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# Analysis of Brevundimonas subvibrioides developmental signaling systems reveals inconsistencies between phenotypes and c-di-GMP levels

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## Abstract

The DivJ-DivK-PleC signaling system of <i>Caulobacter crescentus</i> is a signaling network
that regulates polar development and the cell cycle. This system is conserved in related bacteria,
including the sister genus Brevundimonas. Previous studies had shown unexpected phenotypic
differences between the <i>C. crescentus divK</i> mutant and the analogous mutant of <i>Brevundimonas</i>
subvibrioides, but further characterization was not performed. Here, phenotypic assays
analyzing motility, adhesion, and pilus production (the latter characterized by a newly discovered
bacteriophage) revealed that divJ and pleC mutants have mostly similar phenotypes as their C.
crescentus homologs, but divK mutants maintain largely opposite phenotypes than expected.
Suppressor mutations of the B. subvibrioides divK motility defect were involved in cyclic-di-
GMP (c-di-GMP) signaling, including the diguanylate cyclase dgcB, and cleD which is
hypothesized to affect flagellar function in a c-di-GMP dependent fashion. However, the screen
did not identify the diguanylate cyclase pleD. Disruption of pleD in B. subvibrioides caused no
change in divK or pleC phenotypes, but did reduce adhesion and increase motility of the divJ
strain. Analysis of c-di-GMP levels in these strains revealed incongruities between c-di-GMP
levels and displayed phenotypes with a notable result that suppressor mutations altered
phenotypes but had little impact on c-di-GMP levels in the <i>divK</i> background. Conversely, when
c-di-GMP levels were artificially manipulated, alterations of c-di-GMP levels in the <i>divK</i> strain
had minimal impact on phenotypes. These results suggest that DivK performs a critical function
in the integration of c-di-GMP signaling into the B. subvibrioides cell cycle.

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# **Importance**

Cyclic-di-GMP and associated signaling proteins are widespread in bacteria, but its role
in physiology is often complex and difficult to predict through genomic level analyses. In C.
crescentus, c-di-GMP has been integrated into the developmental cell cycle, but there is
increasing evidence that environmental factors can impact this system as well. The research
presented here suggests that the integration of these signaling networks could be more complex
than previously hypothesized, which could have a bearing on the larger field of c-di-GMP
signaling. In addition, this work further reveals similarities and differences in a conserved
regulatory network between organisms in the same taxonomic family, and the results show that
gene conservation does not necessarily imply close functional conservation in genetic pathways.

#### Introduction

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Though model organisms represent a small portion of the biodiversity found on Earth, the research that has resulted from their study shapes much of what we know about biology today. The more closely related species are to a model organism, the more that theoretically can be inferred about them using the information from the model organism. Modern genomic studies have given this research an enlightening new perspective. Researchers can now compare the conservation of particular systems genetically. Using model organisms can be a very efficient and useful means of research, but the question still remains of how much of the information gained from the study of a model can be extrapolated unto other organisms. Though genomic comparison shows high levels of conservation between genes of different organisms, this does not necessarily mean the function of those genes or systems has been conserved. This phenomenon seems to be evident in the Caulobacter crescentus system.

C. crescentus is a Gram-negative alphaproteobacterium that lives a dimorphic lifestyle. It has been used as a model organism for the study of cell cycle regulation, intracellular signaling, and polar localization of proteins and structures in bacteria. The C. crescentus life cycle begins with the presynthetic  $(G_1)$  phase in which the cell is a motile "swarmer cell" which contains a single flagellum and multiple pili at one of the cell's poles [for review, see (1)]. During this period of the life cycle, the cell cannot replicate its chromosome or perform cell division. Upon differentiation, the cell dismantles its pili and ejects its flagellum. It also begins to produce holdfast, an adhesive polysaccharide, at the same pole from which the flagellum was ejected. The cell then develops a stalk, projecting the holdfast away from the cell at the tip of the stalk. The differentiation of the swarmer cell to the "stalked cell" marks the beginning of the synthesis

(S) phase of the cell life cycle as chromosome replication is initiated. As the stalked cell

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differences as well (3).

to as a predivisional cell. Toward the late predivisional stage, it again becomes replication incompetent and enters the postsynthetic  $(G_2)$  phase of development. At the end of the  $G_2$  phase, the cell completes division forming two different cell types. The stalked cell can immediately reenter the S phase, while the swarmer cell moves once again through the G<sub>1</sub> phase. Brevundimonas subvibrioides is another Gram-negative alphaproteobacterium found in oligotrophic environments that lives a dimorphic lifestyle like that of *C. crescentus*. Brevundimonas is the next closest genus phylogenetically to Caulobacter. According to a Pairwise Average Nucleotide Identity (ANI) test, their genomes are approximately 74% identical. Bioinformatic analyses showed that all developmental signaling proteins found in the C. crescentus cell cycle are conserved B. subvibrioides (2, 3). All the known developmental regulators found in C. crescentus are also present in B. subvibrioides, and these regulators are orthologs as they are bi-directional best hits when searched against each genome, and amino acid identity is extremely high (3)(Supplementary Table S1). Conversely, no other proteins thought to interact with DivK in more distantly related Alphaproteobacteria, such as PdhS1 or CbrA, are apparent in the B. subvibrioides genome. However, little physiological characterization has been performed. Conservation of genes does not necessarily mean conservation of function or properties (3). Essential gene studies within the Alphaproteobacteria have shown that gene essentiality/non-essentiality in one organism does not always correspond with that in another organism (3-6). Analyses that have been performed on C. crescentus and B. subvibrioides have

shown many similarities in gene essentiality between the two, but have shown several surprising

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replicates its chromosome and increases its biomass in preparation for cell division, it is referred

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In C. crescentus, the DivJ-DivK-PleC system controls the spatial activation of one of the master regulators in C. crescentus, CtrA (1, 7). This system is a prime example of how C. crescentus has evolved traditional two-component proteins into a more complex signaling pathway and, as a result, has developed a more complex life cycle. The DivJ-DivK-PleC pathway consists of two histidine kinases (PleC and DivJ) and a single response regulator (DivK) (8, 9). DivJ is absent in swarmer cells but is produced during swarmer cell differentiation. It then localizes to the stalked pole (8). DivJ is required for, among other things, proper stalk placement and regulation of stalk length. C. crescentus divJ mutants display filamentous shape, a lack of motility, and holdfast overproduction (8, 9). PleC localizes to the flagellar pole during the predivisional cell stage (10). Though structurally a histidine kinase PleC acts as a phosphatase, constitutively de-phosphorylating DivK (8, 9). C. crescentus pleC mutants display a lack of pili, holdfast, and stalks, and have paralyzed flagella leading to a loss of motility (11-13). DivK is a single-domain response regulator (it lacks an output domain) whose location is dynamic throughout the cell cycle (9, 14). DivK remains predominantly unphosphorylated in the swarmer cell, while it is found mostly in its phosphorylated form in stalked cells. Photobleaching and FRET analysis show that DivK shuttles rapidly back and forth from pole to pole in the pre-divisional cell depending on its phosphorylation state (9). Previous studies have shown that phosphorylated DivK localizes bipolarly while primarily unphosphorylated DivK is delocalized throughout the cell (9). A divK cold-sensitive mutant suppresses the non-motile phenotype of pleC at 37°C. However, at 25°C, it displays extensive filamentation much like the divJ mutant (15). Additionally, filamentous

divK mutants sometimes had multiple stalks, though the second stalk was not necessarily polar.

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Furthermore, electron microscopy of divK disruption mutants led to the discovery that they lack flagella.

Upon completion of cytokinesis, PleC and DivJ are segregated into different compartments, thus DivK phosphorylation levels in each compartment are dramatically different. This leads to differential activation of CtrA in the different compartments (9, 16). In the swarmer cell, the de-phosphorylated DivK leads to the downstream activation of CtrA. CtrA in its active form binds the chromosome at the origin of replication and prevents DNA replication (17, 18). The opposite effect is seen in stalked cells where highly phosphorylated DivK results in the inactivation of CtrA and, therefore, permits DNA replication (19).

Gene essentiality studies in B. subvibrioides led to the discovery of a discrepancy in the essentiality of DivK. In C. crescentus DivK is essential for growth, while in B. subvibrioides DivK is dispensable for growth (3, 15). Further characterization found dramatic differences in the phenotypic consequences of disruption. Through the use of a cold-sensitive DivK allele or by ectopic depletion, C. crescentus divK disruption largely phenocopies divJ disruption in cell size and motility effects (8, 9, 15). This is to be expected as DivK~P is the active form and both divJ or divK disruption reduce DivK~P levels. In B. subvibrioides, disruption of divJ leads to the same effects in cell size, motility, and adhesion (3). However, divK disruption leads to opposite phenotypes of cell size and adhesion, and while motility is impacted it is likely by a different mechanism.

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While the previous study revealed important differences between the organisms, it did not analyze the impact of PleC disruption, nor did it examine pilus production or subcellular protein localization. The work presented here further characterizes the DivJ-DivK-PleC signaling

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143 system in B. subvibrioides and begins to address the mechanistic reasons for the unusual 144 phenotypes displayed by the B. subvibrioides divK mutant. 145 **Materials and Methods** 146 147 Strains and growth conditions 148 A complete list of strains used in this study is presented in the appendix (see Supplementary Table S2). Brevundimonas strains were cultured at 30°C on PYE medium (2 g 149 peptone, 1 g yeast extract, 0.3 g MgSO<sub>4</sub> · 7H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.735 CaCl<sub>2</sub>) (20). Kanamycin was used at 20 150 μg/ml, gentamycin at 5 μg/ml, and tetracycline at 2 μg/ml when necessary. PYE plates 151 containing 3% sucrose were used for counter-selection. Escherichia coli was cultured on Luria-152 153 Bertani (LB) medium (10 g/L tryptone, 10 g/L NaCl, 5 g/L yeast extract) at 37°C. Kanamycin was used at 50 μg/ml, gentamycin at 20 μg/ml, and tetracycline at 12 μg/ml when necessary. 154 155 156 Mutant generation The B. subvibrioides  $\Delta divJ$ ,  $\Delta divK$ , and  $\Delta divJ\Delta divK$  mutants were used from a previous 157 study (3). The *B. subvibrioides* Δ*pleC* construct was made by PCR amplifying an upstream 158 159 fragment of ~650 bps using primers PleC138Fwd 160 (attgaagccggctggcgccaCCAGATCGAAAAGGTGCAGCCC) and PleCdwRev (tctaggccgcGCCCGCAAGGCGCTCTC) and a downstream fragment of ~550 bps using 161 primers PleCupFwd (cttgcggggcGCGGCCTAGAGCCGGTCA) and PleC138Rev 162

(cgtcacggccgaagctagcgGGTGCTGGGATGAAGACACG). The primers were designed using the

NEBuilder for Gibson Assembly tool online (New England Biolabs) and were constructed to be

used with the pNPTS138 vector (MRK Alley, unpublished). Following a digestion of the vector

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using HindIII and EcoRI the vector along with both fragments were added to Gibson Assembly Master Mix (New England Biolabs) and allowed to incubate for an hour at 50°C. Reactions were then transformed into E. coli and correct plasmid construction verified by sequencing to create plasmid pLAS1. This plasmid was used to delete pleC in B. subvibrioides as previously described (3). To create insertional mutations in genes, internal fragments from each gene were PCR amplified. A fragment from gene cpaF was amplified using primers cpaFF (GCGAACAGAGCGACTACTACCACG) and cpaFR (CCACCAGGTTCTTCATCGTCAGC). A fragment from gene pleD was amplified using primers PleDF (CCGGCATGGACGGGTTC) and PleDR (CGTTGACGCCCAGTTCCAG). A fragment from gene dgcB was amplified using primers DgcBF (GAGATGCTGGCGGCTGAATA) and DgcBR (CGAACTCTTCGCCACCGTAG). A fragment from gene cleD was amplified using primers Bresu1276F (ATCGCCGATCCGAACATGG) and Bresu1276R (TTCTCGACCGCTTGAACAG). The fragments were then cloned into the pCR vector using the Zero Blunt cloning kit (Thermo Fisher), creating plasmids pPDC17 (cpaF), pLAS1 (pleD), pLAS2 (dgcB), and pLAS3 (cleD). These plasmids were then transformed into B. subvibrioides strains as previously published (3). The pCR plasmid is a non-replicating plasmid in B. subvibrioides that facilitates insertion of the vector into the gene of interest via recombination, thereby disrupting the gene. To create a C-terminal B. subvibrioides DivJ fusion, ~50% of the divJ gene covering the 3' end was amplified by PCR using primers BSdivJgfpF (CCTCATATGGGTTTACGGGGCCTACGGG) and BSdivJgfpR

(CGAGAATTCGAGACGGTCGGCGACGGTCCTG), and cloned into the pGFPC-2 plasmid

Transposon mutagenesis

(21), creating plasmid pPDC11. To create a C-terminal <i>B. subvibrioides</i> PleC fusion, ~50% of
the pleC gene covering the 3' end was amplified by PCR using primers BSpleCgfpF
(CAACATATGCCAGAAGGACGAGCTGAACCGC) and BSpleCgfpR
(TTTGAATTCGAGGCCGCCCGCGCCTGTTGTTG), and cloned into the pGFPC-2 plasmid,
creating plasmid pPDC8. These plasmids are non-replicative in <i>B. subvibrioides</i> and therefore
integrate into the chromosome by homologous recombination at the site of each targeted gene.
The resulting integration creates a full copy of gene under the native promoter that produces a
protein with C-terminal GFP tag, and a ~50% 5' truncated copy with no promoter. This
effectively creates a strain where the tagged gene is the only functional copy.
Due to the small size of the $divK$ gene, a region including the $divK$ gene and $\sim 500$ bp of
sequence upstream of divK was amplified using primers BSdivKgfpF
(AGGCATATGCCAGCGACAGGGTCTGCACC) and BSdivKgfpR
(CGGGAATTCGATCCCGCCAGTACCGGAACGC) and cloned into pGFPC-2, creating
plasmid pPDC27. After homologous recombination into the <i>B. subvibrioides</i> genome, two
copies of the <i>divK</i> gene are produced, both under the native promoter, one of which encodes a
protein C-terminally fused to GFP.
Constructs expressing E. coli ydeH under IPTG induction on a medium copy (pTB4) and
low copy (pSA280) plasmids were originally published in (22). Constructs expressing
Pseudomonas aeruginosa pchP under vanillate induction (pBV-5295) as well as an active site
mutant (pBV-5295 <sub>E328A</sub> ) were originally published in (23).

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Transposon mutagenesis was performed on the B. subvibrioides \( \Delta div K \) mutant using the EZ-Tn5 <KAN-2> TNP transposome (Epicentre). B. subvibrioides △divK was grown overnight in PYE to an OD<sub>600</sub> of about 0.07 [quantified with a Themo Nanodrop 2000 (Themo Scientific)]. Cells (1.5 ml) were centrifuged 15,000 x g for 3 min at room temperature. The cell pellet was then resuspended in 1 ml of water before being centrifuged again. This process was repeated. Cells were resuspended in 50 µl of nuclease free water, to which 0.2 µl of transposome was added. The mixture was incubated at room temperature for 10 minutes. The mixture was added to a Gene Pulser Cuvette with a 0.1 cm electrode gap (Bio-Rad). The cells were then electroporated as performed previously (3). Electroporation was performed using a GenePulser Xcell (Bio-Rad) at a voltage of 1,500 V, a capacitance of 25 μF, and a resistance of 400  $\Omega$ . After electroporation, cells were resuspended with 1 ml of PYE then incubated shaking at 30°C for 3 hours. Cells were diluted 3-fold then spread on PYE + Kan plates (100 μl/plate). Plates were incubated at 30°C for 5-6 days.

Swarm assay

Strains were grown overnight in PYE, diluted to an  $OD_{600}$  of 0.02, and allowed to grow for two doublings (to  $OD_{600}$  of  $\sim 0.06$  - 0.07). All strains were diluted to  $OD_{600} = 0.03$  and 1  $\mu l$  of culture was injected into a 0.3% agar PYE plate. Isopropyl 1-thio-b-D-galactopyranoside (IPTG) (final concentration 1.5 mM) and vanillate (final concentration 1 mM) was added to plate mixture before pouring plates where applicable. Molten 0.3% agar in PYE (25 ml) was poured in each plate. Plates were incubated at 30°C for 5 days. Plates were imaged using a BioRad ChemiDoc MP Imaging System with Image Lab software. Swarm size was then quantified in pixels using ImageJ software. All swarm sizes on a plate were normalized to the wild-type

swarm on that plate. Assays were performed in triplicate and average and standard deviation were calculated.

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Short-term adhesion assay

Strains were grown overnight in PYE, diluted to an OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.02, and allowed to grow for two doublings (to  $OD_{600}$  of  $\sim 0.06$  - 0.07). All strains were diluted to  $OD_{600} = 0.05$ , at which time 0.5 ml of each strain was inoculated into a well of a 24-well dish and incubated at 30°C for 2 hours in triplicate. Cell culture was removed and wells were washed 3 times with 0.5 ml of fresh PYE. To each well was added 0.5 ml of 0.1% crystal violet and incubated at room temperature for 20 minutes. Crystal violet was removed from each well before the plate was washed by dunking in a tub of deionized water. Crystal violet bound to biomass was eluted with 0.5 ml acetic acid and the A<sub>589</sub> was quantified using a Themo Nanodrop 2000 (Themo Scientific). Averages for each strain were calculated and then normalized to wild-type values inoculated into the same plate. These assays were performed three times for each strain and used to calculate average and standard deviation.

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Lectin-binding assay and microscopy conditions

Holdfast staining was based on the protocol of (24). Strains of interest were grown overnight in PYE to an  $OD_{600}$  of 0.05-0.07. For each strain, 200  $\mu l$  of culture were incubated in a centrifuge tube with 2 µl of Alexafluor 488 (Molecular Probes) for 20 minutes at room temperature. Cells were washed with 1 ml of sterile water then centrifuged 15,000 x g for 1 min at room temperature. The cell pellet was resuspended in 30 µl of sterile water. A 1% agarose pad (agarose in H<sub>2</sub>O) was prepared for each strain on a glass slide to which 1 μl of culture was

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added. Slides were then examined and photographed using an Olympus IX81 microscope by phase contrast and epifluorescence microscopy using a 100X Plan APO oil immersion objective The holdfast of GFP-labeled strains were stained with Alexafluor 594 conjugated to Wheat Germ Agglutinin and prepared for imaging as described above. Alexafluor 488 and GFP labeled strains were imaged with 470/20 nm excitation and 525/50 nm emission wavelengths. Alexafluor 594 labeled strains were imaged with 572/35 nm excitation and 635/60 nm emission. Isolation of phage. Surface water samples from freshwater bodies were collected from several sources in Lafayette County, Mississippi in 50 ml sterile centrifuge tubes and kept refrigerated. Samples were passed through 0.45 µm filters to remove debris and bacterial constituents. To isolate phage, 100 µl of filtered water was mixed with 200 µl mid-exponential B. subvibrioides cells and added to 2.5 ml PYE with molten 0.5% agar. The solution was poured onto PYE agar plates, allowed to harden, and then incubated at room temperature (~22°C) for 2 days. Plaques were excised with a sterile laboratory spatula and placed into sterile 1.5 ml centrifuge tubes. 500 µl PYE was added and the sample was refrigerated overnight to extract phage particles from the agar. To build a more concentrated phage stock, the soft-agar plating was repeated with extracted particles. Instead of excising plaques, 5 ml of PYE was added to the top of the plate and refrigerated overnight. The PYE/phage solution was collected and stored in a foil-wrapped sterile glass vial, and 50 µl chloroform was added to kill residual bacterial cells. Phage solutions were stored at 4°C.

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Isolation of phage resistant mutants.

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B. subvibrioides was mutagenized with EZ-Tn5 transposome as described above. After electroporation, cells were grown for 3 hr without selection, followed by 3 hr with kanamycin selection. Transformed cells (100 μl) were mixed with 100 μl phage stock (~1 x 10<sup>10</sup> pfu/ml) and plated on PYE agar medium with kanamycin. Colonies arose after ~5 days and were transferred to fresh plates. Transformants had their genomic DNA extracted using the Bactozol kit (Molecular Research Center). Identification of the transposon insertion sites was performed using Touchdown PCR (25), with transposon specific primers provided in the EZ-Tn5 kit.

288 Phage sensitivity assays.

> Two different phage sensitivity assays were used. First (hereafter referred to as the spotting assay) involved the mixing of cells and phage in liquid suspension and then spotting droplets on an agar surface. Each cell culture was normalized to  $OD_{600} = 0.03$ . The culture was then diluted  $10^{-2}$ ,  $10^{-4}$  and  $10^{-5}$  in PYE medium. For control assays, 5 µl of each cell suspension (including undiluted) was mixed with 5 µl PYE, then 5 µl of this mixture was spotted onto PYE plates, allowed to dry, then incubated at room temperature for 2 days. For the phage sensitivity assays, 5 µl of each cell suspension was mixed with 5 µl of phage stock (~1 x 10<sup>10</sup> pfu/ml), 5 µl spotted onto PYE plates, allowed to dry, then incubated at room temperature for 2 days.

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The second assay (hereafter referred to as the soft agar assay) involved creating a lawn of cells and spotting dilutions of phage on the lawn. Cell cultures were normalized to  $OD_{600} = 0.03$ and 200 µl of cells were mixed with 4.5 ml PYE with molten 0.5% agar, mixed, poured onto a PYE agar plate, and allowed to harden. Phage stock (~1 x 10<sup>10</sup> pfu/ml) was diluted in PYE media as individual 10X dilutions to a total of 10<sup>-7</sup> dilution. 5 µl of each phage concentration

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(10<sup>-1</sup> to 10<sup>-7</sup>, 7 concentrations total) were spotted on top of the soft agar surface and allowed to dry. Plates were incubated 2 days at room temperature. Swarm suppressor screen

Individual colonies from a transposon mutagenesis were collected on the tip of a thin sterile stick and inoculated into a 0.3% agar PYE plate. Wild-type B. subvibrioides strains as well as B. subvibrioides ∆divK were inoculated into each plate as controls. 32 colonies were inoculated into each plate including the 2 controls. Plates were incubated at 30°C for 5 days. Plates were then examined for strains that had expanded noticeably further than the parent divK strain from the inoculation point. Those strains of interest were then isolated for further testing.

Identification of swarm suppressor insertion sites.

Swarm suppressor insertion sites were identified by Inverse PCR (iPCR, (26)). Genomic DNA (gDNA) was purified using the DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (Qiagen). Digests were then prepared using 1 µg of gDNA and either AluI or HhaI incubated overnight at 37°C. Digests were heat inactivated for 20 minutes at 80°C then column cleaned using the DNA Clean and Concentrator kit (Zymo Research). Dilute ligations (100-500 ng DNA) were then prepared so that digested fragments would likely circularize. Ligations were incubated at 17°C overnight. Reactions were heat inactivated at 65°C for 20 minutes then column cleaned using the DNA Clean and Concentrator kit. The ligated DNA was used as the template in a PCR reaction with primers that anneal inside the transposon sequence. Primers used included AluIF (GCGTT-GCCAATGATGTTACAGATGAG) and AluIR (GCCCGACATTATCGCGAGCCC) as well as HhaIF2 (TTACGCTGACTTGACGGGAC) and HhaIR2 (GGAGAAAACTCACCGAGGCA).

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Given the large size of the resulting AluI fragment from the transposon sequence alone, another primer AluIFSeq (CGGTGAGTTTTCTCCTTCATTACAG) was designed specifically for sequencing after iPCR was complete. Primers were designed facing outward toward either end of the transposon such that the resulting PCR amplicon would be fragments that begin and end with transposon sequence with gDNA in between. PCR reactions were prepared using 10.75 µl H<sub>2</sub>0, 5 µl HF buffer (BioRad), 5 µl combinational enhancer solution (2.7 M betaine, 6.7 mM DTT, 6.7% DMSO, 55 µg/mL BSA), 1 µl of template DNA from each ligation, 1 µl each of their respective forward and reverse primers (primers based on what enzyme was used during digestion), 1 µl of 10 mM dNTP's (BioLine), and 0.25 µl iProof (BioRad). PCR conditions were as follows. Initial melt was set to 98°C for 30 seconds. Melting temperature was set to 98°C for 45 seconds, annealing temperature was set to 52°C for 20 seconds, extension temperature was set to 72°C for 2:30 seconds, and these three steps were cycled through 30 times. Final extension temperature was set to 72°C for 10 minutes. 5 μl from each reaction were run on a 1% agarose gel to check for fragments. Those reactions that tested positive for bands were drop dialyzed using 0.025 µm membrane filters (Milllipore) then prepared for sequencing with their respective primers. Samples were sent to Eurofins for sequencing.

Quantification of c-di-GMP.

Strains of interest were grown overnight in PYE to an  $OD_{600}$  of 0.05 - 0.07. Metabolites were then extracted from each sample and c-di-GMP was quantified using the protocol previously described in (27). Metabolites from each strain were extracted in triplicate. Remaining cellular material was dried at room temperature and resuspended in 800 µL 0.1M NaOH. Samples were incubated at 95°C for 15 minutes. Samples were then centrifuged for 10 min at 4°C,

20,800 x g. Protein levels were measured in triplicate for each sample using 10 µl from the pellet treatment and the Pierce BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Intracellular concentrations measured by mass spectrometry were then normalized to protein levels.

Results

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Deletion mutants in the B. subvibrioides DivJ-DivK-PleC system result in varied phenotypes compared to that of analogous C. crescentus mutations. In the previous study done in Brevundimonas subvibrioides, deletion mutants of the genes divJ, divK, and a divJdivK double mutant were made and partially characterized, uncovering some starkly different phenotypes compared to the homologous mutants in C. crescentus. However, characterization of this system was not complete as it did not extend to a key player in this system: PleC. As previously mentioned, C. crescentus pleC mutants display a lack of motility, pili, holdfast, and stalks (28). To begin examining the role of PleC in B. subvibrioides, an in-frame deletion of the pleC gene (Bresu 0892) was created. This strain, along with the previously published divJ, divK, and divJdivK strains, were used in a swarm assay to analyze motility. All mutant strains displayed reduced motility in swarm agar compared to the wild-type (Figure 1A, Supplemental Figure S1). This had been reported for the published strains (3). The mechanistic reasons for this are unclear. All were observed to produce flagella and were seen to swim when observed microscopically. The divJ strain has significantly filamentous cell shape which is known to inhibit motility through soft agar, but the divK and divJdivK strains actually have shorter than wild-type cells. The nature of the *pleC* motility defect is also unknown. The cell size of the *pleC* mutants was not noticeably different from that of wild-type cells (Figure 1B). The C. crescentus pleC mutant is known to have a paralyzed flagellum which leads to a null motility phenotype,

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but B. subvibrioides pleC mutants were observed swimming under the microscope suggesting that unlike C. crescentus their flagellum remains functional. While the mechanistic reason for this discrepancy is unknown, it does provide another important difference in developmental signaling mutants between the two organisms.

To further the phenotypic characterization, these strains were analyzed for the surface adhesion properties using both a short-term adhesion assay as well as staining holdfast material with a fluorescently-conjugated lectin. As previously reported, the divK and divJdivK strains had minimal adhesion and no detectable holdfast material (Figure 1AB). It was previously reported that the divJ strain had increased adhesion over wild-type, but in this study, it was found to have slightly reduced adhesion compared to wild-type. It is not clear if this difference in results between the two studies is significant. The pleC strain had reduced adhesion compared to wildtype, but more adhesion compared to the divK or divJdivK strains. When analyzed by microscopy, the *pleC* strain was found to still produce detectable holdfast (Figure 1B, Supplemental Figure S2), which is a difference from the C. crescentus pleC strain where holdfast was undetectable (28, 29).

An important component to the function of this signaling system is the subcellular localization of DivJ and PleC to the stalked and flagellar poles respectively. As the localization of these proteins had yet to be characterized in B. subvibrioides, GFP-tagged constructs were generated such that the tagged versions were under native expression. Because B. subvibrioides cells very rarely produce stalks under nutrient-replete conditions (30), holdfast material was stained using a WGA lectin conjugated with a fluorophore that uses RFP imaging conditions. When the divJ-gfp strain was analyzed (N = 403 cells), the majority of cells (82.9%) had no detectable signal (Figure 1C). It is not clear if this means the cells are not producing DivJ or that

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the level is below the detection limit. When cells had detectable fluorescence it was seen only as a unipolar focus (17.1%). When cells had detectable DivJ-GFP foci and labeled holdfast, the foci were found exclusively at the holdfast pole (N = 55 cells). When the pleC-GFP strain was imaged (N = 433 cells), most cells displayed a unipolar focus (68.8%). Only 28.9% of cells displayed no fluorescence. A small number of cells (2.3%) had seemingly bipolar PleC localization; these cells may be transitioning from the swarmer to stalked state. Of the cells that had detectable PleC-GFP foci and labeled holdfast (N = 38), all PleC-GFP foci were found at the pole opposite the holdfast (Figure 1C, Supplemental Figure S3). As it has been demonstrated that holdfast material is produced at the same pole as the stalk in B. subvibrioides (30), this result suggests that these proteins demonstrate the same localization patterns as their C. crescentus counterparts. DivK-GFP was seen to form different localization patterns in different cells (Figure 1C, Supplemental Figure S4). Of the 431 cells counted, the vast majority (85.8%) showed total cell fluorescence with no distinct localization. Bipolar localization was seen in 6.3% of cells, and unipolar localization was seen in 7.9% of cells. Of the cells that displayed unipolar localization and a detectable holdfast, DivK-GFP was localized almost exclusively to the stalked pole (96.3%, N = 27). These results contrast *C. crescentus* results in some ways. In C. crescentus DivK-GFP was found predominantly bipolarly localized (56%), with 12% displayed stalked pole localization and 32% displaying no detectable fluorescence (31), though this quantification was performed using stalked cells specifically. Diffuse total body fluorescence was not reported in that study, but it is known that DivK-GFP is diffuse in swarmer cells. It should be noted that the work in C. crescentus expressed divK-gfp from a low copy plasmid using the native promoter, while here a plasmid integration scheme was used to create a merodiploid; however, both strains had both tagged and untagged versions of divK each

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expressed by native promoters, so it is not clear if strain construction is the cause of the differences in localization pattern. Therefore, DivJ and PleC localizations match the C. crescentus model, while DivK appears to spend most of the time delocalized (with some bipolar and stalked pole localization), as opposed to C. crescentus where the protein appears to spend most of the time bipolarly localized. This is another case where the histidine kinase results somewhat match between organisms, while the response regulator results are quite different.

Isolation of a bacteriophage capable of infecting B. subvibrioides. Another important developmental event in C. crescentus is the production of pili at the flagellar pole coincident with cell division. Pili are very difficult to visualize, and in C. crescentus the production of pili in strains of interest can be assessed with the use of the bacteriophage  $\Phi$ CbK, which infects the cell using the pilus. Resistance to the phage indicates the absence of pili. However, bacteriophage that infect C. crescentus do not infect B. subvibrioides (data not shown) despite their close relation. In an attempt to develop a similar tool for B. subvibrioides, a phage capable of infecting this organism was isolated.

Despite the fact that B. subvibrioides was isolated from a freshwater pond in California over 50 years ago, a phage capable of infecting the bacterium was isolated from a freshwater pond in Lafayette County, Mississippi. This result is a testament to the ubiquitous nature of Caulobacter and Brevundimonas species in freshwater environments all over the globe. This phage has been named Delta, after the state's famous Mississippi Delta region. To determine the host range for this phage, it was tested against multiple Brevundimonas species (Figure 2A). Delta has a relatively narrow host range, causing the largest reduction of cell viability in B. subvibrioides and B. aveniformis, with some reduction in B. basaltis and B. halotolerans as well. None of the other 14 *Brevundimonas* species showed any significant reduction in cell viability.

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Neither did Delta show any infectivity toward C. crescentus (data not shown). While B. subvibrioides, B. aveniformis, and B. basaltis all belong to the same sub-clade within the Brevundimonas genus (P. Caccamo, Y.V. Brun, personal communication), so do B. kwangchunensis, B. alba and B. lenta, all of which are more closely related to B. subvibrioides than B. aveniformis and all of which were resistant to the phage. Therefore, infectivity does not appear to fall along clear phylogenetic lines and may be determined by some other factor. To begin identifying the infection mechanism of Delta, B. subvibrioides was randomly mutagenized with a Tn5 transposon and resulting transformants were mixed with Delta to select for transposon insertions conferring phage resistance as a way to identify the phage infection mechanism. Phage resistant mutants were readily obtained and maintained phage resistance when rescreened. A number of transposon insertion sites were sequenced and several were found in the pilus biogenesis cluster homologous to the C. crescentus flp-type pilus cluster. Insertions were found in the homologs for cpaD, cpaE and cpaF; it is known disruption of cpaE in C. crescentus abolishes pilus formation and leads to ΦCbK resistance (31-33). A targeted disruption was made in *cpaF* and tested for phage sensitivity by the soft agar assay (Figure 2B). The cpaF disruption caused complete resistance to the phage. The fact that multiple transposon insertions were found in the pilus cluster and that the cpaF disruption leads to phage resistance strongly suggest that Delta utilizes the B. subvibrioides pilus as part of its infection mechanism. The identification of another pili-tropic phage is not surprising as pili are major phage targets in multiple organisms.

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Phage Delta was used to assess the potential pilus production in developmental signaling mutants using the soft agar assay (Figure 2C). The divJ mutant has similar susceptibility to Delta as the wild-type, suggesting this strain still produces pili. This result is consistent with the

C. crescentus result as the C. crescentus divJ mutant is ΦCbK susceptible (8). Conversely, the B. subvibrioides pleC mutant shows a clear reduction in susceptibility to Delta, indicating that this strain is deficient in pilus production. If so, this would also be consistent with the C. crescentus pleC mutant which is resistant to ΦCbK (8, 28). With regards to the divK strain, if that mutant was to follow the C. crescentus model it should demonstrate the same susceptibility as the divJ strain. Alternatively, as the divK strain has often demonstrated opposite phenotypes to divJ in B. subvibrioides, one might predict it to demonstrate resistance to Delta. As seen in Figure 2C, the divK strain (and the divJdivK strain) shows the same level of resistance to phage Delta as the pleC mutant. Therefore, in regards to phage sensitivity, the divK strain is once again opposite of the prediction of the C. crescentus model. Interestingly, none of these developmental signaling mutants demonstrate complete resistance to Delta as seen in the cpaF strain. This result suggests that these mutations impact pilus synthesis, but do not abolish it completely.

A suppressor screen identifies mutations related to c-di-GMP signaling. As the *B. subvibrioides divK* mutant displays the most unusual phenotypes with regard to the *C. crescentus* model, this strain was selected for further analysis. Complementation of *divK* was attempted by expressing wild-type DivK from an inducible promoter on a replicating plasmid, however induction failed to complement any of the *divK* phenotypes (data not shown), indicating proper complementation conditions have not yet been identified. Transposon mutagenesis was performed on this strain and mutants were screened for those that restore motility. Two mutants were found (Bresu\_1276 and Bresu\_2169) that restored motility to the *divK* strain, and maintained this phenotype when recreated by plasmid insertional disruption. Both mutants were involved in c-di-GMP signaling. The *C. crescentus* homolog of the Bresu\_1276 gene, CC3100 (42% identical to Bresu\_1276), was recently characterized in a subcluster of CheY-like response

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GMP via an arginine-rich residue with high affinity and specificity for c-di-GMP. Upon binding, roughly 30% of CleD localizes to the flagellated pole of the swarmer cell. Nesper et. al suggests that CleD may bind directly to the flagellar motor switch protein, FliM. In E. coli and Salmonella, the flagellar brake protein YcgR interacts with FliM in a c-di-GMP dependent manner, biasing the motor in the smooth-running counter clockwise direction (35, 36), but YcgR is not a response regulator-type protein, and no obvious YcgR homologs are present in the C. crescentus or B. subvibrioides genomes (data not shown). Based upon the C. crescentus findings, it was hypothesized that increased c-di-GMP levels cause activation of CleD, which binds to the flagellar switch and inhibits flagellar function (34). In C. crescentus, cleD mutants are 150% more motile while their adhesion does not differ significantly from that of the wildtype. Unlike conventional response regulators, the phosphoryl-receiving aspartate is replaced with a glutamate in CleD. In other response regulators, replacement of the aspartate with a glutamate mimics the phosphorylated state and locks the protein in an active conformation. Alignment of CleD with orthologs from various Caulobacter and Brevundimonas species demonstrated that this was a conserved feature of CleD within this clade (Figure 3). Similar to C. crescentus, the swarm size of B. subvibrioides cleD mutant increased to 151% compared to wild-type. A knockout of cleD in the divK background led to a complete restoration of motility compared to that of wild-type, while adhesion did not appear to be affected (Figure 4A). These phenotypes correspond relatively well with the model given in Nesper et al. As CleD is thought to inhibit motor function, a cell lacking CleD would have less motor inhibition, leading to an

increase in motility and a delay in surface attachment, though cleD disruption had no impact on

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regulators and renamed CleD (34). Function of CleD is, at least in part, initiated by binding c-di-

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the phage sensitivity phenotypes of the wild-type or divK-derived strains (Supplemental Figure S5).

Bresu 2169 is the homolog of the well-characterized C. crescentus diguanylate cyclase,

DgcB (61% identical amino acid sequence). In C. crescentus, DgcB is one of two major diguanylate cyclases that work in conjunction to elevate c-di-GMP levels which in turn helps regulate the cell cycle, specifically in regards to polar morphogenesis (37). It has been shown that a dgcB mutant causes adhesion to drop to nearly 50% compared to wild-type while motility was elevated to almost 150%. It was unsurprising to find very similar changes in phenotypes in the dgcB mutant in wild-type B. subvibrioides. In the dgcB mutant, swarm expansion increased by 124% while adhesion dropped to only 46% compared to wild-type (Figure 4A). Though the dgcB mutant did not restore motility to wild-type levels in the divK background, the insertion did cause the swarm to expand nearly twice as much as that of the divK parent. These phenotypes are consistent with our current understanding of c-di-GMP's role in the C. crescentus cell cycle. As c-di-GMP builds up in the cell, it begins to make the switch from its motile phase to its sessile phase. Deleting a diguanylate cyclase therefore should prolong the swarmer cell stage, thereby increasing motility and decreasing adhesion. Similar to cleD, dgcB disruption had no impact on the phage sensitivity phenotypes of the wild-type or divK-derived strains (Supplemental Figure S5).

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A pleD mutant lacks hypermotility in divK background. Given the identification of dgcB in the suppressor screen, it was of note that the screen did not identify the other wellcharacterized diguanylate cycle involved in the C. crescentus cell cycle, PleD. PleD is an atypical response regulator with two receiver domains in addition to the diguanylate cyclase domain (38, 39). The *pleD* mutant in *C. crescentus* has been shown to suppresses the *pleC* 

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motility defect in C. crescentus which led to its initial discovery alongside divK (22, 38, 39). However, in a wild-type background, pleD disruption has actually been shown to reduce motility to about 60% compared to wild-type (22, 37). Additionally, a 70% reduction in adhesion is observed in pleD mutants which is thought to be a result of delayed holdfast production (22, 37, 40). Therefore, it was not clear whether a pleD disruption would lead to motility defect suppression in a divK background. To examine this, a pleD disruption was made in both the wild-type and divK B. subvibrioides strains (Figure 4A). The divK and pleD genes belong to the same two gene operon, where divK is the first gene. As previously published, deletion of divK was performed using an in-frame deletion and thus is not expected to impact pleD expression. As pleD is the latter of the two genes, plasmid insertion into pleD is not expected to impact divK expression. In wild-type B. subvibrioides, pleD disruption resulted in little change to motility with swarms expanding to 105% of wild-type, while adhesion dropped to only 10% compared to wild-type. While this data supports the broader theory of c-di-GMP's role as the "switch" between the motile and sessile phase of the cell cycle, it does not align with those phenotypes seen in a C. crescentus pleD mutant. While adhesion is reduced in both organisms, the reduction in adhesion was much more drastic in B. subvibrioides than C. crescentus. Moreover, the motility phenotypes in homologous pleD mutants do not match. In C. crescentus, pleD mutants causes a decrease in motility by nearly 40% in the wild-type background (22, 37). In B. subvibrioides, motility is the same as wild-type (Figure 4A). Disruption of pleD also causes a reduction in phage sensitivity (Figure 7B, Supplemental Figure S5). Another interesting detail discovered in performing these assays was the lack of change

in phenotypes seen in the *pleD* disruption in a *divK* background. It is not surprising that

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adhesion was not negatively impacted as it is already significantly lower in the divK strain compared to wild-type. However, disrupting the pleD gene did not increase motility in the divK mutant. In fact, motility was reduced to 89% compared to the divK control (Figure 4A). Additionally, both divK and pleD mutants had the same reduction in phage sensitivity as the divK pleD double mutant (Figure 7B, Supplemental Figure S5). It is not clear why disruption of the diguanylate cyclase DgcB leads to increased motility in both the wild-type and divK backgrounds, but disruption of another diguanylate cycle PleD does not increase motility in either background. Interestingly, it was previously shown that DivJ and PleC do not act on DivK alone, but in fact also have the same enzymatic functions on PleD phosphorylation as well (41). It may be that PleD acts upon motility not through c-di-GMP signaling but instead by modulating DivK activity, perhaps by interacting/interfering with the polar kinases. If so, then the absence of DivK could block this effect.

Suppressor mutants have altered c-di-GMP levels. As these mutations are all involved in c-di-GMP signaling, c-di-GMP levels in each strain were quantified to determine if the cellular levels in each strain correspond to observed phenotypes. These metabolites were quantified from whole cell lysates. In bacteria, high c-di-GMP levels typically induce adhesion while low c-di-GMP levels induce motility. Therefore, it would be expected that hypermotile strains would show decreased c-di-GMP levels. Instead, hypermotile strains of the wild-type background had varying c-di-GMP levels (Figure 4B). The *pleD* knockout had reduced c-di-GMP levels as predicted. While it may seem surprising that c-di-GMP levels are not affected in a dgcB mutant, this in fact true of the C. crescentus mutant as well (37). This result suggests that the c-di-GMP levels found in the dgcB strain do not appear to be the cause for the observed changes in motility

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and adhesion. A comparison of c-di-GMP levels and phenotypic analyses between the organisms is presented in Table 1.

Perhaps the most interesting result is that the cleD mutant had the highest c-di-GMP levels of all strains tested. This is surprising as it is suggested by Nesper et. al. that CleD does not affect c-di-GMP levels at all, but rather is affected by them. CleD is a response regulator that contains neither a GGDEF nor an EAL domain characteristic of diguanylate cyclases and phosphodiesterases respectively. Instead it is thought CleD binds to c-di-GMP, which then stimulates it to interact with the flagellar motor. The data presented here suggests that there may be a feedback loop whereby increased motility in the swarm agar leads to increased c-di-GMP levels. One potential explanation is that this situation increases contact with surfaces. Yet the cleD mutant clearly shows decreased adhesion compared to wild-type despite the elevated c-di-GMP levels. Therefore, there must be a block between the high c-di-GMP levels and the execution of those levels into adhesion in this strain.

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Very different results were obtained when c-di-GMP levels were measured in divK derived strains (Figure 4B). While a wide variety of motility phenotypes were observed in *cleD*, dgcB, and pleD disruptions in the divK background, their c-di-GMP levels are all nearly identical to that of the divK mutant. For the dgcB divK strain, once again the increase in motility occurs without a change in c-di-GMP levels. These results suggest that DgcB is not a significant contributor to c-di-GMP production in B. subvibrioides. While pleD disruption leads to decreased c-di-GMP levels in the wild-type background, no change is seen in the divK background. This means in the absence of PleD some other enzyme must be responsible for achieving these levels of c-di-GMP. Given the lack of impact DgcB seems to have on c-di-GMP signaling, it is tempting to speculate an as-yet characterized diguanylate cyclase is involved.

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Lastly the elevated c-di-GMP levels seen in the *cleD* disruption are not seen when *cleD* is disrupted in the divK background. This result suggests that whatever feedback mechanism leads to elevated c-di-GMP levels is not functional in the *divK* mutant.

Non-native diguarylate cyclases and phosphodiesterases cause shifts in c-di-GMP **levels but do not alter phenotypes in the** divK strain. As previously mentioned, c-di-GMP is thought to assist in the coordination of certain developmental processes throughout the cell cycle. The previous results found mutations in genes involved in c-di-GMP signaling could suppress developmental defects, but the actual effect of the mutations appears uncoupled from effects on c-di-GMP levels. In order to further investigate the connection between developmental defects and c-di-GMP signaling, c-di-GMP levels were artificially manipulated. Plasmid constructs expressing non-native c-di-GMP metabolizing enzymes previously used in similar experiments in C. crescentus were obtained and expressed in B. subvibrioides. The diguanylate cyclase ydeH from Escherichia coli was expressed from two different IPTG inducible plasmids; a medium copy number pBBR-based plamid, pTB4, and a low copy number pRK2-based plasmid, pSA280 (22). The combination of the two different inducible copy number plasmids resulted in different elevated levels of c-di-GMP (Figure 5B). A phosphodiesterase pchP from Pseudomonas aeruginosa (42), as well as its active site mutant pchPE328A were expressed from pBV-MCS4, a vanillate inducible medium copy number plasmid (23). The phosphodiesterase on a medium copy plasmid was enough to decrease levels of c-di-GMP to either equivalent or lower levels as is seen in the divK strain. The decrease was not observed when the active site mutant was expressed, demonstrating that the reduction of c-di-GMP was the result of pchP expression. Wild-type and divK strains were grown with IPTG and vanillate respectively to control for any growth effects caused by the inducers.

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Expression of the phosphodiesterase in the wild-type background caused a reduction in cdi-GMP which would be predicted to increase motility and decrease adhesion. While this strain had a large reduction of adhesion, it also had a small reduction in motility (Figure 5A). However, these same results were obtained when this construct was expressed in wild-type C. crescentus (22). It is interesting to note, though, that expression of the phosphodiesterase results in similar c-di-GMP levels to that of the divK strain yet the phosphodiesterase strain demonstrates much larger swarm sizes than the divK strain. The low copy diguanylate cyclase plasmid did not appear to affect c-di-GMP levels (Figure 5B), and unsurprisingly did not appear to affect either motility or adhesion. However, the medium copy diguanylate cyclase plasmid increased c-di-GMP levels but had surprising phenotypic results. An increase in c-di-GMP levels would be predicted to increase adhesion and decrease motility. When this construct was expressed in wild-type C. crescentus there was a small decrease to adhesion but a very large decrease in motility, almost to the point of non-motility (22); the motility results mirror the prediction based on c-di-GMP levels. In B. subvibrioides the same construct produced a slight decrease to adhesion, but motility actually increased instead of drastically decreasing. Here not only do B. subvibrioides results differ from C. crescentus results, but the results contradict predictions based on known c-di-GMP paradigms. In the divK background strain, expression of either diguanylate cyclase increases c-di-GMP levels, though the low copy diguanylate cyclase increase is not as dramatic as the medium copy. However, neither expression level has a significant impact on motility or adhesion (Figure 5). Neither the phosphodiesterase nor its active site mutant cause a noticeable shift in the c-di-

GMP levels compared to the divK strain nor any noticeable impact on phenotype. In fact, though

the c-di-GMP levels differed dramatically between strains, the phenotypes of all six of these

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strains are not impacted. T-tests performed between each strain and its respective control showed no significant difference. These results appear to be the antithesis of those found from the suppressor screen. While the suppressor mutants showed recovery in their motility defect compared to divK, their c-di-GMP levels did not significantly differ from each other or divK. Conversely, when c-di-GMP levels were artificially manipulated, alterations of c-di-GMP levels in the divK strain had no impact on phenotypes. These results suggest that DivK is somehow serving as a block or a buffer to c-di-GMP levels and their effects on phenotypes and calls into question the role c-di-GMP has in B. subvibrioides developmental progression.

Disruption of pleD in developmental signaling mutants does not alter pleC **phenotypes, but does alter divJ phenotypes.** As discussed above, disruption of *pleD* does not impact the adhesion or swarm expansion phenotypes of a divK mutant. To determine the epistatic relationship between *pleD* and other developmental signaling mutants of B. subvibrioides, the pleD disruption was placed in the divJ, divJdivK, and pleC strains and resultant mutants were analyzed for developmental defects (Figures 6 and 7). Disruption of pleD does not alter the phenotypes of the divK or divJdivK strains in swarm expansion, adhesion, holdfast formation, or phage sensitivity. The exception to this is the divJdivK pleD::pCR strain which had a small but statistically significant reduction in adhesion compared to the divJdivK parent (p = 0.03). These results are to be expected given previous results and the fact that the divJdivK strain has consistently phenocopied the divK strain. What was not expected was that disruption of pleD had no effect on pleC strain phenotypes. The pleD gene was originally discovered as a motility suppressor of the C. crescentus pleC mutant (13), but in B. subvibrioides pleD disruption does not alter any of the developmental phenotypes of the pleC strain. Instead, pleD disruption alters some, but not all, of the divJ mutant phenotypes. The divJ pleD::pCR

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strain had wild-type levels of phage sensitivity just like the divJ parent, and microscopic examination of the strain also revealed the strain had a filamentous cell morphology characteristic of the div J parent strain (Figure 7A). However, this strain had a significant reduction in adhesion, holdfast was undetectable, and there was a small but statistically significant increase in motility. Essentially, pleD disruption removes holdfast formation and increases motility without affecting cell filamentation or pilus production, though swarm expansion results are clouded by the filamentous cell morphology which impacts swarm expansion independent of flagellum function or chemotaxis. These divJ pleD::pCR results stand in stark contrast to the divJdivK results where all developmental phenotypes copy the divK phenotypes. Perhaps this suggests that PleD may have a more specific role in the morphological changes that occur during B. subvibrioides cell cycle progression.

**Discussion** 

Across closely related bacterial species, high levels of gene conservation are commonly observed. It has therefore been a long-standing assumption that information gathered from studying a model organism can be extrapolated to other closely related organisms. Through this study, by comparing and contrasting the developmental signaling systems of C. crescentus and B. subvibrioides, it has been shown that these assumptions may not be as safe to make as previously thought. Preliminary data raised a few questions by demonstrating major differences in the phenotypes of divK mutants between species. Here the system was analyzed in greater depth in B. subvibrioides by examining subcellular protein localization, developmental phenotypes of a pleC mutant, and isolating a pilitropic bacteriophage to examine pilus production in multiple developmental mutants. GFP tagging revealed that the subcellular localization patterns of DivJ

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and PleC in B. subvibrioides are consistent with the C. crescentus proteins. DivJ was consistently detected at the holdfast (i.e. stalked) pole, while PleC was consistently detected at the non-holdfast (i.e. flagellar) pole. DivK was found in a variety of localization patterns. In C. crescentus, DivK is localized to the stalked pole in stalked cells, bi-polarly localized in predivisional cells, and delocalized in swarmer cells. In B. subvibrioides, stalked pole and bipolar localizations were observed, but the majority of cells displayed delocalized DivK-GFP. If B. subvibrioides adhered to the C. crescentus model, this would suggest that over 85% of the B. subvibrioides population in a growing culture is swarmer cells. Many of the cells with delocalized DivK were in rosettes and/or had detectable holdfast (Supplemental Figure S4, additional data not shown). Correlated with this is the fact that 82.9% of cells had no detectable DivJ-GFP foci, while only 28.9% lacked detectable PleC-GFP foci; the presence of PleC and the absence of DivJ would theoretically lead to complete dephosphorylation of DivK, which causes delocalization in C. crescentus, such as in swarmer cells (43). This suggests that many, if not most, B. subvibrioides stalked cells have delocalized DivK. One unusual facet of B. subvibrioides physiology is the fact that the doubling time of this organism in PYE is 6.5 hours (3), compared to the 1.5 hours of C. crescentus in the same media. It is not clear how the cell cycle is adjusted to account for this longer generation time. Perhaps the B. subvibrioides signaling system is held in a more swarmer cell like state even though the cells are morphologically more like a stalked cell. However, stalked pole localization is observed, so what induces the transition from delocalized to localized? More careful dissection of the B. subvibrioides cell cycle, with particular respect to signaling protein localization, may reveal the answer.

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While the discovery that developmental protein localization in B. subvibrioides largely matches the localization in C. crescentus may not be surprising, this discovery makes the phenotypic results even more surprising (summarized in Table 2). Previously it was shown that the B. subvibrioides div J mutant closely matches the phenotypes of the C. crescentus div J mutant in regards to cell filamentation, holdfast production, adhesion and motility (3). Here pilus synthesis was added by the use of a novel bacteriophage, and here still B. subvibrioides divJ mirrored the C. crescentus results. In C. crescentus divK disruption/depletion leads to G1 cell stage arrest (15); i.e. in the stalked cell stage prior to entering the predivisional stage. As a consequence, the cells become extremely filamentous and do not produce flagella or pili. While adhesion of this strain was never tested, cells are seen the produce stalks that touch tip to tip in the rosette fashion, suggesting holdfast production. These phenotypes are similar to divJ phenotypes, which makes sense given both mutations ultimately lead to lower levels of DivK~P. Conversely, previously it was shown that B. subvibrioides divK deletion produced opposite phenotypic results in cell size, holdfast production and adhesion. Both mutants were compromised in motility, but the mechanistic reasons are unclear, especially given both strains produce apparently functional flagella, though the morphology defects of the divJ strain may have a bearing on these results. Here another difference was demonstrated between the strains as the B. subvibrioides divK strain had an intermediate phage resistance phenotype. While B. subvibrioides divJ largely matched C. crescentus divJ, and B. subvibrioides was largely opposite C. crescentus divK, B. subvibrioides pleC was an intermediate of C. crescentus pleC. In C. crescentus pleC mutants have normal cell size, but produce no pili, no holdfast (and thus are adhesion deficient), and are non-motile due to a paralyzed flagellum. Here it was found that B. subvibrioides pleC mutants have an intermediate phage resistance phenotype, suggesting

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intermediate pilus production, intermediate adhesion with weak holdfast detection, and intermediate motility. Therefore, comparing signaling mutants between organisms results in the same, opposite, or intermediate results. These results are all the more confusing given the fact that localization patterns of the proteins are mostly conserved between the organisms. It seems unlikely that the phenotypic consequences are a result of altered localization patterns. This suggests that the phenotypic consequences are a product of altered downstream signaling. Even in C. crescentus, the exact connection between signaling protein disruption and phenotypic consequence are largely unknown. Careful mapping of the signaling systems between the mutation and the eventual phenotype is required in both organisms.

In an attempt to further map this system in B. subvibrioides, a suppressor screen was employed using the divK mutant as its phenotypes differed most dramatically from its C. crescentus homolog. Suppressor mutations were found in genes predicted to encode proteins that affected or were affected by c-di-GMP. This was not necessarily a surprising discovery. Cdi-GMP is a second messenger signaling system conserved across many bacterial species used to coordinate the switch between motile and sessile lifestyles. Previous research in C. crescentus suggests that organism integrated c-di-GMP signaling into the swarmer-to-stalked cell transition. Mutations that modify c-di-GMP signaling would be predicted to impact the swarmer cell stage, perhaps lengthening the amount of time the cell stays in that stage and thus lead to an increase in swarm spreading in soft agar. However, further inquiry into c-di-GMP levels of divK suppressor mutants revealed discrepancies between c-di-GMP levels and their corresponding phenotypes. Firstly, CleD, a CheY-like response regulator that is thought to affect flagellar motor function, caused the strongest suppression of the divK mutant restoring motility levels to that of wild-type. Given that the reported function of CleD is to bind the FliM filament of the flagellar motor and

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of cleD would result in increased motility and decreased adhesion which can be seen in both the wild-type and divK background strains (Figure 4A). What was unexpected, however, was to find that a lack of CleD led to one of the highest detected levels of c-di-GMP in this study, which was surprising given that CleD has no predicted diguanylate cyclase or phosphodiesterase domains. Yet when this same mutation was placed in the divK background, the c-di-GMP levels were indistinguishable from the divK parent. Therefore, the same mutation leads to hypermotility in two different backgrounds despite the fact that c-di-GMP levels are drastically different. Consequently, the phenotypic results of the mutation do not match the c-di-GMP levels, suggesting that c-di-GMP has little or no effect on the motility phenotype. A similar result was seen with DgcB. Disruption of dgcB in either the wild-type or divK background resulted in hypermotility, but c-di-GMP levels were not altered. Once again, the effect on motility occurred independently of c-di-GMP levels. Disruption of divK seems to somehow stabilize c-di-GMP levels. Even when non-native enzymes are expressed in the divK background the magnitude of changes seen in the c-di-GMP pool is dampened compared to the magnitude of change seen when the enzymes are expressed in the wild-type background. This may explain why pleD was not found in the suppressor screen. While CleD and DgcB seem involved in c-di-GMP signaling, their effect on the cell appears c-di-GMP-independent, while PleD appears to perform its action by affecting the c-di-GMP pool. If that pool is stabilized in the divK strain, then disruption of *pleD* will have no effect on either the c-di-GMP pool or on the motility phenotype. However, it should be noted that c-di-GMP levels were measured from whole cell lysates and does not reflect the possibility of spatial or temporal variations of c-di-GMP levels within the

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interfere with motor function to boost rapid surface attachment (34), it is expected that disruption

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cell. It is possible that CleD and DgcB have c-di-GMP dependent effects, but those effects are limited to specific sub-cellular locations in the cell.

In C. crescentus, c-di-GMP is implicated in the morphological changes that occur during swarmer cell differentiation, but c-di-GMP levels are also tied to the developmental network, and more specifically CtrA activation, by two different mechanisms. First, through most of the cell cycle the diguanylate cyclase DgcB is antagonized by the phosphodiesterase PdeA such that no c-di-GMP is produced by DgcB (37). Upon swarmer cell differentiation PdeA is targeted for proteolysis, leaving DgeB activity unchecked. This, combined with active PleD, increases c-di-GMP levels in the cell. The elevated levels activate the protein PopA, which targets CtrA for proteolysis, which is useful for swarmer cell differentiation as it will relieve the inhibition of chromosome replication initiation performed by CtrA binding at the origin of replication. In the second mechanism, it has been found that c-di-GMP is an allosteric regulator of CckA, the hybrid histidine kinase responsible for phosphorylation of CtrA (44). As stated above, DivJ and PleC have the same antagonistic phosphorylation activities on PleD as they do on DivK, and phosphorylation induces PleD activity. During swarmer cell differentiation, isolated PleC is replaced at the transitioning stalked pole by DivJ, and which leads to elevated PleD phosphorylation and therefore higher enzymatic activity. This, combined with unchecked DgcB activity, increases c-di-GMP levels which has been shown to inhibit kinase activity and stimulate phosphatase activity of CckA, causing CtrA to be dephosphorylated and therefore deactivated. Additionally, the same CckA phosphatase activity causes dephosphorylation of CpdR, which also targets CtrA for proteolysis. It has also been shown that CpdR activity targets PdeA for degradation, thereby permitting unchecked DgcB activity. Therefore, the elevation of c-di-GMP levels during swarmer cell differentiation works redundantly to deactivate CtrA, which is

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necessary for cell cycle progression, and serves to coordinate the morphological changes of swarmer cell differentiation with the necessary changes in the signaling state of the developmental network. However, these models do not adequately explain some of the more unusual results

reported in this study. First, it is not clear why c-di-GMP levels appear stabilized in a divK mutant in B. subvibrioides. In C. crescentus DivK has been shown to be an allosteric affector of PleC, where non-phosphorylated DivK stimulates PleC to become a kinase and increase PleD~P levels (45), though it is thought this activity only occurs during the onset of swarmer cell differentiation. If one were to assume that DivK-driven PleC phosphorylation of PleD were the sole mechanism of PleD phosphorylation, then theoretically the absence of DivK could mean PleD is never phosphorylated and therefore c-di-GMP levels would not change above background in a divK strain, but this would mean 1) observed DivJ kinase activity on PleD is unimportant to PleD activity and it is only the phosphorylation of PleD by PleC (at the onset or swarmer cell differentiation) that is important, and 2) PleD is the sole contributor to c-di-GMP elevation and thus DgcB activity is not a meaningful contributor to measurable c-di-GMP changes. Perhaps this second point is supported by our data here which shows a disconnect between phenotype and c-di-GMP levels in dgcB mutants, and it was seen both here in B. subvibrioides and in C. crescentus that overall c-di-GMP levels do not change much in dgcB mutants (37). These models also do not explain why pleD disruption alters the adhesion phenotypes of a divJ mutant. Assuming that DivJ is the PleD kinase, then PleD should be inactive in a divJ strain and therefore disrupting pleD in a divJ background should have no effect. In this study, it clearly does. Perhaps this result supports a hypothesis that only PleC phosphorylation of PleD is biologically relevant. Additionally, assuming another PleD kinase is

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active in a divJ strain, the results of pleD disruption should be redundant to divJ deletion, not counter-productive. A divJ deletion should lead to decreased levels of DivK~P, which should allow promiscuous interaction between DivL and CckA, ultimately leading to over-activation of CtrA. Disruption of pleD should lead to decreased c-di-GMP levels (which was seen in this study) which would not direct CckA into its phosphatase role, and also potentially lead to overactivation of CtrA. Therefore, combining divJ and pleD mutations should be redundant, if not additive. Yet in this study it was seen pleD disruption reversed the holdfast formation and motility of the divJ strain. Even further, pleD disruption did not alter the cell filamentation or pilus production of the divJ strain, which may suggest that PleD's role in cell cycle progression is specific to holdfast and/or motility and argues against a role in CtrA regulation.

This research raises several questions. First, what is the exact role of c-di-GMP in cell cycle progression of B. subvibrioides? Is this signal a major driver of the swarmer cell and swarmer cell differentiation? Or have the various c-di-GMP signaling components found new roles in the swarmer cell and the actual c-di-GMP is simply vestigial. What is the role of PleD in cell cycle progression? Why are c-di-GMP levels so stable when DivK is removed? And lastly, are the answers to these questions specific to B. subvibrioides, or can they be extrapolated back to C. crescentus? Further investigation into c-di-GMP signaling in both organisms is required.

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## Table 1: Comparison of changes in c-di-GMP levels and phenotypes between *C. crescentus* and *B. subvibrioides* strains.

Mutation	Organism <sup>1</sup>	c-di-GMP	Adhesion	Motility	References
cleD	C.c.	N.D.	+/-3	++	(34)
	B.s.	++ (193%)	+/-	++	This study
dgcB	C.c.	+ (~105%)	+/-	++	(37)
	B.s.	+ (108%)	+/-	++	This study
pleD	C.c.	+/- (~70%)	+/-	+/-	(37)
	B.s.	- (27%)	+/-	+	This study

993 C.c. = C. crescentus, B.s. = B. subvibrioides.

2 ++ = above wild-type levels, += wild-type or near wild-type levels, +/- below wild-type or
intermediate levels, -= null or near null levels, N.D. = not determined.

996 <sup>3</sup> Adhesion was measured of individual cells in microfluidic devices.

998 Table 2: Comparison of developmental mutation phenotypes between C. crescentus and B. 999 subvibrioides.

Mutation	Organism <sup>2</sup>	Cell Size	Adhesion	Holdfast	Motility	Pili	References
divJ	C.c.	Filament	++	++	-	+	(8, 46, 47)
	B.s.	Filament	+/++	++	-	+	(3), this study
divK	C.c.	Filament	N.D. <sup>3</sup>	N.D. <sup>3</sup>	-	ı	(15, 48, 49)
	B.s.	Short	Ī	-	-	+/-	(3), this study
pleC	C.c.	Normal	-	-	-	-	(12, 13, 23,
_							28, 29)
	B.s.	Normal	+/-	+/-	+/-	+/-	This study
pleD	C.c.	Normal	-	+	+/-	+	(23, 37, 39,
							40, 50)
	B.s.	Normal	-	-	+	+/-	This study
dgcB	C.c.	Normal	+/-	+	++	N.D.	(37)
	B.s.	Normal	+/-	+	++	+	This study

1 ++ = above wild-type levels, + = wild-type or near wild-type levels, +/- below wild-type or 1000 intermediate levels, - = null or near null levels, N.D. = not determined. 1001

 $^{2}$  C.c. = C. crescentus, B.s. = B. subvibrioides. 1002

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<sup>3</sup> Adhesion and holdfast production were not analyzed in this strain, but circumstantial evidence suggests holdfast material is produced.

Figure Legends

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Figure 1. Deletions in B. subvibrioides developmental signaling genes results in varying physiological phenotypes. A) Wild-type, divJ, divK, divJdivK, and pleC B. subvibrioides strains were analyzed for swarm expansion (dark bars) and adhesion (light bars) defects using a soft agar swarm assay and a short-term adhesion assay. Mutant strains were normalized to wild-type results for both assays. Deletion of divJ gives motility defects but minimal adhesion defects, similar to C. crescentus divJ results. B. subvibrioides divK and divJdivK strains give opposite results, with severe motility and adhesion defects. The B. subvibrioides pleC strain has reduced motility and moderately reduced adhesion, which is similar but not identical to the C. crescentus pleC strain. B) Lectin staining of holdfast material of wild-type, divJ, divK, divJdivK, and pleC strains. The pleC strain, despite having reduced adhesion in the short-term adhesion assay, still has detectable holdfast material C) GFP-tagged DivJ localizes to the holdfast producing pole, while PleC-GFP localizes to the pole opposite the holdfast. DivK-GFP displays bi-polar localization. These localization patterns are identical those of *C. crescentus* homologs. Figure 2. Bacteriophage Delta serves as a tool to investigate B. subvibrioides pilus **production.** A) Phage Delta was tested for infection in 18 different *Brevundimonas* species. Control assays used PYE media instead of phage stock. Delta caused a significant reduction in B. subvibrioides and B. aveniformis viability, with some reduction in B. basaltis and B. halotolerans as well. B) Phage Delta was tested against wild-type and cpaF::pCR B. subvibrioides strains using a soft agar phage assay. Wild-type displayed zones of clearing with

phage dilutions up to  $10^{-7}$ , while the *cpaF* strain showed resistance to all phage dilutions. C) B.

subvibrioides developmental signaling mutants were tested with phage Delta in soft agar phage

assays. Wild-type shows clear susceptibility to Delta, as does the divJ strain suggesting that, like C. crescentus divJ, it produces pili. The pleC strain shows a 2-3 orders of magnitude reduced susceptibility to the phage, indicating reduced pilus production which is consistent with the C. crescentus phenotype. The divK and divJdivK strains display similar to resistance as the pleC strain. Here again, divK disruption causes the opposite phenotype to divJ disruption, unlike the C. crescentus results.

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Figure 3. CleD displays a conserved glutamate residue in place of an aspartate typical of response regulators. CleD orthologs from various Caulobacter and Brevundimonas species were aligned by ClustalW, along with B. subvibrioides DivK. The shaded box indicates B. subvibrioides DivK D53, which is analogous to C. crescentus DivK D53 and is the known phosphoryl-accepting residue. This alignment demonstrates that CleD orthologs all contain a glutamate substitution at that site, which has been found to mimic the phosphorylated state and lock the protein in an active conformation in other response regulators.

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Figure 4. Phenotypes exhibited by divK suppressors do not coincide with intracellular c-di-GMP levels. A) Swarm expansion (dark bars) and surface adhesion (light bars) of suppressor mutations tested in both the wild-type and divK background. Disruption of CleD, DgcB and PleD lead to increased motility in the wild-type background, but only CleD and DgcB lead to increased motility in the divK background. Disruptions in the wild-type background lead to varying levels of adhesion reduction, but the same disruptions had no effect on adhesion in the divK background. \* indicates that motility is statistically insignificant from the divK parent, while \*\* indicates motility is statistically significant from the divK parent (p < 0.05). B) C-diGMP levels were measured using mass spectrometry then normalized to the amount of biomass from each sample. Despite disruptions causing increased motility in the wild-type background, those strains had different c-di-GMP levels. No disruption changed c-di-GMP levels in the divK background even though some strains suppressed the motility defect while others did not. These results show a discrepancy between phenotypic effects and intracellular c-di-GMP levels.

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Figure 5. Artificial manipulation of c-di-GMP levels do not significantly affect phenotypes in the divK mutant. A) Swarm expansion (dark bars) and surface adhesion (light bars) of strains that have altered c-di-GMP levels caused by expression of non-native enzymes in the wild-type and divK background. Constructs including the E. coli diguanylate cyclase ydeH expressed from a medium copy plasmid (med DGC) and a low copy plasmid (low DGC), the *P. aeruginosa* phosphodiesterase pchP (PDE) as well as a catalytically inactive variant (inactive PDE). Bars below the x-axis outline inducer used for plasmids in each strain. In the wild-type background the medium copy DGC increased motility and decreased adhesion, which is opposite the expected outcome, while the PDE reduced motility and severely reduced adhesion. In the divK background, no expression construct significantly altered the phenotypes. \* indicates both motility and adhesion were statistically insignificant from the control strain (p > 0.05). B) C-di-GMP levels were measured using mass spectrometry then normalized to the amount of biomass from each sample. In the wild-type background the medium copy DGC significantly increased c-di-GMP levels while the PDE reduced c-di-GMP levels. In the divK background, both DGC constructs increased c-di-GMP levels, though PDE expression has no effect, despite the fact that neither DGC construct has an effect on motility and adhesion phenotypes.

Figure 6. Disruption of pleD does not alter pleC or divK motility or adhesion, but does alter divJ motility and adhesion. Wild-type, pleD, divJ, divJpleD, divK, divKpleD, pleC, and pleCpleD B. subvibrioides strains

were analyzed for swarm expansion (A) and adhesion (B) defects using a soft agar swarm assay and a short-term adhesion assay respectively. Mutant strains were normalized to wild-type results for both assays. The pleD mutation has no effect on the adhesion or motility of the pleC or divK strains, but does reduce adhesion and increase motility of the divJ strain. In A), the bar with an asterisk indicates divJ pleD::pCR has statistically significant more swarm expansion than divJ (p < 0.05). In B), results with the same number of asterisks are not statistically significant from each other, but are statistically significant from results with a different number of asterisks (p < 0.05).

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Figure 7. Disruption of pleD does not alter pleC or divK holdfast production or phage sensitivity, but does alter divJ holdfast production.

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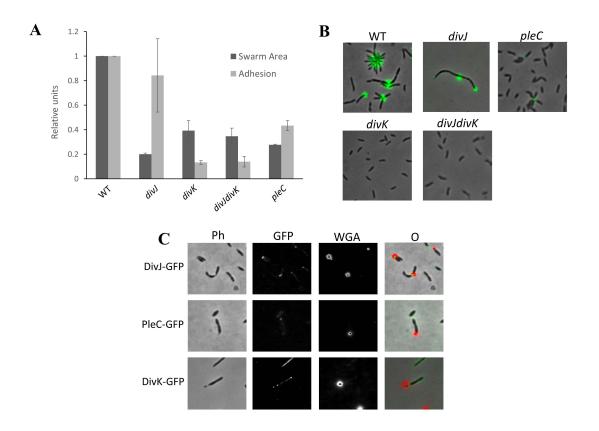
A) Lectin staining of holdfast material of wild-type, pleD, divJ, divJpleD, divK, divKpleD, pleC, and pleCpleD B. subvibrioides strains. The wild-type and divJ strains have easily detectable holdfast material. The pleC and pleC pleD strains have greatly reduced but still detectable holdfast material, while all remaining strains have no detectable holdfast. This includes the div.J pleD strain, which still displays obvious cell filamentation despite no longer producing holdfast. B) B. subvibrioides wild-type, pleD, divJ, divJpleD, divK, divKpleD, pleC, and pleCpleD strains were tested with phage Delta in soft agar phage assays. While the pleD disruption alters the adhesion and holdfast phenotypes of the divJ strain, this mutation does not alter the phage

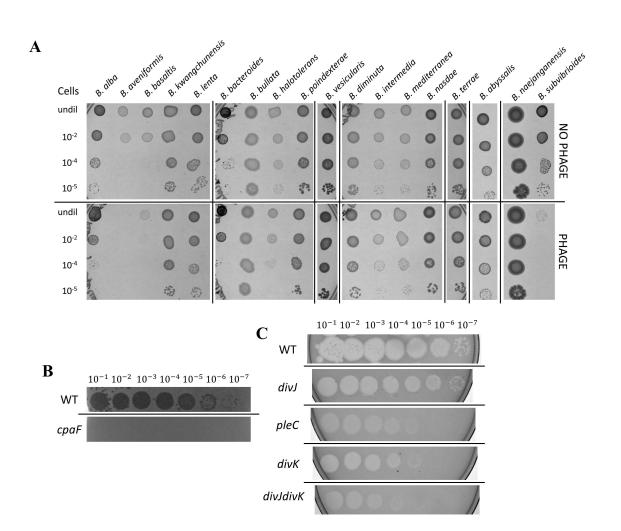
sensitivity of the parent, as both divJ and divJpleD strains have similar sensitivities to the phage

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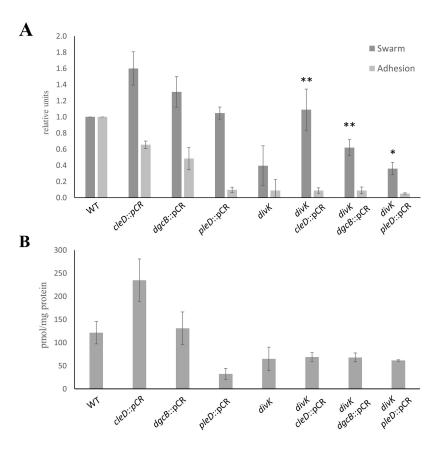


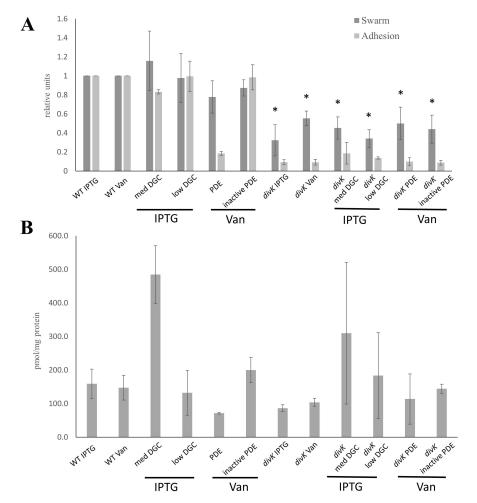


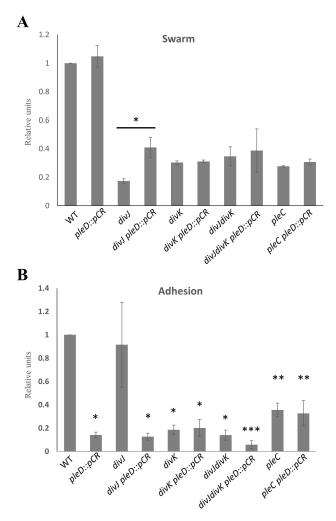
Caulobacter crescentus CB15 Caulobacter henricii Caulobacter K31 Caulobacter segnis Brevundimonas abyssalis Brevundimonas denitrificans Brevundimonas subvibrioides Brevundimonas bacteroides Brevundimonas diminuta Brevundimonas naejangensis Brevundimonas nasdae Brevundimonas vesicularis Brevundimonasa veniformis Brevundimonas subvibrioides DivK

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