Functional Partnership of the Copper Export Machinery and Glutathione Balance in Human Cells*

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Background: Redox machinery was implicated in regulating copper export from cells.

Results: The redox state of Atox1 depends on glutathione balance. In low glutathione, Atox1 becomes essential for cell viability independently of copper levels.

Conclusion: Atox1 and glutathione work together to maintain normal cell growth.

Significance: Interactions of two pathways explain differences between various cells in their metal and redox sensitivity.

**Cells** use the redox properties of copper in numerous physiological processes, including antioxidant defense, neurotransmitter biosynthesis, and angiogenesis. Copper delivery to the secretory pathway is an essential step in copper utilization and homeostatic maintenance. We demonstrate that the glutathione/glutathione disulfide (GSH/GSSG) pair controls the copper transport pathway by regulating the redox state of a copper chaperone Atox1. GSSG oxidizes copper-coordinating cysteines of Atox1 with the formation of an intramolecular disulfide. GSH alone is sufficient to reduce the disulfide, restoring the ability of Atox1 to bind copper; glutaredoxin 1 facilitates this reaction when GSH is low. In cells, high GSH both reduces Atox1 and is required for cell viability in the absence of Atox1. In turn, Atox1, which has a redox potential similar to that of glutaredoxin, becomes essential for cell survival when GSH levels decrease. Atox1+/+ cells resist short term glutathione depletion, whereas Atox1−/− cells under the same conditions are not viable. We conclude that GSH balance and copper homeostasis are functionally linked and jointly maintain conditions for copper secretion and cell proliferation.

The ability of copper to cycle between reduced (Cu+) and oxidized (Cu2+) forms is utilized in numerous physiological processes including respiration, radical defense, neurotransmitter biosynthesis, and angiogenesis. The ease with which Cu2+ induces oxidation of various biological substrates is a likely reason why, in the cytosol, copper is transported as Cu2+ bound to specific carriers (copper chaperones) until it reaches its final destination (1). Copper delivery to the secretory pathway is essential for normal cellular homeostasis (2). This process, mediated by the copper chaperone Atox1 and the copper-transporting ATPases (Cu-ATPases) ATP7A/ATP7B, is required for functional maturation of copper-dependent enzymes that function at the plasma membrane and in specialized compartments such as melanosomes (3) or secretory granules (4). The Atox1/Cu-ATPase pair also transfers copper to secreted metalloproteins, which have long range activities in the body, such as ceruloplasmin or blood clotting factors V and VIII (5). In addition to protein metallation, Atox1 and Cu-ATPases maintain copper concentration in tissues by exporting excess copper from cells. Disruption of copper transport to the secretory pathway in Menkes and Wilson diseases or in Atox1−/− mice results in severe multisystem pathologies (6–8).

Atox1 and Cu-ATPases bind Cu+ in a similar and characteristic fashion: via Cys residues of the CXXC motif located in the exposed loop of a ferredoxin-like domain (see Fig. 1A). Atox1 has one such site, whereas human ATP7A and ATP7B have six sites (9) (see Fig. 1B). The CXXC motif is common for redox enzymes including thioredoxin and glutaredoxin, in which it undergoes reversible oxidation exchanging electrons with substrates (10). It was assumed that in the cytosol, the CXXC sites of Atox1 and Cu-ATPases were constitutively reduced and available for copper. However, recent studies suggest that Cu-ATPases are glutathionylated and that glutaredoxins are required to reverse modification and enable copper binding (11).

Atox1 acts upstream of Cu-ATPases (12), and its redox state would critically contribute to overall copper export. Although the copper binding properties of Atox1 have been intensely investigated (6, 13, 14), the redox characteristics of Atox1 remain unknown. Consequently, we set out to (i) determine the redox properties of Atox1 in vitro and in cells; (ii) identify the main cellular redox system (thioredoxin, GSH/ GSSG pair, glutaredoxin) that was sufficient in keeping Atox1 in a functional form; and (iii) examine whether the oxidation state of Atox1 is influenced by changes in cellular redox environment.

We show that in proliferating cells, the CXXC site of Atox1 is mostly reduced and that high glutathione is sufficient to maintain this state. Changes in GSH/GSSG balance alter the redox status of Atox1, indicating that glutathione balance is essential for normal activity of the copper secretion pathway. We also show a cooperative relationship of copper export and glutathione homeostasis in maintaining cell viability. Cells with defect in either Atox1 or the Atox1 target, ATP7B, require high glutathione for their growth. Altogether, our data highlight the tight link of copper export machinery to glutathione-based redox
Symbiotic Link between Copper and GSH Homeostasis

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Reagents—Reduced and oxidized glutathiones (GSH and GSSG, respectively) were purchased from Sigma. Maleimide derivatives, N-ethylenemaleimide and EZ-Link maleimide-PEG11-biotin, were from Sigma and Thermo Scientific, respectively. Yeast glutathione reductase, purified human glutaredoxin 1, purified Escherichia coli thioredoxin 1, thioredoxin reductase, monoclonal anti-FLAG antibody M13 clone, and polyclonal anti-Grx1 antibody were from Sigma. Polyclonal anti-ferulic acid hydrolase antibody was from Abcam. Polyclonal anti-ATP7B antibody was described previously (15).

Cell Lines—Hek293T cells (HEK293TREx strain) and Caco-2 cells (kindly provided by Dr. Jack Kaplan, University of Illinois, Chicago, IL) were maintained in minimum Eagle’s medium supplemented with penicillin/streptomycin (Invitrogen), non-essential amino acids (Invitrogen), 10% FBS (v/v). Mouse embryonic fibroblast (MEF) WT or Atox1−/− cells (kindly provided by Dr. Tohru Fukai, University of Illinois, MA) were also maintained in the same medium. Hepg2 cells were maintained in DMEM with 10% FBS on collagen-coated dishes.

Expression and Purification of Recombinant Protein—Purification of Atox1 was previously described (16). Briefly, the intein-chitin-binding domain-Atox1 fusion protein was expressed in E. coli transformed with the pTYB12/Atox1. After isolation of soluble fraction, the expressed protein was purified using chitin resin (New England Biolabs). Purified Atox1 was eluted following the DTT-induced cleavage of intein-chitin-binding domain fragment, dialyzed against PBS-NaCl (50 mM sodium phosphate, pH 7, 150 mM NaCl), and concentrated using an Amicon ultrafiltration device (Millipore, Billerica, MA). Protein purity was assessed by 15% Tricine SDS-PAGE. Protein concentration was determined by Bradford assay using BSA as standard.

Cys-targeted Labeling—All the thiol reagents were freshly prepared each time or stored at −20 °C. Reduced apo-Atox1 was prepared each time or stored at −80 °C. Reduced apo-Atox1 was prepared by incubation with 1 mM tris(2-carboxyethyl)-phosphine (TCEP) and 1 mM copper chelator, bathocuproine disulfonate (BCS) for 1 h followed by removal of TCEP and BCS by three cycles of concentration-dilution (10× dilution for each cycle). PBS-NaCl was used as dilution buffer. After treatment with various oxidants or the GSH/GSSG pair, typically 2 μg of protein was precipitated with 10% (w/v) trichloroacetic acid for 30 min. The protein pellet was washed with ice-cold acetone, quickly dried in a fume hood (<5 min), and dissolved in 20 μl of Laemmli sample buffer containing 4 M urea. The proteins were labeled with 2 mM EZ-Link maleimide-PEG11-miotin at room temperature for 3 h. The reaction was quenched by adding 1 μl of 500 mM cysteine. After adding 1 μl of 500 mM DTT, the labeled samples were resolved on 15% Tricine SDS-PAGE, and protein bands were stained with Coomassie Brilliant Blue G-250. Incorporation of EZ-Link maleimide-PEG11-biotin was identified by a mobility shift of labeled protein. Protein quantification in bands was done by densitometry using ImageJ (National Institutes of Health). In some experiments, Cys-targeted labeling was performed using 0.3 mM 7-diethylamino-3-(4-maleimidylphenyl)-4-methylcoumarin instead of EZ-Link. In this case, labeled protein was quantitatively transferred to UV-excited fluorescence, which was then normalized to band intensity on a Coomassie Brilliant Blue-stained gel. Gel images were taken using AlphaInnotech IS-2200 (Alpha Innotech).

To test the abilities of various reduction sources to reduce the Cys residues in Atox1, oxidized Atox1 (0.1 mg/ml) was reacted either with 1 mM TCEP, 10 mM GSH, 10 mM GSH plus 0.005 mg/ml Grx1 or with 1 mM NADPH plus 0.005 mg/ml Trx1 and 0.005 mg/ml thioredoxin reductase (TrxR). Incubation time was limited to 10 min so that the reduction by GSH itself would not completely reduce the protein. The redox status of the Cys residues in Atox1 was assessed by Cys-targeted labeling using 0.3 mM 7-diethylamino-3-(4-maleimidylphenyl)-4-methylcoumarin instead of EZ-Link. Labeled Cys was quantitated by UV-excited fluorescence, which was then normalized to band intensity on Coomassie Brilliant Blue-stained gel.

Measurement of Standard Redox Potential $E_0$—Reduced apo-Atox1 at 0.1 mg/ml in PBS-NaCl was incubated with a mixture of GSH and GSSG present at different ratios. Concentrations of [GSH] and [GSSG] were chosen so as to fit the following equation:

$$[GSH] + 2[GSSG] = 10 \text{ mM}$$

Incubation time was 3 h except where indicated. The reaction was quenched by adding 10% (w/v) TCA followed by Cys-targeted labeling as described above. The ratio of reduced to total Cys residues was plotted against the redox potential of the GSH/GSSG pair and fit to the following Nernst equation

$$E = E_0 - \frac{RT}{2F} \ln \left( \frac{f}{1-f} \right)$$

where $f$ is the fraction of reduced Cys normalized to fully reduced state (labeled in the presence of 1 mM TCEP). $E$ is the redox potential of the GSH/GSSG pair included in the buffer. $E_0$ is the standard redox potential of the redox-sensitive Cys residues in the protein. $R$, $T$, and $F$ are the gas constant, temperature, and the Faraday constant, respectively. Using $E_0$ as a variant parameter, the best fit curve was searched, and the corresponding $E_0$ was obtained. Redox potential of GSH/GSSG pair was calculated using the following equation

$$E = E_{GSH} - \frac{RT}{2F} \ln \left( \frac{[GSH]^2}{[GSSG]} \right)$$

where $E_{GSH}$ is the standard redox potential of GSH/GSSG pair (−0.24 V (17)).

Generation and Expression of FLAG-tagged Atox1—The pTYB12/Atox1 construct (16) was used to amplify the Atox1 cDNA (Met–1–Glu–68) and add the N-terminal sequence MDYKDDDDKIG (FLAG tag). The DNA fragment was inserted into either the pcDNA3.1 or the pcDNA5 vector.

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2 The abbreviations used are: MEF, mouse embryonic fibroblast; BCNU, bis(2-chloroethyl)-N-nitroso-urea; BCS, bathocuproine disulfonate; BSO, buthionine sulfoximine; MTS, (3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-5-(3-carboxymethoxyphenyl)-2-(4-sulfophenyl)-2H-tetrazolium; Tricine, N(2-hydroxy-1,1-bis(hydroxymethyl)ethyl)glycine; TCEP, tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine; Grx, glutaredoxin; Trx, thioredoxin; TrxR, thioredoxin reductase; CP, ceruloplasmin; KD, knockdown; DMSO, dimethyl sulfoxide.
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Analysis of Apo- and Holo-keruloplasmin (CP)—The levels of apo- and holo-keruloplasmin were determined as described previously (19). Briefly, HepG2 cells at 50–60% confluence were washed three times with a serum-free medium, and 1 ml of serum-free medium was added per 60-mm dish. For treatments, either 0.5 mM BCS, 100 μM buthionine sulfoximine (BSO) or 10 μM bis(2-chloroethyl)-N-nitroso-urea (BCNU) was included into the medium. Secreted CP was collected from the growth medium after a 16-h incubation (20). Specifically, the cultured conditioned medium was concentrated 20 times using a 50,000 molecular weight cut-off (Millipore) ultrafiltration unit, and protein concentration was determined by the Bradford assay. Equal amounts of proteins (typically 5 μg) were then treated with 1% sodium dodecyl sulfate followed by the addition of 2× sample buffer (40 mM Tris-HCl, pH 6.8, 20% glycerol, 0.1% Coomassie Brilliant Blue G-250) and separated by a Blue Native-PAGE. CP was detected by Western blotting using anti-CP antibody. The serum samples from the wild-type and Atp7B−/− mice were used as controls for apo- and holo-CP, respectively (19).

Cell Viability—MEF WT or Atox1−/− cells were plated on 96-well plates to have 30,000 cells/well and 100 μl. Plating density was optimized to ensure that the maximal BSO effect was observed. Six hours after plating, 100 μl of culture medium containing various concentrations of BSO, BCS, or CuCl2 were added. Reagents were dissolved in water in stock solutions (100 mM BSO, 200 mM BCS, and 100 mM CuCl2). After 48 h of incubation, cell viability was assessed using the CellTiter 96 AQueous MTS reagent (Promega). One hour after adding MTS (3–(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-5–(3-carboxymethoxyphenyl)-2–(4-sulphophenyl)-2H-tetrazolium) reagent to cells, the reaction was quenched by 2.5% (w/v) SDS. The formazan product was measured by absorbance at 550 nm. The value for WT in normal culture condition was taken as 100% viability. The plots were fitted to the following Hill equation:

\[ \nu = \nu_0 - \frac{(\nu - \nu_{\text{min}})[\text{BSO}]^{v}}{E_{C_0} + [\text{BSO}]^{v}} \]  

(Eq 3)

where \( \nu \) is viability, \( \nu_0 \) is viability in the absence of BSO, \( \nu_{\text{min}} \) is minimum viability (typically \( \nu_{\text{min}} = 0 \)), [BSO] is concentration of BSO, and \( E_{C_0} \) is half-maximal effective concentration. The Hill coefficient is given as \( H \), which varied depending on conditions (1.5 < H < 3.8). HepG2 cells were similarly analyzed except that cells were plated on collagen-coated plates at a cell density of either 10,000 cells/well or 15,000 cells/well, incubated for 1 day prior to treatment with BSO, and cultured for 4 days before the MTS assay.

To visually assess cell viability, cells were stained with propidium iodide. For these experiments, MEF WT or Atox1−/− cells were plated on 24-well plates to have 3 × 104 cells/well and 500 μl. Six hours after plating, 500 μl of culture medium containing 0.6 mM BSO were added. After 48 h of incubation, cells were stained with 1 μg/ml propidium iodide for 10 min, which enters dead cells only (21). Phase contrast and propidium iodide fluorescence images were taken using a fluorescence microscope (IX51, Olympus) equipped with a CCD camera RETIGA 2000R (QIMAGING). For data analysis and image...
processing, ImageJ was used. For image taking and processing, the same conditions were used for all the samples. HepG2 cells were similarly analyzed except that cells were plated at a cell density of 10⁵ cells/well, incubated for 1 day prior to treatment with 1 mM BSO, and cultured for 4 days before propidium iodide staining.

Knockdown of ATP7B in HepG2—To design ATP7B-specific shRNA, we selected two sequences of the type AA(N₁₈–₁₉) (where N indicates any nucleotide) from the open reading frame of the ATP7B mRNA (NM_000053). Another shRNA was designed using the BLOCK-iT RNAi designer (Invitrogen). Oligonucleotide DNA sets and corresponding target sequences are summarized in supplemental Figs. 1 and 2, respectively. Lentiviral vectors expressing the short hairpin RNA (shRNA) was prepared using BLOCK-iT Lentiviral RNAi Expression System (Invitrogen) following the manufacturer’s protocol. The lentivirus vector carrying human lamin A/C shRNA and nontargeted shRNA (for sequence 5-ACTACCGTTGTTATAGGTGT-3/H11032) were used as positive and negative RNAi controls, respectively. Replication-incompetent lentivirus was packaged in the HEK293FT cells. Viral supernatant was harvested 48 h after transfection and stored at ~80 °C. HepG2 cells plated on 6-well plate were transduced with lentivirus and selected by culturing with 10 µg/ml blasticidin. Nontransduced cells were killed within 7 days. The surviving cells were respread and selected typically through three passages. The transduced cells were maintained in the presence of 5 µg/ml blasticidin, and aliquots were stored in liquid nitrogen for further use.

RESULTS

The CXXC Motif of Atox1 Is Easily Oxidized, Forming a Disulfide—Atox1 has three Cys residues. (Cys-12 and Cys-15 in the CXXC motif and Cys-41, Fig. 1A). The properties of known CXXC motifs vary greatly (10, 22) due to different amino acid residues in the X₁X₂ position in CXXXC. Consequently, we first tested the susceptibility of Atox1 cysteines to several biologically relevant oxidants. The reduced Cys residues were identified by labeling with a maleimide-PEG₁₁-biotin, which adds 922 Da to a protein mass. Labeling of a fully reduced Atox1 yielded an expected 3-kDa shift in apparent molecular mass. Treatment with H₂O₂, GSSG, or even aerobic exposure decreased labeling pointing to Cys oxidation (Fig. 1C). Two out of three Cys residues were susceptible to oxidation, whereas one Cys residue was labeled in all conditions. DTT restored the labeling Cys to the initial level (supplemental Fig. 3), indicating that oxidation was associated with a formation of a disulfide. In vitro, copper or cisplatin can induce formation of an Atox1 dimer (23). Thus, it was possible that oxidation may also lead to protein dimerization. To examine whether the disulfide was intramolecular or intermolecular, the oxidized Atox1 was analyzed by a nonreducing SDS-PAGE (Fig. 1D). A majority of the protein runs as a monomer. DTT restored the labeling Cys to the initial level (supplemental Fig. 3), indicating that oxidation was associated with a formation of a disulfide.

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whereas Cys-41 was not, and that the intramolecular disulfide within the copper-binding CXXC motif was the major form of disulfide pairing in Atox1. We examined the possibility of Atox1 glutathionylation, but no glutathionylated products were detected by mass spectrometric analysis under different conditions (10 mM GSH or 5 mM GSSG; supplemental Fig. 4).

The Redox State of Atox1 Is Modulated by the GSH/GSSG Pair and Grx1—High sensitivity of Atox1 to oxidation suggested that cells maintaining the CXXC motif in the reduced state may require one of the cellular redox systems. Previous studies pointed to a significant role of glutathione in copper homeostasis (11, 24–26). Thus, we hypothesized that the redox status of Atox1 could be maintained by the GSH/GSSG pair and consequently examined a direct disulfide exchange between Atox1 and the GSH/GSSG pair. Incubation of oxidized Atox1 with 10 mM GSH resulted in a complete reduction of Cys residues (t_{1/2} = 17.7 min, Fig. 2A). Typically, redox equilibration with bulk glutathione is achieved within several hours (27). The reduction rates observed for Atox1 indicated that Atox1 was a better than average substrate for glutathione.

A nonenzymatic reduction of a CXXC motif with glutathione is uncommon in a physiological context (28). Consequently, we also explored an enzyme-based reduction using glutaredoxin (Grx) or thioredoxin (Trx), the main reducing enzymes in cells. The Trx system did not reduce Atox1 (Fig. 2B). The addition of Grx1 at a 1:20 ratio to Atox1 at 10 mM GSH only slightly enhanced reduction. However, in low GSH (1 mM), we observed a strong requirement for Grx1. Specifically, the nonenzymatic reduction of Atox1 by 1 mM GSH was very slow (t_{1/2} = 123.75 min), whereas the addition of Grx1 (1:20 ratio to Atox1) facilitated reduction by ~30-fold (t_{1/2} = 2.89 min; Fig. 2, C and D). Thus, the Atox1 redox status is under control of the GSH/GSSG pair. Grx1 catalyzes this redox equilibration, and specific contribution of Grx1 to the Atox1 redox maintenance depends on the glutathione levels, which vary in different cell types.

In cells, the GSH/GSSG ratio as well as the total levels of glutathione may change, particularly during cell differentiation and polarization (29), serum depletion (30), or apoptosis (31), from ~258 mM up to ~165 mM (32). To better understand the potential effect of such changes on Atox1, we determined the standard redox potential of its CXXC site (Fig. 3, A and B, and supplemental Fig. 5). As a control, we used Grx1, which also contains the CXXC motif and undergoes reversible reduction/oxidation depending on the cytosolic GSH/GSSG ratio (22). The standard redox potential of Atox1 (E_0 = −229 ± 4.5 mV) was in between that of GSH/GSSG pair (E_0 = −240 mV) and Grx1 (E_0 = −220 mV). This value and the Grx1-facilitated redox equilibration with the GSH/GSSG pair suggested that the CXXC site of Atox1 was able to undergo irreversible reduction/oxidation under physiologically relevant conditions.

We also determined the E_0 of the N-terminal metal-binding domain of ATP7B (N-ATP7B), which has 18 Cys residues including six CXXC motifs (supplemental Fig. 6). Despite structural similarity of metal-binding domains to Atox1, the average E_0 of N-ATP7B was significantly higher (−178 mV), and the analysis of the proteolyzed N-ATP7B did not reveal large differences between the six metal-binding sites (data not shown). These results suggested that the CXXC site of Atox1 could be specifically tuned for regulation by changes in the GSH/GSSG ratio.

The Redox Status of Atox1 in Cells—A cytosolic redox potential in the proliferating stage is in the range of −258 to −220 mV (HT29, fibroblasts, HL-60, murine hybridoma cells (Ref. 32)). Our data on Atox1 redox potential suggested that in cells, Atox1 was mostly reduced, but could be oxidized if GSH/GSSG balance was disrupted. To test these predictions, we first determined the redox status of Atox1 in cells under normal growth
conditions. HEK293T cells were transfected with a plasmid expressing FLAG-Atox1, and cell lysate was subjected to Cys-directed labeling followed by molecular shift assay. Under standard growth conditions, Atox1 appeared fully reduced (Fig. 4A) as evident from comparison with a control GSH-pretreated Atox1 (Fig. 4B).

To examine the effect of GSH/GSSG misbalance on the redox state of Atox1, cells were treated with 0.5 mM BCNU. BCNU is the best known inhibitor of human glutathione reductase. Treatment with BCNU is expected to shift the GSH/GSSG equilibrium toward more oxidizing conditions (33). We verified that in HEK293T cells, incubation with 0.5 mM BCNU for 30 min yielded ∼90% inhibition of cytosolic glutathione reductase (Fig. 4C). Under these conditions, Atox1 was oxidized, as indicated by the decrease in Cys labeling (Fig. 4D). DTT pretreatment reversed the effect, confirming that the loss of labeling was due to oxidation and not due to irreversible Cys modification. Oxidation was independent of copper.

FIGURE 4. The cellular GSH/GSSG pair regulates the redox status of Atox1. A, Atox1 is mostly reduced in cells. The redox (red) status of FLAG-Atox1 in HEK293T cells was assessed by ex vivo Cys-targeted labeling. Two bands corresponding to the reduced (red) and oxidized (ox) Atox1 are indicated. The intact mass of FLAG-Atox1 is 8698 Da. When cells were pretreated with N-ethylmaleimide (NEM), Cys residues were blocked (see “Experimental Procedures”). WB, Western blot. B, the redox status of Atox1 expressed in HEK293T cells is reversibly modulated by the GSH/GSSG pair. DTT pretreatment reversed the effect, confirming that the loss of labeling was due to oxidation and not due to irreversible Cys modification. Oxidation was independent of copper.

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levels in the culture medium (Fig. 4E), indicating that copper levels were not the primary factor in regulating the Atox1 redox status.

Although BCNU did not directly react with glutathione (supplemental Fig. 7), treatment with BCNU did decrease total glutathione levels (Table 1). Thus, the observed oxidation of Atox1 could be attributed to either oxidative shift in the GSH/GSSG ratio or the decrease of total glutathione. To discriminate between these two possibilities, glutathione levels were decreased using BSO, an inhibitor of γ-glutamylcysteine synthetase. When glutathione level was lowered to 57% of control (Table 1), Atox1 remained fully reduced (Fig. 4F), demonstrating Atox1 resistance to a decrease in total glutathione. (Further optimization of BSO treatment allowed an 87% decrease of glutathione, but Atox1 remained reduced (supplemental Fig. 8).) We conclude that the redox status of Atox1 depends on GSH/GSSG balance rather than the total cellular glutathione level.

**Atox1 Oxidation Disrupts Copper Delivery to the Secretory Pathway**—In cells, Atox1 facilitates copper transport into the trans-Golgi network and thus enables the biosynthetic maturation of secreted copper-dependent enzymes, such as ceruloplasmin (12). We hypothesized that oxidation of Atox1 would impair the delivery of copper to the secretory pathway and result in the secretion of copper-dependent enzymes in an apo-form. To test this hypothesis, we examined the copper binding status of secreted CP following different treatments of HepG2 cells. (These cells were previously reported to secrete CP (20).) Serum samples from the control and Atp7b<sup>−/−</sup> mice were used as controls to verify the migration of the holo- and apo-CP forms, respectively (19) (Fig. 4G).

Under basal conditions, HepG2 cells produced more holo-CP than apo-CP (Fig. 4G), whereas cells treated with the copper chelator BCS secreted mostly apo-CP, as expected (Fig. 4, G and H). Decrease in total glutathione, due to either BSO or BCNU treatment, lowered the total CP levels, in agreement with a previous study (20); however, the effects of BSO and BCNU on the amounts of holo-CP differed. Treatment with BSO, which does not produce Atox1 oxidation (see above), had no effect on holo-CP, whereas BCNU decreased the amount of holo-CP (Fig. 4G). For BCNU treatment, we could not use the fully oxidizing conditions (0.5 mM or even 100 μM) for 16 h (time necessary to collect CP from the medium) due to significant cytotoxicity. Cells were treated with 10 μM BCNU, which did not affect cell viability. Even under these mild conditions, the fraction of holo-CP was significantly decreased (from 58% ± 1.8 to 43% ± 3.2; Fig. 4,G and H), suggesting the decreased delivery of copper to the secretory pathway.

**Atox1 Is Required for Cell Viability in Low Glutathione**—The similarity of the Atox1 redox potential to that of Grx1 and a GSH/GSSG pair as well as the ability of Atox1 to maintain the reduced state upon glutathione depletion suggested that Atox1 might play a previously unanticipated homeostatic role when glutathione levels were low. This hypothesis was tested using Atox1<sup>+/+</sup> (WT) and Atox1<sup>−/−</sup> cells. In a regular growth medium, the proliferation rate of both cell lines was similar (supplemental Fig. 9). Glutathione depletion by BSO had little effect on viability/proliferation of the WT cells, which were resistant to up to 1 mM BSO (Fig. 5A). In marked contrast, the Atox1<sup>−/−</sup> cells were highly sensitive to BSO (EC<sub>50</sub> = 42 μM, 100% loss of viability at a saturating concentration of 0.3 mM).

High sensitivity of Atox1<sup>−/−</sup> cells to BSO indicated that Atox1 was critical for cell survival under conditions of glutathione limitation. This conclusion was further supported by the fact the BSO-resistant WT cells were sensitive to BCNU, which affects both the Atox1 redox status and the glutathione levels (supplemental Fig. 10B). Total glutathione was similar in the WT and Atox1<sup>−/−</sup> cells in either regular medium or following BSO treatment (Table 1), indicating that Atox1 protects cells through the mechanism other than the maintenance of glutathione levels.

The loss of Atox1 decreases copper export via the secretory pathway (6). Thus, elevated intracellular copper could be the major reason for decreased viability of Atox1<sup>−/−</sup> cells in low glutathione. Therefore, we tested whether copper overload or copper chelation would, respectively, exacerbate or diminish sensitivity of Atox1<sup>−/−</sup> cells to a decrease in glutathione. Unexpectedly, both treatments further sensitized cells to glutathione depletion (Fig. 5B; EC<sub>50</sub> values are summarized in Table 2), suggesting that normal copper levels were important for cell survival when glutathione was low. It was also apparent that the loss of Atox1 markedly increased sensitivity to glutathione depletion under all conditions. To better understand the role of Atox1, we investigated whether the down-regulation of copper transporter ATP7B, which functions downstream of Atox1, would resemble the effects of Atox1 inactivation. We developed the ATP7B-deficient HepG2 cells by using shRNA and lentivirus vector. Efficacy of the lentiviral shRNA delivery and RNAi was confirmed by lamin A knockdown (supplemental Fig. 11). Out of three different shRNAs (KD1, KD4, and KD7) the best result was obtained for KD7 with an ~81% decrease in the ATP7B levels (supplemental Fig. 11B). Similar to Atox1<sup>−/−</sup> cells, the HepG2 KD7 cells were more sensitive to BSO when compared with the parent cells (Fig. 5B). Either copper elevation or copper depletion further increased sensitivity of cells to low glutathione. Thus, the disruption of normal copper homeostasis makes cells vulnerable to glutathione depletion. We conclude that the copper secretion pathway and glutathione work together to maintain normal cell proliferation.

**DISCUSSION**

Our studies revealed an important association between the Atox1-mediated copper trafficking to the secretory pathway.
and glutathione homeostasis. The redox state of Atox1 is maintained by equilibration with glutathione and can be influenced by changes in the cellular redox state. In turn, the copper secretion pathway has emerged as an essential factor for cell viability in low glutathione. We conclude that copper export machinery and glutathione metabolism have developed a functional symbiosis to maintain normal cell growth and proliferation. In the proposed model of the symbiotic partnership between copper export machinery and glutathione-based redox maintenance (Fig. 6), the combined effect of the two metabolic pathways determines cell viability where the simultaneous defects cause cell death.

**The Redox Properties of the CXXC Motifs in Copper Export Machinery**—Similarly to the CXXC motifs of thioredoxin or glutaredoxin, the CXXC motif of Atox1 undergoes reversible oxidation (Figs. 1 and 2) with the formation of an intramolecular disulfide. In a CXXC motif-based oxidoreductase, the redox activity and substrate specificity are primarily determined by the dipeptide sequence in the X1X2 position as well as surrounding residues interacting with the redox active Cys. These amino acid residues are invariant (i.e., X1X2 sequence Gly-Pro in Trx1 and Pro-Tyr in Grx1) and form highly conserved clusters of residues in vicinity to the CXXC motif. This is also the case with Atox1 and N-ATP7B (supplemental Figs. 12–14), which have X1-X2 sequence Gly and Ser in X1X2 position, respectively. The conserved cluster in Atox1 is formed by the 12CGGC15 motif and another canonical sequence 57KTGK60. The amino nitrogen of Lys-60 is positioned in the vicinity of the thiol group of Cys-15 (Fig. 1A) and modulates its pKa (34) and hence the copper dissociation constant (13). The pKc shift in Cys-15 (from 5.5...
to 7.0), as well as the presence of Gly in the X$_2$ position, may significantly affect the standard redox potential ($E_0$) of the Cys-12–Cys-15 pair in Atox1. Unlike Atox1, the metal-binding domains of N-ATP7B have Phe (instead of Lys) in the equivalent position. These features may explain why $E_0$ of Atox1 ($-229$ mV) is markedly different from N-ATP7B ($-178$ mV).

Considering that the rates of redox reaction largely depend on $E_0$ (27), it is likely that in cells, Atox1 may act a glutathione-dependent reductase, although specific substrate(s) for the other half-reaction, if any, remain to be identified. From this point of view, it is interesting that Atox1 was initially identified as an antioxidant factor compensating for the loss of superoxide dismutase 1 (SOD1) function in yeast, hence its name (35). Similarly, in mammalian neuronal cells, overexpression of Atox1 improved cellular defense against hydrogen peroxide (36).

Even when glutathione levels are low, the redox status of Atox1 is maintained (presumably with the help of Grx1), but it can be altered depending on the GSH/GSSG ratio. Given the pivotal role of Atox1 in copper excretion, the redox modulation of Atox1 is likely to affect the overall copper distribution and homeostasis in cells. Interestingly, reversible Cys oxidation has been implicated in the function of other copper chaperones. COX17, SCO1, and SCO2 in mitochondria couple an electron transfer to copper exchange (37, 38), whereas Cu/Zn-SOD maturation involves Cys oxidation by its copper chaperone CCS (39). This common theme shared by copper chaperones may at least partially explain why copper homeostasis is influenced by the cellular redox environment.

Symbiotic Link between Copper Export Machinery and Glutathione-based Redox Maintenance—We have found that Atox1 contributes to the survival of cells when GSH levels are low (Fig. 5). Cell proliferation in low glutathione requires both Atox1 and ATP7B, indicating that copper trafficking through the secretion pathway plays a crucial role in cell proliferation under these conditions. An analogous link between copper and glutathione was also observed in bacteria (40), suggesting an analogous link between copper and lipid metabolism. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 98, 6848–6852.

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