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**Adaptation of model proteins from cold to hot environments
involves continuous and small adjustments of average parameters
related to amino acid composition**

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Abstract

The growth temperature adaptation of six model proteins has been studied in forty-two microorganisms belonging to eubacterial and archaeal kingdoms, covering optimum growth temperatures from 7 to 103°C. The selected proteins include three elongation factors involved in translation, the enzymes glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase and superoxide dismutase, the cell division protein FtsZ. The common strategy of protein adaptation from cold to hot environments implies the occurrence of small changes in the amino acid composition, without altering the overall structure of the macromolecule. These continuous adjustments were investigated through parameters related to the amino acid composition of each protein. The average value per residue of mass, volume and accessible surface area allowed an evaluation of the usage of bulky residues, whereas the average hydrophobicity reflected that of hydrophobic residues. The specific proportion of bulky and hydrophobic residues in each protein almost linearly increased with the temperature of the host microorganism. This finding agrees with the structural and functional properties exhibited by proteins in differently adapted sources, thus explaining the great compactness or the high flexibility exhibited by (hyper)thermophilic or psychrophilic proteins, respectively. Indeed, heat-adapted proteins incline toward the usage of heavier-size and more hydrophobic residues with respect to mesophiles, whereas the cold-adapted macromolecules show the opposite behavior with a certain preference for smaller-size and less hydrophobic residues. An investigation on the different increase of bulky residues along with the growth temperature observed in the six model proteins suggests the relevance of the possible different role and/or structure organization played by protein domains. The significance of the linear correlations between growth temperature and parameters related to the

amino acid composition improved when the analysis was collectively carried out on all model proteins.

Key words: Psychrophiles; Hyperthermophiles; Protein temperature adaptation;
Average hydrophobicity; Average amino acid size

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1. Introduction

Biodiversity in the Earth's biosphere includes a large proportion of organisms called extremophiles, having colonized extreme environments (Nisbet and Sleep, 2001; Cockell and Stokes, 2004). Cold and hot temperatures are hostile habitats for life, and organisms having an optimum growth under the most extreme temperature conditions are named psychrophiles and hyperthermophiles, respectively. Properties of these microorganisms belonging to eubacterial or archaeal kingdom have been extensively reviewed (Stetter, 1996; Stetter, 1998; Stetter, 1999; Hicks and Kelly, 1999; Huber et al., 2000; Deming, 2002; D'Amico et al., 2006; Cavicchioli, 2006). Indeed, it is known that some psychrophiles sustain a residual biological activity even at -20°C (Deming, 2002), whereas some hyperthermophiles are able to grow up to 113°C (Blöchl et al., 1997). The increasing discovery and characterization of this type of extremophiles, and the possibility to compare the properties of their biomolecules to that of mesophiles growing at 'usual' temperatures, offer the opportunity to study the molecular basis of life adaptation under a wide range of growth temperature.

The main targets in the environmental adaptation of extremophilic sources are proteins, the most abundant flexible macromolecules involved in the control of the whole metabolic pathways and in the structural organization of the microorganism. Several reviews summarized the properties of proteins isolated from thermophiles (Jaenicke and Zavodsky, 1990; Jaenicke, 1991; Adams, 1993; Vieille et al., 1996; Jaenicke and Böhm, 1998; Hicks et al., 1999; Niehaus et al., 1999; Vieille and Zeikus, 2001; Sterner and Liebl, 2001) and psychrophiles (Feller et al., 1997; Feller and Gerday, 1997; Gerday et al., 1997; Sanders et al., 2003; Georlette et al., 2004; Siddiqui and Cavicchioli, 2006). Comprehensive studies on crystal structures of thermophilic proteins did not reveal unusual conformations specific to the source type (Petukhov et

al., 1997; Facchiano et al., 1998; Karshikoff and Ladenstein, 1998; Szilagyi and Zavodszky, 2000; Kumar et al., 2000). A similar behavior is observed with psychrophilic proteins (Russell et al., 1998; Maes et al., 1999; Violot et al., 2005), even though the number of crystallographic structures available in this case is much lower. Therefore, it seems that in these extremophilic sources the overall structure of a protein is very similar to that possessed by the mesophilic counterpart, thus reflecting the adaptation of the specific function of the macromolecule, rather than a tolerance to the living environment in the host source. However, hyperthermophilic proteins are endowed with an extraordinary heat stability, as a consequence of a more tight compactness of the protein structure (Vieille and Zeikus, 2001). Vice versa, the psychrophilic counterparts possess an increased protein flexibility, which in most cases leads to a decreased stability compared to mesophilic proteins (D'Amico et al., 2006); in some psychrophilic enzymes the protein flexibility is enhanced in localized regions of the protein structure (Fields and Somero, 1998). Temperature adaptation of proteins is mostly relevant for the catalytic properties of the enzymes, as they must adapt the rate of the catalyzed reaction to the growth temperature of the organism. Indeed, thermophilicity studies revealed that psychrophiles synthesize cold-adapted enzymes endowed with a specific activity at low temperatures, significantly higher compared to that possessed by the mesophilic counterparts (Georlette et al., 2004; Siddiqui and Cavicchioli, 2006). On the other hand, the specific activity of hyperthermophilic enzymes reaches its optimum only at high temperatures, close to the optimum growth conditions of the source (Vieille et al., 1996; Vieille and Zeikus, 2001). Therefore, temperature adaptation of proteins reflects a multifactorial equilibrium between counteracting forces affecting flexibility, stability and activity of proteins. In particular, the similarity of the protein structure and the occurrence of a common catalytic

mechanism in proteins isolated from sources adapted from cold to hot environments indicate that the challenge to the extreme environments has been likely accomplished by a fine modulation of the amino acid composition of proteins aimed at optimizing the number of specific weak interactions inside the protein core. Indeed, the amino acid composition has been found to play an important role in determining the protein structural class (Chou and Zhang, 1994; Chou and Zhang, 1995; Chou, 1995; Chou and Maggiora, 1998), in identifying protein subcellular localization, and many other attributes (Chou and Elrod, 1999; Chou, 2002). Evidence has been presented that the amino acid composition in the proteomes of *Escherichia coli* and *Bacillus subtilis* reflects a natural selection to enhance metabolic efficiency in these microorganisms (Akashi and Gojobori, 2002). Furthermore, the analysis on several *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* genes showed a correlation between gene expression level and amino acid composition (Raghava and Han, 2005).

In order to understand the structural requirements for protein adaptation to heat or cold, the amino acid composition of proteins isolated from (hyper)thermophiles (Jaenicke, 1991; Jaenicke and Böhm, 1998; Vieille and Zeikus, 2001; Sterner and Liebl, 2001) or psychrophiles (Feller et al., 1997; Feller and Gerday, 1997; Gerday et al. 1997; Sanders et al., 2003) has long been compared with that of mesophiles. Some of these investigations have been focused on the whole genome of extremophilic microorganisms, thus considering the total protein content of the selected microbial sources. The frequencies of each amino acid residue have been derived from an average amino acid composition, in order to discover a possible bias in the amino acid usage of the considered extremophile. However, each microbial source and each protein seems to adopt only a few of possible, and even counteracting, structural trends (D'Amico et al., 2006; Sterner and Liebl, 2001). For instance, the amino acid bias discovered in some

psychrophiles (Sanders et al., 2003) is not applicable to similarly adapted, but evolutionary distant sources (Rabus et al., 2004; Medigue et al., 2005). The ambiguous results are probably related to the different content and/or representation of proteins analyzed for each microbial source. Furthermore, the genetic drift or the natural selection between different microorganisms could hide critical amino acid changes for thermal adaptation (Siddiqui and Cavicchioli, 2006). Some specific key contributions for thermal adaptation of proteins have been proposed through the comparison of the structural and functional properties of proteins in differently adapted sources or through the effect of a mutagenic analysis of a target protein on its thermal stability. These studies led to the discovery of a number of different basic mechanisms involved in thermal stability of thermophilic proteins, as previously reviewed (Vieille and Zeikus, 2001; Sterner and Liebl, 2001). For instance, surface loop depletion, an increased occurrence of hydrophobic residues with branched side chains, and an enhanced proportion of charged residues are apparently the most consistent structural factors contributing to thermostability in thermophilic proteins (Kumar and Nussinov, 2001). Furthermore, on the basis of thermodynamic differences among homologous thermophilic and mesophilic proteins, the higher stability possessed by thermophilic proteins is probably due to specific interactions, particularly electrostatic, present into the protein (Kumar et al, 2001). Finally, the unusual thermal stability of an ATP-binding cassette ATPase of mesophilic origin could be predicted on the basis of its content of polar amino acid residues (Sarin et al., 2003). However, it is not rare that the most important factor for the thermostability of a given protein is not applicable to explain the heat stability of a different one.

This article addresses the question of a possible continuum in the strategy of protein adaptation to the different growth temperatures of the host source. For this

reason the amino acid composition of model proteins has been analyzed in several microbial sources displaying an optimum growth temperature ranging from 7 to 103°C. In particular, we have analyzed the temperature dependence of average parameters related to the amino acid composition. The data obtained suggest that the average values per residue of mass, hydrophobicity, volume and accessible surface, linearly increase with the optimum growth temperature of the microbial source. This finding implies a small variation of the amino acid composition, leading to a moderate bias in the amino acid usage, depending on the growth temperature of the source. Indeed, in (hyper)thermophilic model proteins the content of heavier-size and more hydrophobic residues is increased with respect to mesophilic counterparts; vice versa, smaller-size and less hydrophobic residues are preferred in psychrophilic proteins.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Microbial sources

The forty-two microorganisms considered in this study have been chosen for their different adaptation to growth temperature (Table 1). They belong to the living domains of eubacteria (25 sources) and archaea (17 sources), whose complete sequenced genome is available on line, except for *Bacillus stearothermophilus* and *Pyrococcus woesei*. The selected microbial sources, whose respective optimum growth temperatures are indicated in Table 1, include psychrophiles, mesophiles, thermophiles and hyperthermophiles, thus allowing the analysis over a wide range of temperature adaptation, from 7°C of *Desulfotalea psychrophila* to 103°C of *Pyrococcus abyssi*.

2.2. Selection of model proteins

Six ubiquitous proteins have been selected as models for the analysis of the adaptation of their amino acid composition to the different growth temperatures. The list includes: three elongation factors involved in protein synthesis translation, namely the elongation factor Tu/1 \rightarrow (EF-Tu in eubacteria or EF-1 \rightarrow in archaea), the elongation factor G/2 (EF-G in eubacteria or EF-2 in archaea), and the elongation factor Ts/1 \rightarrow (EF-Ts in eubacteria or EF-1 \rightarrow in archaea); the enzymes glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) and superoxide dismutase (SOD); the cell division protein FtsZ (FtsZ). This choice allows covering of various aspects of the functional role played by proteins in the adaptation of metabolic pathways and structural organization of the microorganism to the growth temperature. Indeed, EF-Tu/1 \rightarrow and EF-G/2 are monomeric multifunctional and flexible proteins, interacting with small and large molecules in the fulfillment of their biological functions (Klink, 1985). They also display a GTPase activity, required to induce conformational changes of the protein structure, essential for their specific functions (Parmeggiani and Sander, 1981). The other translation factor EF-Ts/1 \rightarrow is more rigid and it is organized either as a monomer or as a homodimer (Raimo et al., 1996). It acts as an exchange factor of the guanine nucleotide bound to EF-Tu/1 \rightarrow upon its binding to the specific target (Parmeggiani and Sander, 1981). GAPDH is a NAD-dependent enzyme organized as a homotetramer, whose activity is mainly involved in the glycolytic pathway (Sirover, 1999). SOD is a key enzyme in the cellular defense against oxidative stress conditions. It is organized either as a homodimer or as a homotetramer, and acts as a scavenger of the toxic superoxide anions formed during oxidative metabolism (Miller, 2004). FtsZ, a key component of the prokaryotic cytoskeleton homologous to eukaryotic tubulins, is organized as a homodimer and plays a central role in cell division. It has a GTPase

activity, required for its assemblage into the Z ring on the inner face of the cytoplasmic membrane, marking the future cell division site (Margolin, 2005).

2.3. Parameters related to the amino acid composition in proteins and their structural domains

The amino acid sequence of the selected proteins from each microbial source was downloaded on line (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov or www.expasy.ch). The list of 255 amino acid sequences analyzed (see Supplementary Material, Tables S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, S6) includes redundant isoforms of the model proteins in some sources. On the other hand, a few microorganisms miss one or two of the selected model proteins. The initial methionine was always included, regardless of its presence in the mature protein. The amino acid composition of the downloaded proteins has been analyzed to obtain average structural parameters. In particular, the mean values per residue of amino acid mass, hydrophobicity, volume and accessible surface have been calculated according to the following equations:

$$\text{Average mass} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{i=20} (\text{mass}_{\text{aa}_i} \cdot n_{\text{aa}_i}) + 18.015}{N}$$

$$\text{Average hydrophobicity} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{i=20} (\text{hydrophobicity}_{\text{aa}_i} \cdot n_{\text{aa}_i})}{N}$$

$$\text{Average volume} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{i=20} (\text{volume}_{\text{aa}_i} \cdot n_{\text{aa}_i})}{N}$$

$$\text{Average accessible surface area} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{i=20} (\text{surface area}_{\text{aa}_i} \cdot n_{\text{aa}_i})}{N}$$

where mass_{aai} , $\text{hydrophobicity}_{\text{aai}}$, $\text{volume}_{\text{aai}}$, and $\text{surface area}_{\text{aai}}$ are the values of these parameters referred to each amino acid residue (Table 2), n_{aai} is the content of each residue in the protein, and N the total number of residues in the polypeptide chain. Finally, in the first equation 18.015 represents the mass of a water molecule.

EF-Tu/1→ and SOD are organized in three and two structural domains, respectively. A multiple alignment of the analyzed amino acid sequences of these proteins was obtained with CLUSTALW program available on-line (www.ebi.ac.uk/clustalw), and used to identify in each primary structure the respective domains. The crystal structures of EF-1→ (Vitagliano et al., 2001) and SOD (Ursby et al., 1999) from the hyperthermophilic archaeon *Sulfolobus solfataricus* were used as models for the definition of domains. In particular, peptides $M_1 \rightarrow L_{224}$, $P_{225} \rightarrow G_{314}$, and $H_{315} \rightarrow K_{435}$ have been considered as constituting the domains G, M, and C of EF-1→ respectively. Concerning SOD, peptides $M_1 \rightarrow G_{98}$, and $G_{99} \rightarrow K_{211}$ represent the N- and C-domain, respectively. The identified domains were considered as small single proteins and analyzed for their mean values per residue of amino acid mass, hydrophobicity, volume and accessible surface, using the equations previously indicated.

2.4. Significance level of the temperature dependence of parameters related to the amino acid composition of proteins

For each model protein the average values per residue of mass, hydrophobicity, volume and accessible surface area were plotted versus the optimum growth temperature of the microbial source in independent analyses corresponding to each selected model protein. The dependence of the average parameter on the growth temperature was evaluated as a linear curve fit obtained with the least squares method

and the significance of the correlation was estimated from the correlation coefficient r . In a perfect linear correlation, r^2 approaches the value of 1.000, whereas an r^2 approaching to zero indicates the lack of any correlation in the linear regression. The significance test included the calculation of the t -parameter according to the following equation:

$$t = \frac{r\sqrt{n-2}}{\sqrt{1-r^2}}$$

where n represents the number of pairs of scores in a two two-tailed test; therefore $n - 2$ indicates the degrees of freedom. The significance level of the linear correlation was estimated by p ; for example, a p value < 0.001 indicates that a chance occurrence in the correlation is lower than 1 out of 1000.

3. Results

3.1. Correlation between growth temperature and average parameters related to the amino acid composition in six model proteins from different host microorganisms

Four average parameters related to the amino acid composition of six model proteins were considered to evaluate their dependences on the growth temperature of forty-two different micro-organisms. In particular, we have chosen the average mass, volume and accessible surface area per residue, because altogether they allow an evaluation of the usage of bulky residues in the amino acid composition. Another parameter considered was the average hydrophobicity, as it reflects the content of hydrophobic residues in the protein.

3.1.1. Average mass per residue

Independent plots related to the different model proteins show that the average mass per residue obtained for each protein slightly increases with the optimum growth temperature of the host micro-organism (Fig. 1). In all plots the scattered data apparently fit to a linear regression; equations and corresponding correlation parameters of these linear fits are reported in Table 3. The analysis of the significance test indicates that all linear regressions are significant, because t values range between 5.42 and 8.44, and p values are all lower than 0.001. In the equations reported in Table 3 the slope b represents how the average amino acid mass of the model protein increases per degree centigrade. These figures are different among the six model proteins; for instance, EF-Tu/1→ and EF-G/2 possess a small b value whereas the other proteins have a significantly greater b . Furthermore, Table 3 reports the ‘ideal’ average mass per residue at 37 °C, as calculated from the corresponding linear equation of each protein. The data range from 105.6 Da of FtsZ to 112.2 Da of SOD, a finding suggesting that the preferential usage of heavier- or smaller-size residues is likely related to the specific functions played by each protein. Indeed, the interval comprising the average mass values is slightly different in the six model proteins, the highest range being related to SOD (Fig. 1D), and the lowest one to FtsZ (Fig. 1F). All these features indicate that each protein has a specific proportion of smaller and heavier residues, even though this proportion apparently changes with the temperature of the host microorganism. In particular, protein adaptation to growth temperature of the microbial source likely implies the increase of average mass of amino acid residue with temperature.

The different b slopes found in the model proteins probably reflect the different contribution to temperature adaptation of specific regions of the protein. For this reason, the analysis of the average mass per residue has been also performed on the structural domains of two model proteins, namely EF-Tu/EF-1→ and SOD, displaying a low and

high b value, respectively. The plots corresponding to the EF-Tu/EF-1→domains (Fig. 2) show that the effect of temperature on the average mass per residue is different among its three domains. Indeed, the average amino acid mass consistently increases with temperature only for the catalytic G-domain (Fig. 2A), because the effect of temperature on this parameter becomes almost imperceptible for the M-domain (Fig. 2B) or the C-domain (Fig. 2C). The small decrease observed for M-domain (Fig. 2B), as well as the small increase detected for the C-domain, is very modest and could reflect randomly-scattered variations of the parameter in the overall interval of temperature. This hypothesis seems supported by the analysis of equations and corresponding correlation coefficients, which suggest an undetectable variation of the average mass along with temperature and a lower significance test for M- and C-domains (Table 3). Vice versa, the data referred to the G-domain are more significant and indicate that the temperature-dependent increase of the average amino acid mass, evaluated through the b slope, is almost double with respect to the entire EF-Tu/EF-1→. It is interesting that this b value becomes more similar to values determined for proteins with a high b slope (Table 3). Therefore, the low b slope found for the entire EF-Tu/EF-1→ is explained with the fact that only the catalytic G-domain undergoes a significant increase of this parameter with temperature, whereas the M- or C-domain is apparently unaffected by temperature. The same analysis of the effect of temperature on the average amino acid mass in the two SOD domains is reported in Fig. 3. Both the N-domain (Fig. 3A) and the C-domain (Fig. 3B) undergo a consistent increase of the average mass of their residues along with temperature. The data appear significant and the calculated b slopes are similar to the corresponding value calculated for the entire SOD (Table 3). These findings suggest that SOD domains undergo a similar increase of the average mass of

their residues with temperature, a finding probably related to a similar involvement of both domains in the catalytic activity of the enzyme.

3.1.2. Average hydrophobicity per residue

Independent plots reporting the effect of temperature on the mean value per residue of hydrophobicity in the six model proteins are shown in Fig. 4. Also in this case the average hydrophobicity apparently increases with the optimum growth temperature of the host microbial source, and the figures related to the linear regression of the data are presented in Table 4. The significance level is consistently higher compared to the previous analysis on the average mass, because the t values range between 6.03 and 11.26. No great differences emerge within b slopes of the equations, thus indicating a similar increase of the average hydrophobicity per degree centigrade in all model proteins considered. Vice versa, the 'ideal' hydrophobicity of amino acid residue at 37 °C ranges from 4.24 kJ•mol⁻¹ of FtsZ to 4.83 kJ•mol⁻¹ of SOD. Indeed, the usage of hydrophobic residues slightly varies with temperature among different proteins, even though SOD (Fig. 4D) and FtsZ (Fig. 4F) contain the highest and lowest proportion of these residues, respectively. These features indicate that each model protein has its own proportion of hydrophobic residues, even though this parameter increases with the temperature to adapt the protein at the growing conditions of the host micro-organism.

The analysis of the temperature dependence of average hydrophobicity per residue has been performed also on the domains of EF-Tu/EF-1→ and SOD. As shown in Table 4, the hydrophobicities of the three domains of EF-Tu/EF-1→ increase with temperature, with slopes almost coincident with that of the intact protein; a similar behavior occurs also for the two SOD domains.

3.1.3. Average volume and average accessible surface area per residue

The other two parameters of the amino acid composition of model proteins, i.e. average volume and average accessible surface area per residue, are related to the size and steric occupancy of the amino acids. The independent plots showing the effect of growth temperature on the average values per residue of volume and average accessible surface area per residue are reported in Fig. 5 and Fig. 6, respectively; corresponding equations and correlation parameters of the linear fits are presented in Tables 5 and 6, respectively. The significance level of the linear regressions is even improved for all model proteins with respect to the analysis of the average mass per residue. The temperature-dependent behavior of average volume and accessible surface area is similar to that obtained from the average mass per residue. Indeed, these parameters related to the amino acid composition slightly increase with the optimum growth temperature of the host micro-organism. As in the case of the temperature-dependence of the average mass per residue, EF-Tu/1→ and EF-G/EF-2 display smaller b values, whereas the other model proteins adopt a greater b . Furthermore, the highest values of average volume and accessible surface area are related to SOD (Figs. 5D and 6D), and the lowest ones to FtsZ (Figs. 5F and 6F). Therefore, the analysis on the mean values of volume and accessible surface area per residue confirm that the proportion of bulky residues, displaying higher volumes and accessible surface areas, varies among different model proteins. Nevertheless, protein adaptation to the increasing growth temperature implies the usage of bulkier amino acid residues.

3.2. Effect of the growth temperature on the parameters deduced from the average amino acid composition collectively obtained from the six model proteins

The previous results indicate that the six model proteins examined in this study have specific amino acid compositions, with proportions of bulky and hydrophobic residues probably covering the range of different usage of these residues in protein formation. For this reason, the analysis of the average amino acid composition obtained for each microbial source from the collective content of each residue in the six model proteins could be considered as representative of the amino acid usage in that source. This average amino acid composition was used to evaluate the effect of growth temperature on the parameters chosen in this study. The four plots related to the mean values of mass, hydrophobicity, volume and accessible surface area per residue are shown in Fig. 7, and the significance of the linear regressions are presented in Table 7. All the selected parameters linearly increase with the growth temperature of the microorganism. Moreover, the significance parameters consistently improve with respect to the values obtained in the analysis on single proteins. All these features confirm that the increased usage of bulky and hydrophobic residues seems a common adaptive response of protein composition in microbial sources upon the enhancement of the growth temperature.

4. Discussion

Protein adaptation to the growth temperature of host micro-organisms should imply the occurrence of small adjustments in the amino acid composition of the macromolecule, that equilibrate the required number of weak interactions, without altering the overall structure of the protein. The bias towards the usage of selected amino acid residues found in some extremophiles reflects the genetic drift of the organism rather than an adaptation to extreme environments. For this reason, the average parameters related to the amino acid composition chosen in this study appear

appropriate tools for a better understanding of protein adaptation to the growth temperature, as they mediate the differences between taxonomically distant organisms. Moreover, the analysis on six ubiquitous model proteins from several microorganisms, adapted to a wide range of growth temperature, allows the discovery of common features in the strategy of protein adaptation. The small but continuous enhancement of the average values per residue of amino acid mass, hydrophobicity, volume and accessible surface area, in a fairly good correlation with the increasing growth temperature, is in agreement with the structural and functional properties of these macromolecules. Indeed, each protein seems to adapt its amino acid composition to a determined ‘container’, with shape and steric hindrance aimed at a specific role played in the cell from cold- to hot-adapted sources. Among the chosen parameters, average mass, volume and accessible surface area per residue are all correlated to the proportion of bulky residues. Indeed, the results obtained from these tools are discussed altogether, as they are very similar. On the other hand, the average hydrophobicity per residue reflects the proportion of hydrophobic residues in the protein, and for this reason it is discussed separately.

The increased average mass, volume and accessible surface area per residue found in (hyper)thermophilic proteins reflects the high compactness of these macromolecules with respect to mesophilic ones, because the ‘container’ is filled with an increased number of bulky residues that reduce the number of cavities inside the protein core, and consequently its flexibility. These features enhance the thermostability of the macromolecule, but slow down its catalytic rate at ‘normal’ temperatures; indeed, the best catalytic efficiency of thermozymes is usually reached at the optimum growth temperature of the host micro-organism. Furthermore, (hyper)thermophilic proteins seem to have a greater mass in their hydrodynamic volume compared to mesophilic

ones, as demonstrated by their behavior on gel-filtration. In fact, when calibration of a gel-filtration column is made with mesophilic proteins, the hydrodynamic volume of a hyperthermophilic protein is lower than that expected on the basis of its known molecular size. Indeed, under these experimental conditions, the homotetrameric SOD from the hyperthermophile *Sulfolobus solfataricus* elutes as a protein with M_r 65,400, instead of 96,400, as expected from its amino acid sequence (Ursby et al., 1999). Vice versa, when calibration is made with hyperthermophilic protein standards, the hydrodynamic volume of this enzyme corresponds to M_r 89,000, much closer to that expected. This behaviour has been confirmed on other hyperthermophilic proteins (Raimo et al., 1996; Ruocco et al, 2004). Therefore, the greater mass of a hyperthermophilic protein is likely “contained” in a hydrodynamic volume similar to the mesophilic counterpart. For this reason we suggest that, based on gel-filtration experiments, the “density” of a hyperthermophilic protein is greater compared to its mesophilic counterpart.

Concerning psychrophilic proteins, the average values of mass, volume and accessible surface area are reduced compared to mesophiles, even though the differences are less evident because of the lower gap between cold and ‘normal’ temperature. Nevertheless, the reduced proportion of bulky residues in the ‘container’ improves the flexibility of psychrophilic proteins, because of an increased number of cavities. This leads to a decreased thermostability, but improves the catalytic rate of the cold-adapted enzymes at ‘normal’ temperatures, with respect to mesophiles. Usually, psychrophilic enzymes possess a sufficiently high catalysis at their optimum growth temperatures, even though their thermophilicities improve far beyond in some cases (D’Amico et al., 2006). Moreover, psychrophilic proteins have a slightly lower “density” compared to mesophilic ones, as revealed through gel-filtration experiments.

Indeed, when a gel-filtration column is calibrated with mesophilic proteins, the homodimeric SOD from the psychrophile *Pseudoalteromonas haloplanktis* elutes as a protein with M_r 46,000, instead of 42,500, as expected from its amino acid sequence (Castellano et al., 2006). The faster elution on gel-filtration was not limited to SOD, as it was described also for another psychrophilic protein (Masullo et al., 2000).

Among the six ubiquitous proteins, some proteins display a low b slope, whereas others possess a higher b slope, in the equations representing the linear increase with temperature of average mass, volume and accessible surface area. The behavior of EF-Tu/1 \rightarrow possessing a low b slope, was explained with the fact that only domain G displays an increase of these parameters similar to those found in the other group. Domain G represents a relevant region for the catalytic properties of the molecule, as it contains the active site for GTP hydrolysis, whereas the other two domains have regulatory functions. Therefore, in this case the protein region involved in catalysis adopts the same increase of bulky residues of other proteins, to adapt its catalysis at the growth temperature of the host source. Other possible explanations could reside in the different domain organization; indeed, differently from domain G, domains M and C of EF-Tu/1 \rightarrow almost lack \rightarrow helices. Much more information is required to better address this point; however, it is noteworthy that the two domains of SOD, both involved in catalysis and rich in \rightarrow helices, display an almost similar increase in the proportion of bulky residues along with the growth temperature.

Concerning the average hydrophobicity per residue, (hyper)thermophilic and psychrophilic proteins show an opposite behavior. The first ones enhance the proportion of hydrophobic residues compared to mesophiles, and this finding agrees with the higher thermostability and thermophilicity displayed by thermozymes. In fact, more hydrophobic interactions likely take place in the protein core and this hinders the

flexibility of the macromolecule. On the other hand, in psychrophilic proteins the usage of hydrophobic residues is reduced compared to mesophiles, a finding that lowers the hydrophobic interactions and therefore improves the flexibility of the molecule. Among the six model proteins, no great differences were found in the enhancement of the average hydrophobicity along with the growth temperature, a finding that makes this parameter somehow different from those related to the usage of bulky residues. An interesting implication arising from the increased usage of hydrophobic residues with the growth temperature of the microbial source concerns the decreased strength of the hydrophobic interactions, occurring in a protein exposed at high temperatures. The higher average hydrophobicity in a (hyper)thermophilic model protein could be relevant to counteract the lower strength of hydrophobic interactions, taking place in the hot environment.

The correlation indexes obtained from the evaluation of temperature effect on the parameters related to the amino acid composition become more significant when the analysis is collectively carried out on the total amino acid composition derived from the six model proteins. The improvement of the significance of the linear correlation indicates that the average parameters appear appropriate tools to understand the effect of growth temperature on the amino acid composition in the whole interval of environmental adaptation.

The present study investigated how the classic amino acid composition of some selected proteins continuously adapted to the different growth temperatures of various host microorganisms. Therefore, the possible sequence-order adjustment of proteins during the heat/cold adapting process was lost. More insights could be derived from future studies, by incorporating the sequence-order adjustment information through the use of the so-called pseudo-amino acid composition (Chou, 2001; Chou, 2005). Indeed,

this information enhanced the success rates in predicting protein structural class (Shen et al, 2005; Shen et al, 2006), membrane type (Wang et al, 2004; Shen and Chou, 2005; Chou and Shen, 2007a), signal peptide (Chou and Shen, 2007b), and protein subcellular localization (Chou and Shen, 2007c; Chou and Shen, 2007d; Shen and Chen, 2007). Nevertheless, the results of the present investigation based on the classic amino acid composition could be helpful in protein engineering of enzymes with predefined properties of thermostability and catalytic efficiency.

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Figure legends

Fig. 1. Effect of growth temperature on the average mass per residue in different model proteins. The amino acid composition of each protein was used to calculate the average mass per residue as described in the Experimental Procedure. (A) EF-Tu/1→ (B) EF-G/2; (C) EF-Ts/1→ (D) SOD; (E) GAPDH; (F) FtsZ.

Fig. 2. Effect of growth temperature on the average mass per residue in the three domains of EF-Tu/1→. The amino acid composition of each domain was used to calculate the average mass per residue as described in the Experimental Procedure. (A) Domain G; (B) Domain M; (C), Domain C.

Fig. 3. Effect of growth temperature on the average mass per residue in the two domains of SOD. The amino acid composition of the two domains was used to calculate the average mass per residue as described in the Experimental Procedure. (A) Domain N; (B) Domain C.

Fig. 4. Effect of growth temperature on the average hydrophobicity per residue in different model proteins. The amino acid composition of each protein was used to calculate the average hydrophobicity per residue as described in the Experimental Procedure. (A) EF-Tu/1→ (B) EF-G/2; (C) EF-Ts/1→ (D) SOD; (E) GAPDH; (F) FtsZ.

Fig. 5. Effect of growth temperature on the average volume per residue in different model proteins. The amino acid composition of each protein was used to calculate the

average volume per residue as described in the Experimental Procedure. (A) EF-Tu/1→ (B) EF-G/2; (C) EF-Ts/1→ (D) SOD; (E) GAPDH; (F) FtsZ.

Fig. 6. Effect of growth temperature on the average accessible surface area per residue in different model proteins. The amino acid composition of each protein was used to calculate the average accessible surface area per residue as described in the Experimental Procedure. (A) EF-Tu/1→ (B) EF-G/2; (C) EF-Ts/1→ (D) SOD; (E) GAPDH; (F) FtsZ.

Fig. 7. Effect of growth temperature on parameters deduced from the average amino acid composition collectively obtained from six model proteins. The average amino acid composition of a group of six ubiquitous proteins including EF-Tu/1→, EF-G/2, EF-Ts/1→, SOD, GAPDH and FtsZ was used to calculate the following average parameters per residue as described in the Experimental Procedure. (A) Average mass; (B) average hydrophobicity; (C) average volume; (D) average accessible surface area.

Table 1

Microbial sources and their respective optimum growth temperatures

Microorganism	Domain	Optimum growth temperature ^a (°C)
<i>Desulfotalea psychrophila</i> strain LSV54	bacteria	7
<i>Colwellia psychrerythraea</i> strain 34H	bacteria	8
<i>Psychrobacter arcticus</i> strain 273-4	bacteria	8.75 ^b
<i>Polaribacter irgensii</i> strain 23-P	bacteria	10 ^c
<i>Psychromonas ingrahamii</i> 37	bacteria	10 ^d
<i>Pseudoalteromonas haloplanktis</i> TAC125	bacteria	15 ^e
<i>Photobacterium profundum</i> strain SS9	bacteria	15
<i>Leifsonia xyli</i> strain CTCB07	bacteria	22.5 ^b
<i>Methanococcoides burtonii</i> strain DSM 6242	archaea	23.4
<i>Azoarcus</i> sp. EbN1	bacteria	26
<i>Xylella fastidiosa</i> strain Temecula1	bacteria	27 ^b
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> 2192	bacteria	27.5 ^b
<i>Oceanobacillus iheyensis</i> strain HTE831	bacteria	30
<i>Lactobacillus acidophilus</i> strain NCFM	bacteria	30 ^b
<i>Escherichia coli</i> strain K12	bacteria	37
<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i> strain LT2	bacteria	37
<i>Streptococcus thermophilus</i> strain LMG 18311	bacteria	45
<i>Methylococcus capsulatus</i> strain Bath	bacteria	45
<i>Chlorobium tepidum</i> strain TLS	bacteria	48
<i>Moorella thermoacetica</i> strain ATCC 39073	bacteria	58
<i>Thermoplasma acidophilum</i> strain DSM 1728	archaea	59
<i>Symbiobacterium thermophilum</i> strain IAM 14863	bacteria	60
<i>Picrophilus torridus</i> strain DSM 9790	archaea	60
<i>Bacillus stearothermophilus</i>	bacteria	63 ^f
<i>Methanothermobacter thermautotrophicus</i> strain Delta H	archaea	67.5 ^b
<i>Thermus thermophilus</i> strain HB27	bacteria	68
<i>Sulfolobus acidocaldarius</i> strain DSM 639	archaea	72.5 ^b

<i>Thermoanaerobacter tengcongensis</i> strain MB4	bacteria	75
<i>Sulfolobus tokodaii</i> strain 7	archaea	80
<i>Thermotoga maritima</i> strain MSB8	bacteria	80
<i>Archaeoglobus fulgidus</i> strain DSM 4304	archaea	83
<i>Sulfolobus solfataricus</i> strain P2	archaea	85
<i>Thermophilum pendens</i> strain Hrk 5	archaea	88
<i>Staphylothermus marinus</i> strain F1	archaea	92
<i>Aeropyrum pernix</i> strain K1	archaea	92.5 ^b
<i>Aquifex aeolicus</i> strain VF5	bacteria	96
<i>Pyrococcus horikoshii</i> strain OT3	archaea	98
<i>Pyrococcus furiosus</i> strain DSM 3638	archaea	100
<i>Pyrobaculum aerophilum</i> strain IM2	archaea	100
<i>Hyperthermus butylicus</i> strain DSM 5456	archaea	100.5 ^b
<i>Pyrococcus woesei</i>	archaea	101.5 ^g
<i>Pyrococcus abyssi</i> strain GE5	archaea	103

^a Unless otherwise indicated, optimum growth temperatures were derived from the National Center for Biotechnology Information database (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov)

^b Mean calculated from the interval of optimum growth temperature indicated in www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov

^c Value according to Gosink et al., 1998.

^d Value according to Auman et al., 2006.

^e Value according to Corsaro et al., 2004.

^f Value according to Tomita et al., 2000.

^g Mean value calculated from an interval of optimum growth temperature Zillig et al., 1987.

Table 2.

Values of mass, hydrophobicity, volume, and accessible surface area of amino acid residues

Amino acid residue	Mass (Da)	Hydrophobicity ^a (kJ•mol ⁻¹)	Volume ^b (Å ³)	Accessible surface area ^c (Å ²)
Alanine	71.08	3.14	88.6	115
Arginine	156.20	3.14	173.4	225
Aspartic acid	115.09	0	111.1	150
Asparagine	114.11	0	117.7	160
Cysteine	103.14	4.19	108.5	135
Glutamic acid	129.12	0	138.4	190
Glutamine	128.14	0	143.9	180
Glycine	57.06	0	60.1	75
Histidine	137.15	0	153.2	195
Isoleucine	113.17	12.35	166.7	175
Leucine	113.17	10.05	166.7	170
Lysine	128.18	6.28	168.6	200
Methionine	131.21	5.44	162.9	185
Phenylalanine	147.18	11.10	189.9	210
Proline	97.12	10.89	122.7	145
Serine	87.08	0	89.0	115
Threonine	101.11	1.88	116.1	140
Tryptophan	186.21	12.56	227.8	255
Tyrosine	163.18	11.93	193.6	230
Valine	99.14	7.12	140.0	155

^a Values according to Tanford, 1962.

^b Values according to Zamyatnin, 1972.

^c Values according to Chothia, 1976.

Table 3

Significance level of the linear dependence on growth temperature of the average mass per residue

Protein, domain name	<i>n</i>	Linear curve fit ($y = a + b \cdot x$)					Ideal average mass at 37°C (Da)
		Intercept at 0°C (Da)	Slope β 10 ² (Da•°C ⁻¹)	Correlation index			
				<i>r</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	
EF-Tu/1β	44	108.84	2.328	0.629	8.44	< 0.001	109.70
EF-G/2	51	109.71	2.342	0.572	8.09	< 0.001	110.58
EF-Ts/1β	40	105.77	7.309	0.624	7.94	< 0.001	108.47
SOD	37	110.15	5.608	0.456	5.42	< 0.001	112.22
GAPDH	42	106.79	3.923	0.516	6.53	< 0.001	108.24
FtsZ	41	103.99	4.426	0.467	5.85	< 0.001	105.63
EF-Tu/1β, domain G	44	108.66	4.452	0.568	7.43	< 0.001	110.31
EF-Tu/1β, domain M	44	109.41	−1.351	0.107	2.24	< 0.05	108.91
EF-Tu/1β, domain C	44	109.08	1.216	0.173	2.96	< 0.01	109.53
SOD, domain N	37	111.03	4.859	0.265	3.55	< 0.001	112.83
SOD, domain C	37	109.62	6.244	0.400	4.83	< 0.001	111.93

n is the number of amino acid sequences.

In the equation $y = a + b \cdot x$, *y* is the average mass per amino acid residue, *a* the intercept at 0°C, *b* the slope of the equation, *x* the optimum growth temperature.

Table 4

Significance level of the linear dependence on growth temperature of the average hydrophobicity per residue

Protein, domain name	<i>n</i>	Linear curve fit ($y = a + b \cdot x$)					Ideal average hydrophobicity at 37°C (kJ•mol ⁻¹)
		Intercept at 0°C (kJ•mol ⁻¹)	Slope β 10 ³ (kJ•mol ⁻¹ •°C ⁻¹)	Correlation value			
				<i>r</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	
EF-Tu/1β	44	4.40	6.063	0.610	8.11	< 0.001	4.62
EF-G/2	51	4.37	6.356	0.724	11.34	< 0.001	4.61
EF-Ts/1β	40	4.14	7.668	0.543	6.72	< 0.001	4.42
SOD	37	4.60	6.087	0.510	6.04	< 0.001	4.83
GAPDH	42	4.34	6.118	0.699	9.64	< 0.001	4.57
FtsZ	41	3.94	8.224	0.721	10.04	< 0.001	4.24
EF-Tu/1β, domain G	44	4.38	5.755	0.626	8.38	< 0.001	4.59
EF-Tu/1β, domain M	44	4.20	6.049	0.411	5.41	< 0.001	4.42
EF-Tu/1β, domain C	44	4.63	6.263	0.457	5.95	< 0.001	4.86
SOD, domain N	37	4.54	5.451	0.240	3.32	< 0.01	4.74
SOD, domain C	37	4.65	6.605	0.454	5.39	< 0.001	4.89

n is the number of amino acid sequences.

In the equation $y = a + b \cdot x$, *y* is the average hydrophobicity per amino acid residue, *a* the intercept at 0°C, *b* the slope of the equation, *x* the optimum growth temperature.

Table 5

Significance level of the linear dependence on growth temperature of the average volume per residue

Protein name	<i>n</i>	Linear curve fit ($y = a + b \bullet x$)					Ideal average volume at 37°C (Å ³)
		Intercept at 0°C (Å ³)	Slope β 10 ² (Å ³ •°C ⁻¹)	Correlation value			
				<i>r</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	
EF-Tu/1β	44	131.3	5.010	0.746	11.11	< 0.001	133.2
EF-G/2	51	132.1	5.099	0.757	12.35	< 0.001	134.0
EF-Ts/1β	40	129.0	9.291	0.678	8.94	< 0.001	132.4
SOD	37	132.3	8.818	0.549	6.53	< 0.001	135.6
GAPDH	42	129.1	6.491	0.710	9.90	< 0.001	131.5
FtsZ	41	125.3	7.699	0.652	8.55	< 0.001	128.1

n is the number of amino acid sequences.

In the equation $y = a + b \cdot x$, *y* is the average volume per amino acid residue, *a* the intercept at 0°C, *b* the slope of the equation, *x* the optimum growth temperature.

Table 6

Significance level of the linear dependence on growth temperature of the average accessible surface area per residue

Protein name	<i>n</i>	Linear curve fit ($y = a + b \bullet x$)					Ideal average accessible surface area at 37°C (Å ²)
		Intercept at 0°C (Å ²)	slope β 10 ² (Å ² •°C ⁻¹)	Correlation value			
				<i>r</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>	
EF-Tu/1β	44	158.0	4.737	0.746	11.11	< 0.001	159.8
EF-G/2	51	159.2	4.719	0.714	11.06	< 0.001	160.9
EF-Ts/1β	40	155.8	9.873	0.589	7.38	< 0.001	159.5
SOD	37	159.1	9.383	0.543	6.45	< 0.001	162.6
GAPDH	42	154.8	7.327	0.667	8.95	< 0.001	157.5
FtsZ	41	151.2	7.582	0.575	7.26	< 0.001	154.0

n is the number of amino acid sequences.

In the equation $y = a + b \cdot x$, *y* is the average accessible surface area per amino acid residue, *a* the intercept at 0°C, *b* the slope of the equation, *x* the optimum growth temperature.

Table 7

Significance level of the linear dependence on growth temperature of average parameters related to the collective amino acid composition of six model proteins in forty-two microorganisms

Average parameter	Linear curve fit ($y = a + b \bullet x$)			Ideal average parameter at 37°C		
	Intercept at 0°C	Slope β 10 ²	Correlation value			
			<i>R</i>		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Mass	108.09 Da	3.331 Da•°C ⁻¹	0.742	10.73	< 0.001	109.32 Da
Hydrophobicity	4.28 kJ•mol ⁻¹	0.7076 kJ•mol ⁻¹ •°C ⁻¹	0.770	11.57	< 0.001	4.54 kJ•mol ⁻¹
Volume	130.3 Å ³	6.209 Å ³ •°C ⁻¹	0.815	13.27	< 0.001	132.6 Å ³
Accessible surface area	157.1 Å ²	6.006 Å ² •°C ⁻¹	0.816	13.32	< 0.001	159.3 Å ²

In the equation $y = a + b \cdot x$, y is the average parameter per residue, a the intercept at 0°C, b the slope of the equation, x the optimum growth temperature.

Fig. 1

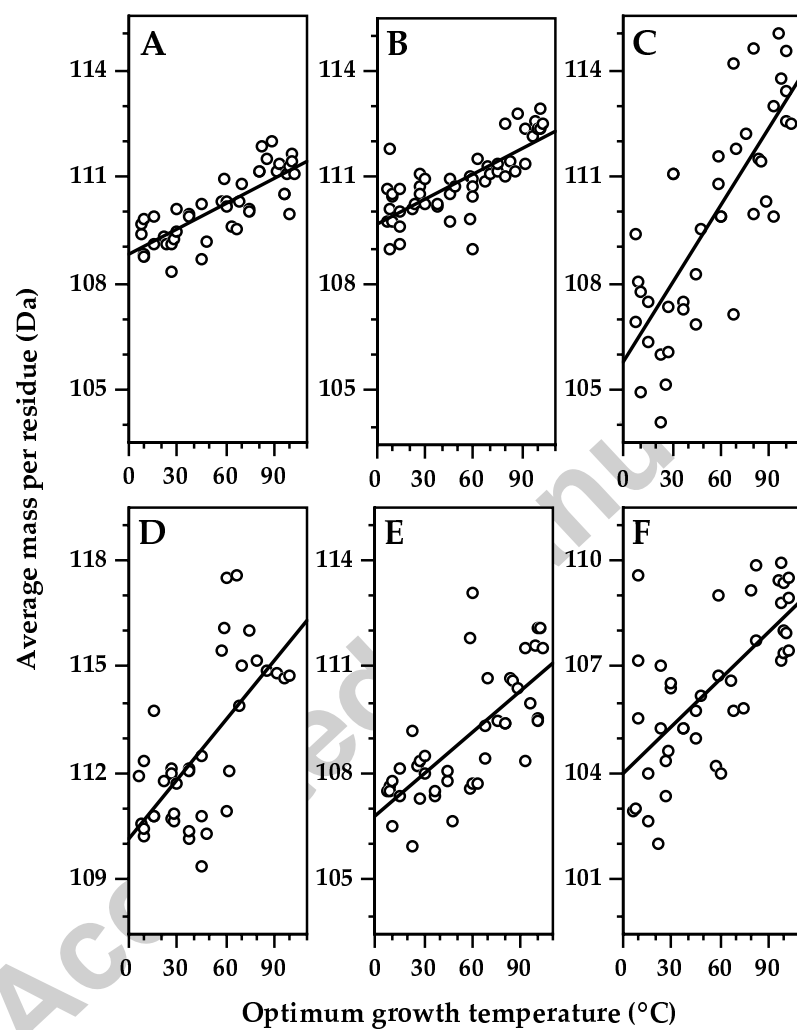


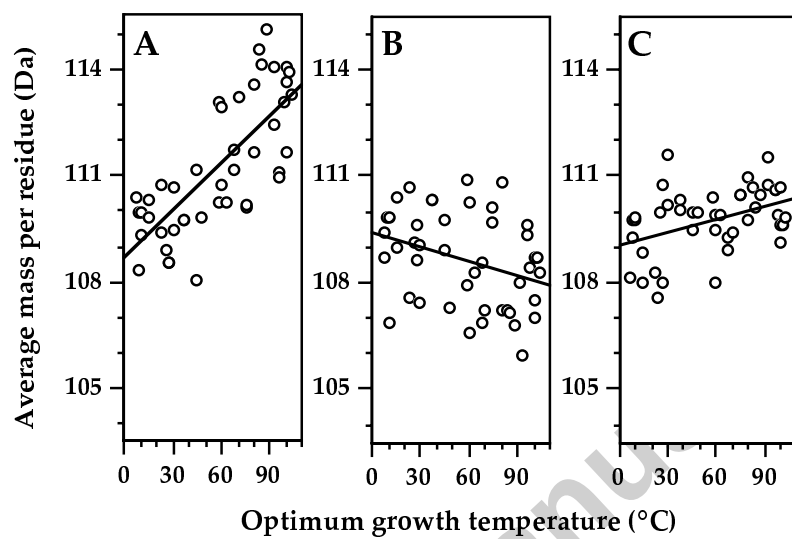
Fig. 2

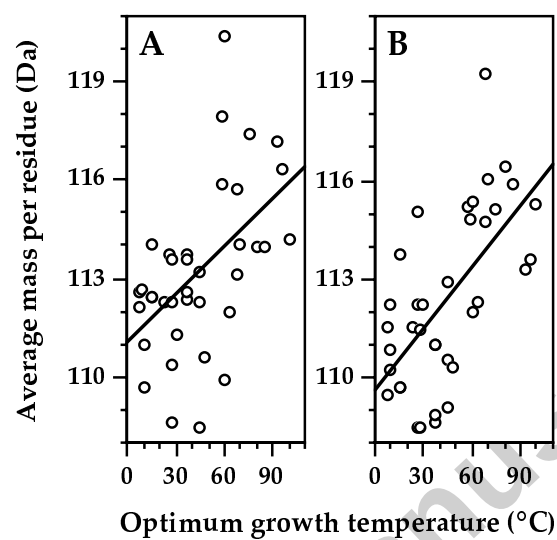
Fig. 3

Fig. 4

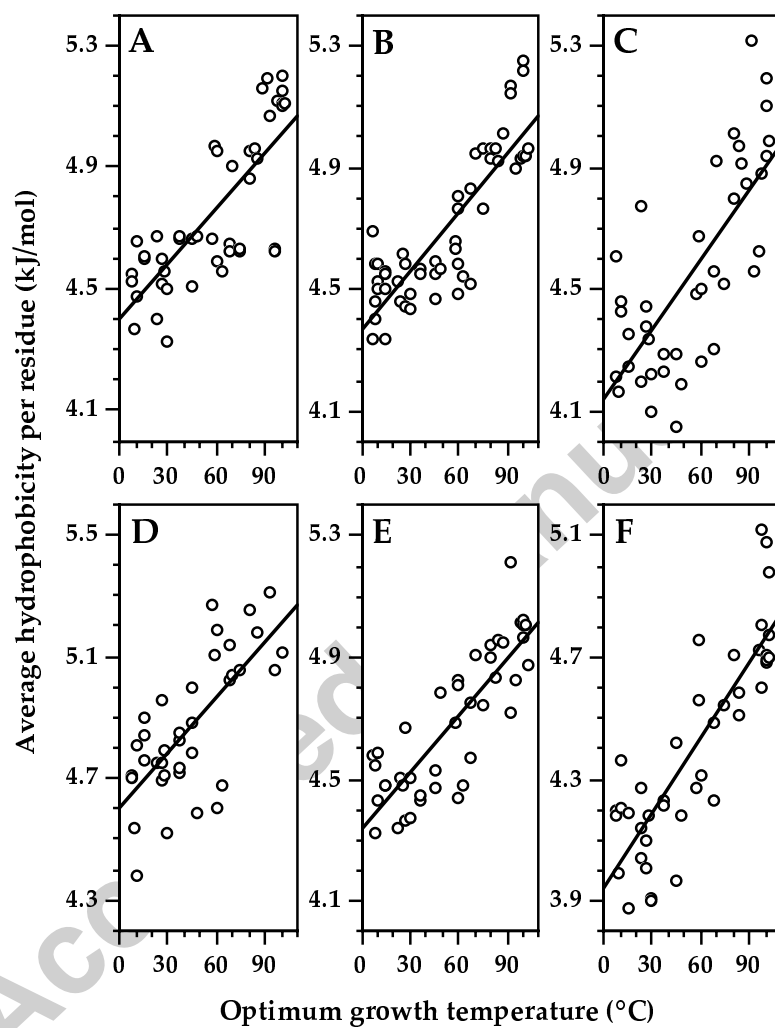


Fig. 5

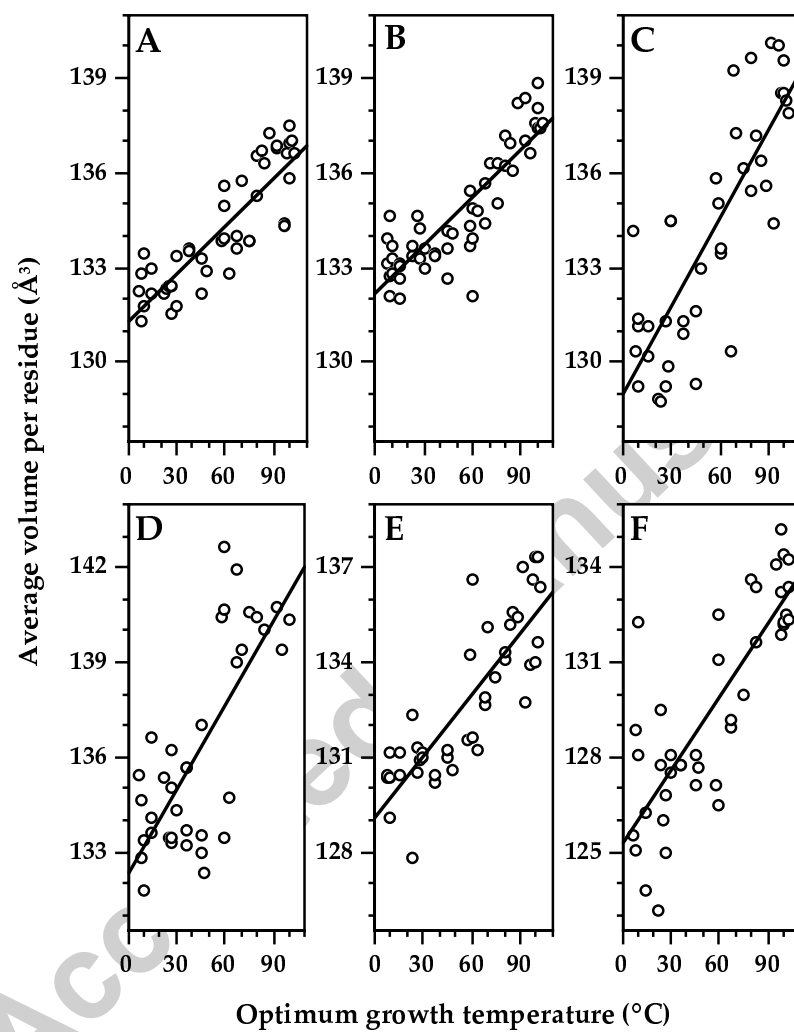


Fig. 6

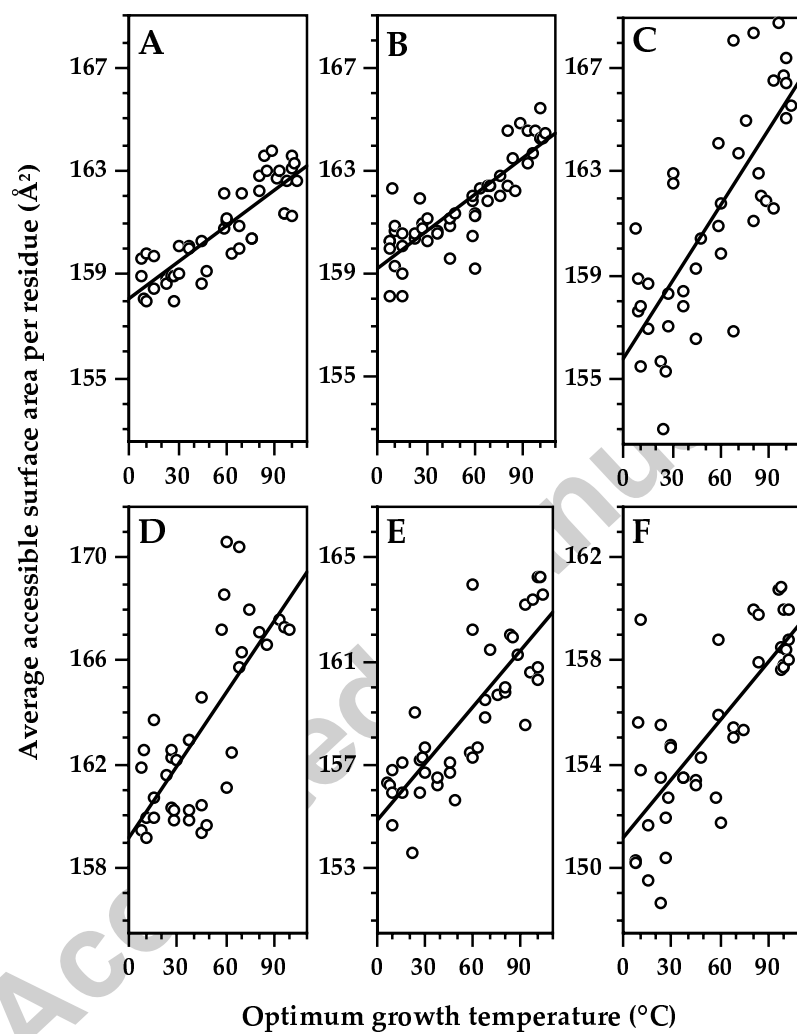


Fig. 7

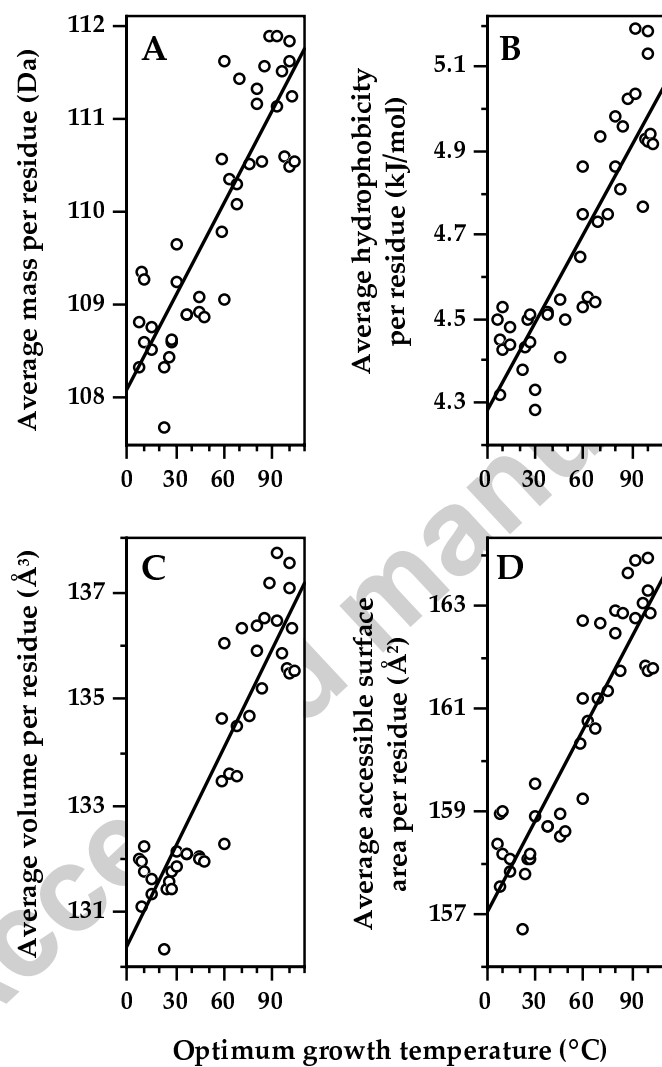


Table S1: Analyzed sequences of elongation factor Tu/1 β

Microbial source	No residues	Accession number
<i>Desulfotalea psychrophila</i> strain LSv54	396	CAG35851
<i>Colwellia psychrerythraea</i> strain 34H	394	YP_271423
<i>Psychrobacter arcticus</i> strain 273-4	396	YP_265176
<i>Polaribacter irgensii</i> strain 23-P	395	ZP_01117987
<i>Psychromonas ingrahamii</i> 37	394	YP_944720
<i>Pseudoalteromonas haloplanktis</i> TAC125	393	CAB65285
<i>Photobacterium profundum</i> strain SS9	394	CAG18755
<i>Leifsonia xyli</i> strain CTCB07	397	Q6ACZ0
<i>Methanococcoides burtonii</i> strain DSM 6242	422	YP_565843
<i>Azoarcus</i> sp. EbN1	396	CAI08280
<i>Xylella fastidiosa</i> strain Temecula 1	396	NP_780188
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> 2192	397	P09591
<i>Oceanobacillus iheyensis</i> strain HTE831	395	NP_691038
<i>Lactobacillus acidophilus</i> strain NCFM	396	YP_193737
<i>Escherichia coli</i> strain K12	394	P0A6N1
<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i> strain LT2	394	NP_463015
<i>Streptococcus thermophilus</i> strain LMG 18311	398	AAV60197
<i>Methylococcus capsulatus</i> strain Bath	396	AAU92683
<i>Chlorobium tepidum</i> strain TLS	393	NP_663065
<i>Moorella thermoacetica</i> strain ATCC 39073	400	YP_431287
<i>Thermoplasma acidophilum</i> strain DSM 1728	424	NP_393922
<i>Symbiobacterium thermophilum</i> strain IAM 14863	395	YP_076903
<i>Picrophilus torridus</i> strain DSM 9790	424	YP_023193
<i>Bacillus stearothermophilus</i>	395	CAA03976
<i>Methanothermobacter thermautotrophicus</i> strain Delta H	413	NP_276188
<i>Thermus thermophilus</i> strain HB27	406	YP_005703
<i>Sulfolobus acidocaldarius</i> strain DSM 639	435	YP_255358
<i>Thermoanaerobacter tengcongensis</i> strain MB4	400	NP_623833
“ “	400	NP_623847
<i>Sulfolobus tokodaii</i> strain 7	435	NP_376127
<i>Thermotoga maritima</i> strain MSB8	400	NP_229302
<i>Archaeoglobus fulgidus</i> strain DSM 4304	423	NP_069770
<i>Sulfolobus solfataricus</i> strain P2	435	P35021
<i>Thermophilum pendens</i> strain Hrk 5	433	YP_920052
<i>Staphylothermus marinus</i> strain F1	438	YP_001040819
<i>Aeropyrum pernix</i> strain K1	437	NP_148207
<i>Aquifex aeolicus</i> strain VF5	405	NP_212987
“ “	405	NP_214323
<i>Pyrococcus horikoshii</i> strain OT3	428	NP_143347
<i>Pyrococcus furiosus</i> strain DSM 3638	428	NP_579104
<i>Pyrobaculum aerophilum</i> strain IM2	444	NP_560418
<i>Hyperthermus butylicus</i> strain DSM 5456	440	YP_001013747
<i>Pyrococcus woesei</i>	430	CAA42517
<i>Pyrococcus abyssi</i> strain GE5	428	CAB49596

Table S2: Analyzed sequences of elongation factor G/2

Microbial source	No residues	Accession number
<i>Desulfotalea psychrophila</i> strain LSv54	692	CAG35850
“ “	695	CAG34736
<i>Colwellia psychrerythraea</i> strain 34H	699	YP_271409
“ “	701	YP_267624
<i>Psychrobacter arcticus</i> strain 273-4	708	YP_265177
<i>Polaribacter irgensii</i> strain 23-P	705	ZP_01119277
<i>Psychromonas ingrahamii</i> 37	697	YP_944721
“ “	698	YP_941819
<i>Pseudoalteromonas haloplanktis</i> TAC125	704	CAE00448
“ “	694	CAI87975
<i>Photobacterium profundum</i> strain SS9	695	CAG19645
“ “	698	CAG18754
<i>Leifsonia xyli</i> strain CTCB07	700	Q6ACY9
<i>Methanococcoides burtonii</i> strain DSM 6242	730	YP_565844
<i>Azoarcus</i> sp. EbN1	683	CAI06555
<i>Xylella fastidiosa</i> strain Temecula 1	705	AAO29826
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> 2192	702	EAZ57945
<i>Oceanobacillus iheyensis</i> strain HTE831	692	Q8ETY5
<i>Lactobacillus acidophilus</i> strain NCFM	697	AAV42182
<i>Escherichia coli</i> strain K12	704	P0A6M8
<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i> strain LT2	704	AAL22309
<i>Streptococcus thermophilus</i> strain LMG 18311	693	AAV61388
<i>Methylococcus capsulatus</i> strain Bath	694	AAU93266
“ “	698	YP_114791
<i>Chlorobium tepidum</i> strain TLS	704	NP_663066
<i>Moorella thermoacetica</i> strain ATCC 39073	680	YP_429999
“ “	692	YP_431288
<i>Thermoplasma acidophilum</i> strain DSM 1728	732	P26752
<i>Symbiobacterium thermophilum</i> strain IAM 14863	694	YP_076904
“ “	695	YP_076966
<i>Picrophilus torridus</i> strain DSM 9790	732	Q6L200
<i>Bacillus stearothermophilus</i>	692	CAC09927
<i>Methanothermobacter thermautotrophicus</i> strain Delta H	730	O27131
<i>Thermus thermophilus</i> strain HB27	691	Q72I01
<i>Sulfolobus acidocaldarius</i> strain DSM 639	724	AAAY79995
<i>Thermoanaerobacter tengcongensis</i> strain MB4	690	NP_623834
“ “	700	AAM25474
<i>Sulfolobus tokodaii</i> strain 7	724	BAB65426
<i>Thermotoga maritima</i> strain MSB8	692	P38525
<i>Archaeoglobus fulgidus</i> strain DSM 4304	728	NP_070719
<i>Sulfolobus solfataricus</i> strain P2	736	AAK41025
<i>Thermophilum pendens</i> strain Hrk 5	734	YP_920020
<i>Staphylothermus marinus</i> strain F1	736	YP_001040874
<i>Aeropyrum pernix</i> strain K1	736	NP_147939
<i>Aquifex aeolicus</i> strain VF5	699	NP_212986

<i>Pyrococcus horikoshii</i> strain OT3	732	O59521
<i>Pyrococcus furiosus</i> strain DSM 3638	732	NP_579741
<i>Pyrobaculum aerophilum</i> strain IM2	740	NP_558538
<i>Hyperthermus butylicus</i> strain DSM 5456	738	YP_001013036
<i>Pyrococcus woesei</i>	732	P61878
<i>Pyrococcus abyssi</i> strain GE5	732	CAB49200

Table S3: Analyzed sequences of elongation factor Ts/1 β

Microbial source	No residues	Accession number
<i>Desulfotalea psychrophila</i> strain LSv54	196	YP_064891
<i>Colwellia psychrerythraea</i> strain 34H	282	YP_268296
<i>Psychrobacter arcticus</i> strain 273-4	294	YP_263654
<i>Polaribacter irgensii</i> strain 23-P	321	ZP_01117587
<i>Psychromonas ingrahamii</i> 37	292	YP_944276
<i>Pseudoalteromonas haloplanktis</i> TAC125	283	YP_340534
<i>Photobacterium profundum</i> strain SS9	284	Q6LN25
<i>Leifsonia xyli</i> strain CTCB07	276	YP_062194
<i>Methanococcoides burtonii</i> strain DSM 6242	89	YP_565987
<i>Azoarcus</i> sp. EbN1	296	CAI09540
<i>Xylella fastidiosa</i> strain Temecula 1	292	NP_780140
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> 2192	289	EAZ59793
<i>Oceanobacillus iheyensis</i> strain HTE831	294	NP_692508
<i>Lactobacillus acidophilus</i> strain NCFM	341	YP_194131
<i>Escherichia coli</i> strain K12	283	NP_414712
<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i> strain LT2	283	NP_459222
<i>Streptococcus thermophilus</i> strain LMG 18311	351	YP_138618
<i>Methylococcus capsulatus</i> strain Bath	293	YP_113087
<i>Chlorobium tepidum</i> strain TLS	288	NP_662659
<i>Moorella thermoacetica</i> strain ATCC 39073	203	YP_429890
<i>Thermoplasma acidophilum</i> strain DSM 1728	88	Q9HKN1
<i>Symbiobacterium thermophilum</i> strain IAM 14863	304	YP_075321
<i>Picrophilus torridus</i> strain DSM 9790	101	AAT43749
<i>Methanothermobacter thermautotrophicus</i> strain Delta H	89	O27734
<i>Thermus thermophilus</i> strain HB27	196	YP_004483
<i>Sulfolobus acidocaldarius</i> strain DSM 639	90	Q4JAN4
<i>Thermoanaerobacter tengcongensis</i> strain MB4	200	NP_623026
<i>Sulfolobus tokodaii</i> strain 7	91	NP_376060
<i>Thermotoga maritima</i> strain MSB8	199	NP_229405
<i>Archaeoglobus fulgidus</i> strain DSM 4304	88	NP_069408
<i>Sulfolobus solfataricus</i> strain P2	91	NP_341733
<i>Thermophilum pendens</i> strain Hrk 5	91	YP_920066
<i>Staphylothermus marinus</i> strain F1	90	YP_001040727
<i>Aeropyrum pernix</i> strain K1	90	NP_148638
<i>Aquifex aeolicus</i> strain VF5	290	NP_213490
<i>Pyrococcus horikoshii</i> strain OT3	91	NP_142049
<i>Pyrococcus furiosus</i> strain DSM 3638	91	NP_579694
<i>Pyrobaculum aerophilum</i> strain IM2	92	NP_558776
<i>Hyperthermus butylicus</i> strain DSM 5456	92	YP_001013529
<i>Pyrococcus abyssi</i> strain GE5	95	CAB48952

Table S4: Analyzed sequences of superoxide dismutase

Microbial source	No residues	Accession number
<i>Desulfotalea psychrophila</i> strain LSv54	197	YP_064052
<i>Colwellia psychrerythraea</i> strain 34H	194	YP_270150
<i>Psychrobacter arcticus</i> strain 273-4	209	YP_265220
<i>Polaribacter igensis</i> strain 23-P	202	ZP_01117062
<i>Psychromonas ingrahamii</i> 37	193	YP_943778
<i>Pseudoalteromonas haloplanktis</i> TAC125	193	CAI86290
<i>Photobacterium profundum</i> strain SS9	194	CAG20957
“ “	203	CAG20948
<i>Leifsonia xyli</i> strain CTCB07	208	YP_062104
<i>Azoarcus</i> sp. EbN1	195	CAI09001
<i>Xylella fastidiosa</i> strain Temecula 1	203	NP_780168
“ “	230	NP_779088
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> 2192	193	EAZ62265
“ “	203	EAZ62159
<i>Oceanobacillus iheyensis</i> strain HTE831	203	BAC13888
<i>Escherichia coli</i> strain K12	193	NP_416173
“ “	206	NP_418344
<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i> strain LT2	193	NP_460394
“ “	206	NP_462936
<i>Streptococcus thermophilus</i> strain LMG 18311	220	YP_139228
<i>Methylococcus capsulatus</i> strain Bath	194	AAU91441
“ “	210	AAU91964
<i>Streptococcus thermophilus</i> strain LMG 18311	200	NP_662101
<i>Methylococcus capsulatus</i> strain Bath	226	YP_430759
<i>Thermoplasma acidophilum</i> strain DSM 1728	205	NP_393491
<i>Symbiobacterium thermophilum</i> strain IAM 14863	204	YP_074876
<i>Picrophilus torridus</i> strain DSM 9790	205	YP_023258
<i>Bacillus stearothermophilus</i>	204	P00449
<i>Methanothermobacter thermautotrophicus</i> strain Delta H	205	AAB84666
<i>Thermus thermophilus</i> strain HB27	204	YP_004164
<i>Sulfolobus acidocaldarius</i> strain DSM 639	211	YP_254907
<i>Thermoanaerobacter tengcongensis</i> strain MB4	188	NP_622509
<i>Sulfolobus tokodaii</i> strain 7	211	NP_378284
<i>Sulfolobus solfataricus</i> strain P2	211	NP_341862
<i>Aeropyrum pernix</i> strain K1	214	NP_147461
<i>Aquifex aeolicus</i> strain VF5	213	NP_214035
<i>Pyrobaculum aerophilum</i> strain IM2	211	NP_558493

Table S5: Analyzed sequences of glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase

Microbial source	No residues	Accession number
<i>Desulfotalea psychrophila</i> strain LSv54	334	YP_064558
<i>Colwellia psychrerythraea</i> strain 34H	334	YP_269060
<i>Psychrobacter arcticus</i> strain 273-4	481	YP_264787
<i>Polaribacter igensis</i> strain 23-P	333	ZP_01119221
<i>Psychromonas ingrahamii</i> 37	330	YP_943703
<i>Pseudoalteromonas haloplanktis</i> TAC125	334	CAI86443
<i>Photobacterium profundum</i> strain SS9	339	YP_130406
<i>Leifsonia xyli</i> strain CTCB07	336	YP_062105
<i>Methanococcoides burtonii</i> strain DSM 6242	335	YP_565552
<i>Azoarcus</i> sp. EbN1	338	CAI06702
<i>Xylella fastidiosa</i> strain Temecula 1	336	NP_779817
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> 2192	334	EAZ59323
<i>Oceanobacillus iheyensis</i> strain HTE831	335	BAC14394
<i>Lactobacillus acidophilus</i> strain NCFM	338	YP_193604
<i>Escherichia coli</i> strain K12	331	NP_416293
<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i> strain LT2	331	NP_460256
<i>Streptococcus thermophilus</i> strain LMG 18311	345	YP_140202
<i>Methylococcus capsulatus</i> strain Bath	336	YP_115003
<i>Chlorobium tepidum</i> strain TLS	334	NP_662365
<i>Moorella thermoacetica</i> strain ATCC 39073	335	YP_429140
<i>Thermoplasma acidophilum</i> strain DSM 1728	338	NP_394562
<i>Symbiobacterium thermophilum</i> strain IAM 14863	336	YP_075474
<i>Picrophilus torridus</i> strain DSM 9790	341	Q6L125
<i>Bacillus stearothermophilus</i>	335	P00362
<i>Methanothermobacter thermautotrophicus</i> strain Delta H	337	NP_276144
<i>Thermus thermophilus</i> strain HB27	331	YP_004524
<i>Sulfolobus acidocaldarius</i> strain DSM 639	343	YP_255984
<i>Thermoanaerobacter tengcongensis</i> strain MB4	335	NP_623352
<i>Sulfolobus tokodaii</i> strain 7	343	NP_377309
<i>Thermotoga maritima</i> strain MSB8	333	NP_228497
<i>Archaeoglobus fulgidus</i> strain DSM 4304	340	NP_070560
<i>Sulfolobus solfataricus</i> strain P2	340	NP_342058
<i>Thermophilum pendens</i> strain Hrk 5	342	YP_920162
<i>Staphylothermus marinus</i> strain F1	348	YP_001040262
<i>Aeropyrum pernix</i> strain K1	343	NP_147019
<i>Aquifex aeolicus</i> strain VF5	342	NP_213724
<i>Pyrococcus horikoshii</i> strain OT3	334	NP_143662
<i>Pyrococcus furiosus</i> strain DSM 3638	334	NP_579603
<i>Pyrobaculum aerophilum</i> strain IM2	344	NP_559513
<i>Hyperthermus butylicus</i> strain DSM 5456	343	YP_001013132
<i>Pyrococcus woesei</i>	334	P61880
<i>Pyrococcus abyssi</i> strain GE5	334	NP_126077

Table S6: Analyzed sequences of cell division protein FtsZ

Microbial source	No residues	Accession number
<i>Desulfotalea psychrophila</i> strain LSv54	420	YP_066629
<i>Colwellia psychrerythraea</i> strain 34H	386	YP_271107
<i>Psychrobacter arcticus</i> strain 273-4	398	YP_265027
<i>Polaribacter irgensii</i> strain 23-P	639	ZP_01116810
<i>Psychromonas ingrahamii</i> 37	388	YP_942588
<i>Pseudoalteromonas haloplanktis</i> TAC125	416	CAI87547
<i>Photobacterium profundum</i> strain SS9	394	CAG21517
<i>Leifsonia xyli</i> strain CTCB07	382	YP_062434
<i>Methanococcoides burtonii</i> strain DSM 6242	368	YP_566573
“ “	394	YP_565059
<i>Azoarcus</i> sp. EbN1	379	YP_157811
<i>Xylella fastidiosa</i> strain Temecula 1	411	NP_780044
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> 2192	394	EAZ62223
<i>Oceanobacillus iheyensis</i> strain HTE831	391	NP_692394
<i>Lactobacillus acidophilus</i> strain NCFM	452	YP_193706
<i>Escherichia coli</i> strain K12	383	NP_414637
<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i> strain LT2	383	NP_459138
<i>Streptococcus thermophilus</i> strain LMG 18311	440	YP_139243
<i>Methylococcus capsulatus</i> strain Bath	382	YP_114837
<i>Chlorobium tepidum</i> strain TLS	434	NP_660936
<i>Moorella thermoacetica</i> strain ATCC 39073	355	YP_429710
<i>Thermoplasma acidophilum</i> strain DSM 1728	345	NP_393984
“ “	395	O59635
<i>Symbiobacterium thermophilum</i> strain IAM 14863	354	YP_075048
<i>Methanothermobacter thermautotrophicus</i> strain Delta H	381	NP_276787
<i>Thermus thermophilus</i> strain HB27	352	YP_004699
<i>Thermoanaerobacter tengcongensis</i> strain MB4	357	NP_623237
<i>Thermotoga maritima</i> strain MSB8	351	NP_228645
<i>Archaeoglobus fulgidus</i> strain DSM 4304	368	NP_069371
“ “	392	NP_069404
<i>Aquifex aeolicus</i> strain VF5	367	NP_213369
<i>Pyrococcus horikoshii</i> strain OT3	365	NP_143219
“ “	372	NP_142027
“ “	414	NP_142705
<i>Pyrococcus furiosus</i> strain DSM 3638	366	NP_579236
“ “	372	NP_579717
“ “	408	NP_578254
<i>Pyrococcus woesei</i>	366	Q52630
<i>Pyrococcus abyssi</i> strain GE5	365	CAB49728
“ “	372	NP_125696
“ “	413	NP_126968