, Tm ODP was crystallized after reconstitution with Zn[II]. The 2.0-Å resolution zinc-reconstituted structure (6QWO) reveals a protein dimer nearly identical to that of Td ODP (Fig. S4). However, unlike Td ODP, the Zn[II] form of Tm ODP does not display the interface bridge that directs 2 histidine residues.

**Crystal Structures of Apo ODP Suggest a Mechanism for Iron Sensing.** The 2.1-Å resolution crystal structure of apo Td ODP (6QNM) is similar to the iron-reconstituted structure with some exceptions. In the apo structure, an 11-residue loop (His80 to Ala90) that contains the metal ligands shifts and a surface-exposed loop that excludes the metal center from solvent (Val33 to Tyr38) displaces to expose the active site (Fig. 6A). The interface anion bridging the 2 active centers is also absent in the apo structure. Collectively, these structural changes result in solvent accessibility of the metal-binding pocket and the formation of a channel that includes the metal ligands at the dimer interface (SI Appendix, Fig. S7 B and C). The resulting increase in solvent accessibility and coupled conformational changes may allow for iron to access the metal-binding center.

Although apo Td ODP remains a dimer in crystals, the 2.56-Å resolution crystal structure of apo Tm ODP (6QRO) is a tetramer, as observed in solution (Fig. 6B). The tetramer can be viewed as an end-to-end dimer that buries 1,109 Å² additional surface of the metal-bound dimer. Therein, loop alterations create a solvent channel that exposes the metal-binding residues and also restructure the dimer interface and subunit orientation (Fig. 6C and SI Appendix, Fig. S7C). Furthermore, absence of the ion causes Trp102 from the adjacent subunit to insert into the metal-binding site (SI Appendix, Fig. S7E) and slightly displaces 2 helices (A49-V62 and V80-N93) at the tetramer interface; a loop from the adjacent subunit (F109-I117) moves to engage these helices. Such changes to the apo protein surface properties potentially enable engagement with partners.

**Discussion**

ODP is genetically linked to and coevolves with a nontransmembrane chemoreceptor that lacks a dedicated sensory domain, and this combined system senses oxygen and ferrous iron for chemotaxis responses. Td has been reported to survive in aerobic conditions by generating microaerobic environments, but it requires a source of iron for survival (29, 30). Here, we show that deletion of ODP in Td eliminates its ability to respond to iron and oxygen (Fig. 3). ODP is cytoplasmic, and therefore monitors the intracellular levels of these ligands. Iron binding induces conformational changes in ODP, which ultimately leads to changes in protein stability and oligomeric state. Furthermore, ODP reversibly binds oxygen with an affinity in the nanomolar range as an iron-peroxo adduct. Remarkably, iron-peroxo ODP destabilizes phosphorylated CheA.

![Image](https://www.pnas.org/cgi/doi/10.1073/pnas.1904234116 Muok et al.)
In the presence of oxygen, dimeric ODP converts to the peroxo and stimulates CheA autophosphorylation. Under such a scenario, iron binding of ODP participating in chemotaxis. In the apo state, ODP conserves all metal-binding residues. (C) Di-iron site of Td ODP chain A contains a cis μ-1,2 iron-peroxo species and an oxo-bridge; ZrO-Fe electron density map shown in blue at 2σ, and Fe-Oc Fe moiety map shown in green at 5σ. (Q) Distances and angles of the iron-peroxo adduct are consistent with previously characterized cis-μ,1,2 iron-peroxo protein species and biomimetic compounds.

The mechanism of ODP phosphatase activity is currently unclear. Although not homologous to ODP, purple acid phosphatases employ an Fe[II]-Fe[III] di-iron center (or Fe[II]-Zn[II] center), wherein both metal ions coordinate the phosphoryl ester and supply a bridging μ-OH, a pendant Fe[III]-OH(2), or an activated noncoordinating water molecule as a hydrolytic nucleophile to liberate phosphate (31). In ODP, the peroxo moiety would have to rearrange or be displaced to coordinate a phosphor yl group. The ODP metal center does not contain a bound hydroxide/water, but the μ-oxo/hydroxo could potentially act as a nucleophile. Further reduction of the μ-1,2 peroxo could also generate a pendant hydroxide. A cellular reductase or the coupled di-Fe[II] center of the ODP adjacent subunit may act as a source of electrons. It follows that multiple turnovers as a phosphatase may require ODP to be rereduced. If this is the case, the protein will likely be limited to a single reaction in vitro, which may explain why CheA dephosphorylation during steady-state autophosphorylation requires excess ODP.

Chemotaxis assays indicate that ODP functions as a chemoreceptor that senses iron as an attractant and oxygen as a repellent. A rationale for this activity pattern may involve at least 3 states of ODP participating in chemotaxis. In the apo state, ODP conformations changes in the subunits or tetramerization prevent interaction with the chemotaxis machinery. Upon iron binding, dimeric ODP then interacts with the kinase/receptor assembly (likely through TM14) and stimulates CheA autophosphorylation. In the presence of oxygen, dimeric ODP converts to the peroxo state, which will then destabilize CheA-Pi. Under such a scenario, metal-ion–driven conformational changes and active center oxygen activation both play a role in the ODP-sensing mechanism. An interaction between CheA and di-Fe[II] ODP has been challenging to observe, perhaps owing to the requirement of a functional hexagonal array of receptors, which is difficult to reconstitute under ex vivo anaerobic conditions.

In Ec, CheA activity increases in response to a repellent, whereas *Bacillus subtilis* (Bs) CheA activity increases in response to an attractant (32). Td and Tm CheA belong to the same evolutionary class (F1 [33]) as Bs CheA, whereas Ec CheA belongs to a different class (F7). Similarly, Td and Tm receptors belong to the same evolutionary class (44H [3]) as Bs receptors, whereas Ec receptors belong to another (36H). Furthermore, the unmodified receptors from Td and Tm deactivate CheA, which is a behavior consistent with an attractant-activating system like Bs (26, 34). Indeed, these considerations and data presented here support a model wherein Td/Tm CheA activity decreases with repellent (O2) and increases with attractant (FeIII).

Both prokaryotes and eukaryotes utilize nonheme iron proteins as oxygen and iron sensors (35, 36). The coupling of iron and oxygen sensing is advantageous because although Fe[II] is essential for cell survival, uptake of ferric iron is difficult and even deleterious (36). Nonetheless, other systems operate differently than ODP. Mammalian FBXL5 and *Desulfovibrio vulgaris* DcrH possess a di-iron Hr-like domain that undergoes rapid oxidation to a di-ferrous state upon oxygen binding, which then induces conformational changes important for signaling (35). Like ODP, FBXL5 appears to modulate a posttranscriptional regulator in response to both oxygen and ferrous iron, and both moieties are required for activity (37). DcrH is a transmembrane MCP that contains an intracellular Hr-like domain to monitor the concentration of intracellular oxygen and modulate anaerotaxis (23). Oxygen accesses the di-iron site via a channel and then rapidly oxidizes Fe[II]. Unlike the Hr-like possessing proteins, ODP is not homologous to Hr and does not readily auto-oxidize to a ferric state. Hrs also reversibly bind oxygen as peroxide, but they form an end-on peroxo adduct instead of a cis μ-1,2 peroxo species (22). ODP is an example of a di-iron protein that couples oxygen and iron sensing through the reversible formation of a bridged FeIII2-peroxo species.

The geometry of the ODP cis μ-1,2 di-iron(III)-peroxo adduct is similar to that found in toluene monoxygenase (38), arylamine oxygenase (39), and deoxyhypusine hydroxylase (17). The μ-1,2 di-iron(III)-peroxo species have variable roles in the catalysis of these enzymes (40), as well as others (41), but often change coordination in conversion to more reactive species. ODP discourages such transitions and rather stabilizes the peroxo for conferring oxygen-binding signals to the chemotaxis machinery. FDPs do not form stable iron-peroxo species or reversibly bind oxygen, but they do conserve a hydrophobic pocket surrounding the metal centers. Unlike FDPs, ODP contains an iron-coordinating glutamine residue (Gln224) in a metalloregulated domain. Notably, Gln224 differentiates the metal coordination from typical FDPs; however, the Gln substitution alone may not explain the unusual oxygen-bonding properties of ODP. Substitution of the analogous His to Asn does not affect activity or stabilize an FDP-iron-peroxo

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**Fig. 5.** Crystal structures of Td and Tm ODP. (A) Overlay of the 2.07-Å resolution structure of iron-peroxo Td ODP (6R9N, blue) and the 2.0 Å resolution crystal structure of Zn-reconstituted Tm ODP (6QWO, magenta) (B) Di-iron centers of Td and Tm ODP conserve all metal-binding residues. (C) Di-iron site of Td ODP chain A contains a cis μ-1,2 iron-peroxo species and an oxo-bridge; ZrO-Fe electron density map shown in blue at 2σ, and Fe-Oc Fe moiety map shown in green at 5σ. (Q) Distances and angles of the iron-peroxo adduct are consistent with previously characterized cis-μ,1,2 iron-peroxo protein species and biomimetic compounds.

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**Fig. 6.** Crystal structures of apo Td and Tm ODP. (A) Apo Td ODP (6QNM, orange) and iron-peroxo Td ODP (6R9N, blue) have similar conformations, with the exception of 2 small loops composed of residues Val33-Tyr38 and His80-Ala90. Movement of these loops in the apo form exposes the active site to solvent. (B) Apo Tm ODP crystallizes as a tetramer (6QRQ), consistent with molecular weight measurements by MALDI. Subunits 1 and 2 or 3 and 4 compose the dimer found in the metal-bound structure. (C) Solvent exposure of the metal-free site residues (yellow) increases in the apo structure, and Trp102 from the adjacent subunit moves into the metal-free center (SI Appendix, Fig. 57E).
The ODP-TM14 system may represent an ancient sensory system that evolved to position cells optimally in life-harboring environments of early Earth.

Materials and Methods

The materials and methods used in this study are described in detail in SI Appendix, Methods. Information includes bioinformatics, cloning, protein production and metal analysis, enzymatic assays, spectroscopy, crystallography, 7d genetic manipulations, and chemotaxis assays.

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