1	Sugar-phosphate metabolism regulates stationary phase entry and stalk elongation in
2	Caulobacter crescentus
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4	Kevin D. de Young ¹ , Gabriele Stankeviciute ² , and Eric A. Klein ^{1,2,*}
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6	¹ Biology Department, Rutgers University-Camden, Camden, NJ 08102
7	² Center for Computational and Integrative Biology, Rutgers University-Camden, Camden, NJ
8	08102
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15	*Correspondence:
16	Eric A. Klein
17	Department of Biology
18	Rutgers University-Camden
19	Camden, NJ 08102
20	eric.a.klein@rutgers.edu
21	Phone: (856) 225-6335
22	Fax: (856) 225-6312
23	

Abstract

Bacteria have a variety of mechanisms for adapting to environmental perturbations.
Changes in oxygen availability result in a switch between aerobic and anaerobic respiration,
whereas iron limitation may lead to siderophore secretion. In addition to metabolic adaptations,
many organisms respond by altering their cell shape. Caulobacter crescentus, when grown under
phosphate limiting conditions, dramatically elongates its polar stalk appendage. The stalk is
hypothesized to facilitate phosphate uptake; however, the mechanistic details of stalk synthesis
are not well characterized. We used a chemical mutagenesis approach to isolate and characterize
stalk-deficient mutants, one of which had two mutations in the phosphomannose isomerase gene
(manA) that were necessary and sufficient to inhibit stalk elongation. Transcription of the pho
regulon was unaffected in the manA mutant; therefore, ManA plays a unique regulatory role in
stalk synthesis. The mutant ManA had reduced enzymatic activity resulting in a 5-fold increase
in the intracellular fructose 6-phosphate: mannose 6-phosphate ratio. This metabolic imbalance
impaired the synthesis of cellular envelope components derived from mannose 6-phosphate,
namely lipopolysaccharide O-antigen and exopolysaccharide. Furthermore, the manA mutations
prevented C. crescentus cells from efficiently entering stationary phase. Deletion of the
stationary-phase response regulator spdR inhibited stalk elongation in wild-type cells while
overproduction of the alarmone ppGpp, which triggers growth arrest and stationary phase entry,
increased stalk length in the manA mutant strain. These results demonstrate that sugar-phosphate
metabolism regulates stalk elongation independently of phosphate starvation.

Importance

Metabolic control of bacterial cell shape is an important mechanism for adapting to environmental perturbations. *Caulobacter crescentus* dramatically elongates its polar stalk appendage in response to phosphate starvation. To investigate the mechanism of this morphological adaptation, we isolated stalk-deficient mutants, one of which had mutations in the phosphomannose isomerase gene (*manA*) that blocked stalk elongation, despite normal activation of the phosphate-starvation response. The mutant ManA resulted in an imbalance in sugarphosphate concentrations which had effects on the synthesis of cellular envelope components and entry into stationary phase. Due to the interconnectivity of metabolic pathways, our findings may suggest more generally that the modulation of bacterial cell shape involves the regulation of growth phase and the synthesis of cellular building blocks.

Introduction

The diversity of bacterial cell shapes found in nature highlights the selective pressure for maintaining particular morphologies. The Gram-negative Alphaproteobacteria, *Caulobacter crescentus*, forms a unipolar stalk appendage during its asymmetric cell cycle. The dimorphic life cycle of *C. crescentus* produces one motile (swarmer) cell and one adherent (stalked) cell at each cell cycle (1). The swarmer cell has a polar flagellum and pili and is replication-incompetent. The swarmer then sheds its flagellum and, at the same pole, produces a holdfast - the strongest measured biological adhesive (2). After the holdfast is secreted, the stalk is formed and elongated from the holdfast pole, thereby causing the holdfast to be pushed away from the cell body and localized to the tip of the stalk. This stalked cell can perform DNA replication in preparation for cell division. During cell division, a new flagellum is synthesized at the opposite pole. As a result, following cytokinesis, the stalked cell maintains its stalk and immediately reenters the cell cycle, while the swarmer daughter cell is flagellated and enters a quiescent state from which it needs to emerge before synthesizing a new stalk and beginning a proliferative cycle.

In addition to its regulation by the cell cycle, stalk elongation is dramatically induced during phosphate limitation (3). Though the precise physiological functions of stalk elongation are not known, one proposed hypothesis was that the stalk acts as a "nutrient antenna" (4). Under the diffusive environment characteristic of freshwater lakes, nutrient flux is proportional to length; therefore, having a long thin appendage would be the most economical method of increasing cell length while minimizing surface area (5). Consistent with the "nutrient antenna" model, proteomic analysis of the stalk compartment found a large number of outer-membrane TonB-dependent receptors which facilitate the uptake of molecules into the periplasm (4). A

second proposed advantage of stalk elongation is that, in its natural environment, *C. crescentus* adheres to surfaces via holdfast at the stalk tip. By elongating the stalk, cells could extend away from the surface, exit the boundary layer, and gain access to convective fluid flow, where nutrients may be more available (6).

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While the timing of stalk elongation and its physiological consequences are fairly well understood, we know comparatively little about the mechanism of stalk synthesis. The stalk is a true extension of the bacterial envelope containing inner- and outer-membranes as well as a peptidoglycan (PG) cell wall. The identification of PG synthesis proteins responsible for stalk elongation has been elusive. PG synthesis during cell elongation and septation is performed by a family of mono- and bi-functional penicillin-binding proteins (PBPs) that have transglycosylase and/or transpeptidase activities. Deletion of the C. crescentus transglycosylases either individually or in combination does not prevent stalk formation in low phosphate conditions (7, 8); any of the paralogs (except PbpZ) suffice for cellular growth and stalk biogenesis. These data suggest that either the redundancy of this activity allows any PBP to synthesize stalk PG or there is a yet unidentified enzyme required for stalk PG insertion. In contrast to the PG transglycosylases, inhibition of the transpeptidase PBP2 blocks stalk elongation (9, 10), as does depletion of MreB or RodA (11) which are regulators of PBP2 activity in E. coli (12, 13). Additionally, the stalk PG is enriched for LD-crosslinks (between meso-DAP residues on neighboring peptide stems) (9, 14); while these LD-crosslinks increase stalk PG resistance to lysozyme-mediated degradation (14), abrogation of LD-transpeptidation has no effect on stalk elongation (9, 14).

Studies using transposon mutagenesis or overexpression of fluorescent fusion proteins have successfully identified a number of stalk- or stalk-pole localized proteins, including: PbpC

(15), BacA (15), StpX (16), BamE (17), and DipM (18). The deletion of these genes shortens, but does not eliminate, stalks in low-phosphate conditions. The difficulty in isolating a stalk-less *C. crescentus* strain implies that either: 1) stalk synthesis is an essential physiological process, 2) the synthesis enzymes have a secondary essential function and can therefore not be isolated by transposon mutagenesis, or 3) there is redundancy in the stalk synthesis pathway.

In this report, we used chemical mutagenesis to introduce single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and screened for mutants with stalk elongation defects. We isolated a strain with mutations in *ccna_03732* (*manA*), a phosphomannose isomerase, that affected sugarphosphate metabolism, cellular envelope biosynthesis, and entry into stationary phase. These physiological perturbations decreased stalk length despite normal induction of the *pho* regulon, suggesting that cellular metabolism regulates stalk elongation independently of phosphate starvation.

Results

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Isolation of a stalk-deficient mutant

Genetic screens for phenotypes of interest are commonly performed by transposon mutagenesis. While this approach is quite powerful and allows for easy mapping of transposon insertions, it has the drawback that insertions in essential genes are highly unlikely since these mutants tend to be total loss-of-function and lethal. As an alternative approach, we used chemical mutagenesis to introduce SNPs into the C. crescentus genome and devised a screening methodology to isolate stalk-deficient mutants (see Materials and Methods). Briefly, C. crescentus cells grown in Hutner-Imidazole-Glucose-Glutamate media (HIGG) containing 1 mM phosphate (high phosphate) were treated with 1-methyl-3-nitro-1-nitrosoguanidine (NTG) to induce DNA mutations. The cells were washed and resuspended in HIGG- 1 µM phosphate (low phosphate) to induce stalk elongation. To separate cells with stalk deficiencies, we reasoned that stalked cells float on top of a Percoll density gradient whereas non-stalked swarmer cells settle near the bottom of the gradient; therefore, we hypothesized that stalk-deficient cells would move to the bottom of a Percoll gradient. After 72 h of growth, cells were collected and subjected to three rounds of Percoll gradient centrifugation, each time collecting cells from the bottom of the gradient. Following the final gradient, cells were plated to isolate individual mutants. 384 individual colonies (4 x 96 well plates) were grown in HIGG- 1 µM phosphate and visually screened for stalk-phenotypes. We collected 4 mutants with clear phenotypes; three strains had short stalks of varying length and one strain had a stalk-shedding phenotype similar to that described for the NY111d1 isolate (19). One particular isolate, designated Stalk-Deficient<u>M</u>utant 1 (SDM1) had very short stalks compared to wild-type when grown in low phosphate (Fig. 1A), and we focused on this strain in this work.

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Mapping the SDM1 mutation

Whole-genome sequencing of the SDM1 strain yielded 79 potential SNPs. To identify the causative mutation for the stalk elongation phenotype, we performed complementation assays using a C. crescentus genomic cosmid library (20). Two cosmids, 2G12 and 2H1, were able to restore stalk elongation in low phosphate (Fig. 1A). These cosmids had an overlapping region of approximately 10 kb which contained 10 genes. Based on our sequencing data, of these 10 genes, only *ccna* 03732 had any SNPs (Fig. 1B) and this gene is annotated as being in a single gene operon (21). The two missense mutations in *ccna* 03732 resulted in amino acid substitutions A19T and G335N. To confirm that *ccna 03732* was necessary for the stalk elongation phenotype, we exogenously expressed wild-type ccna 03732 in the SDM1 strain and observed recovery of stalk synthesis (Fig. 1C). Introduction of the two missense mutations into the ccna 03732 chromosomal locus of wild-type C. crescentus phenocopied the SDM1 stalk deficiency, thereby demonstrating that these mutations were sufficient to inhibit stalk elongation (Fig. 1C). We often observed that the *ccna* 03732^{A19T/G335N} appeared phase-bright (see Figs. 2E and 3D), suggesting a change in intracellular organization; however, the nature of this alteration is unknown. To determine which SNP was responsible for the SDM1 phenotype, we introduced each SNP individually into the C. crescentus chromosome; the A19T mutation had no significant effect on stalk elongation whereas the G335N mutation only partially recapitulated the elongation defect seen in SDM1 (Fig. 1C-D). Therefore, we conclude that the SDM1 stalkelongation phenotype required both SNPs. The *ccna 03732* gene is predicted to be essential (22)

and we were unable to generate a deletion of this gene using standard allelic replacement methods, consistent with the gene's predicted essential functions. We tested whether the *ccna_03732* mutations affected the ability of *C. crescentus* to sense low-phosphate concentrations; phosphate starvation similarly induced the expression of PhoB-regulon genes *phoB* and *pstC* in wild-type and mutant cells (Fig. 1E). Thus, *ccna_03732* affects stalk synthesis independently of phosphate-mediated regulation. The defect in stalk elongation could also reflect a loss of cell polarity; however, the stalk-pole localization of DivJ-mCherry expressed from its native promoter was retained in the *ccna_03732*^{A19T/G335N} strain (Fig. 1F).

Determining the enzymatic function of CCNA 03732

CCNA_03732 is annotated as a YihS-domain containing epimerase (GenBank ACL97197.3) and a BLAST search identified YihS as the closest *Escherichia coli* homologue (23). Exogenous expression of *E. coli* YihS in the *ccna_03732*^{A19T/G335N} background did not complement the stalk defect (Fig. 2A) despite being expressed (Fig. 2B). YihS is part of a larger family of N-acyl-D-glucosamine 2-epimerases (AGEs) which isomerize a wide variety of carbohydrate substrates (24). *E. coli* encodes three additional AGE proteins (RffE, NanE, and ManA); therefore, we tested whether any of these genes could complement the CCNA_03732 mutation. Only expression of ManA was able to rescue stalk elongation (Fig. 2A); therefore, we will refer to CCNA_03732 as ManA. ManA is a phosphomannose isomerase (PMI) which catalyzes the interconversion of mannose 6-phosphate (M6P) and fructose 6-phosphate (F6P) (25). Although *E. coli* ManA expression does not fully recover stalk elongation when compared to wild-type (Fig. 2A), this may be because *E. coli* ManA is a type-I PMI (26) whereas *C. crescentus* ManA, based on its sequence homology to PMI from *Sinorhizobium meliloti*, appears

to be a type-III enzyme (27) (Fig. S1). Type I enzymes are zinc-dependent and specifically catalyze M6P isomerization, whereas Type II PMIs are bifunctional and have guanosine diphospho-D-mannose pyrophosphorylase activity (28). To date, the PMI from *S. meliloti* is the only Type III enzyme and this protein has not been biochemically characterized. The three subfamilies of PMIs have similar enzymatic functions but little sequence homology (26). Alternatively, *E. coli* ManA may not fully complement in these experiments due to partial inhibition of its activity by the C-terminal FLAG tag used to monitor protein expression.

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To investigate the mechanism of the *ccna* $03732^{A19T/G335N}$ (referred to as manA*) mutations, we performed a suppressor screen to isolate mutants which regained stalk elongation (see Materials and Methods). This screen yielded a suppressor with a one-base deletion at the -13-position relative to the transcription start site (Fig. 2C). We introduced a C-terminal mCherry fusion at the native locus of manA in the wild-type, manA*, and manA*-suppressor strains to assess protein expression and found that the suppressor mutation induced overexpression of ManA* (Fig. 2D). Replacing the deleted cytosine in the suppressor mutant caused a reversion to the short-stalk phenotype demonstrating the sufficiency of this SNP to rescue stalk elongation (Fig. 2E). Since overexpression of ManA restored stalk synthesis, we concluded that the ManA* mutant is a hypomorph with reduced enzymatic activity. Comparison of F6P/M6P ratios in wildtype and manA* strains demonstrated that wild-type cells maintained a 1:1 ratio in both high and low phosphate whereas the ratio rises to 2:1 for manA* cells in low phosphate (Fig. 2F). These data suggest that in low phosphate, ManA* either cannot efficiently convert F6P to M6P or that the mutation affects the preferred direction of isomerization. Mapping the A19T and G335N mutations onto a homology model of ManA (produced using Phyre 2.0 (29) based on PDB structure 1FP3 (30)) showed that the mutations are positioned near one another yet distant from

the predicted protein active site (Fig. 2G) (24) making it difficult to propose a mechanism for reduced ManA activity.

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Effects of ManA* on bacterial envelope synthesis

Metabolic network maps (KEGG: amino sugar and nucleotide sugar metabolism) place ManA in a central position for regulating bacterial envelope synthesis (Fig. 3A) (31). F6P is a precursor for N-acetylglucosamine and N-acetylmuramic acid which are important metabolites for PG and core lipopolysaccharide (LPS) synthesis. M6P, which is metabolized to GDPmannose, serves as a precursor for LPS O-antigen and exopolysaccharide (EPS) synthesis (32). Analysis of LPS demonstrated that the manA* cells have approximately 83% less O-antigencontaining smooth-LPS relative to wild-type cells, while rough LPS (lacking O-antigen) was largely unaffected (Fig. 3B). A transposon insertion in wbqP (ccna 01553) inhibits O-antigen synthesis, likely by preventing the attachment of the first sugar (perosamine) to the undecaprenol carrier lipid, and is included as a negative control (33, 34); complementation of the transposon mutant by xylose-inducible expression of WbqP restored wild-type levels of O-antigen production. Comparison of the muropeptide content of PG from wild-type and manA* cells did not reveal any gross changes in PG composition (Fig. 3C). Pulse-chase labeling of the PG with the fluorescent D-amino acid HADA (35) demonstrated the PG insertion was occurring at the base of the stalk in both wild-type and manA* cells (Fig. 3D). Lastly, production of EPS was assessed by the presence of a mucoid phenotype when grown on agar plates supplemented with 3% sucrose; wild-type cells producing EPS were mucoid while manA* cells were dull in appearance (Fig. 3E). Non-EPS producing strains (CB15 and NA1000 AMGE (mobile-genetic element)) were included as controls (32). Together, these findings showed that F6P-dependent

metabolism was unaffected in the *manA** strain, whereas M6P-dependent processes were inhibited. This is consistent with the ManA* mutant being an enzymatic hypomorph leading to an increased F6P:M6P ratio (Fig. 2D, F). To determine whether these changes in cellular envelope were the cause of the stalk elongation defect, stalk lengths were measured in NA1000 strains lacking either EPS (ΔMGE) or O-antigen (Tn5::*wbqP* (33, 34)) (Fig. 3F). Inhibition of EPS production had no significant effect on stalk length; however, O-antigen disruption reduced stalk length although not to the same degree as the *manA** strain (Fig. 3F). Inducible expression of WbqP was sufficient to complement the Tn5::*wbqP* phenotype (Fig. 3F). While the partial effect of Tn5::*wbqP* on stalk length suggests that O-antigen synthesis plays a role in stalk elongation, an alternative explanation is that the inhibition of this pathway alters the flux through connected metabolic pathways leading to stalk elongation defects.

ManA regulates entry into stationary phase

Since F6P and M6P feed into a variety of metabolic pathways, we performed metabolomic analyses of wild-type and $manA^*$ cells grown in low-phosphate to assess global changes in cellular metabolism. As expected, wild-type cells had higher levels of M6P as compared to $manA^*$ cells; additionally, we found higher levels of TCA cycle intermediates in wild-type cells (Fig. 4A). Accumulation of TCA cycle intermediates is consistent with bacteria entering stationary phase (36, 37), therefore, we performed long term growth curves to assess stationary phase entry. When cultured in HIGG- 30 μ M phosphate, wild-type growth plateaued at OD₆₆₀=1.8; by contrast, $manA^*$ cells continued to divide to OD₆₆₀=2.5, suggesting that they failed to enter stationary phase (Fig. 4B). Imaging of the cells at 72 h confirms that the increased OD is due to cell growth as opposed to filamentation or other changes in cell morphology (Fig.

4C). As observed with regards to stalk elongation, exogenous expression of ManA in the mutant background restored wild-type growth kinetics (Fig. 4B). Consistent with their increased proliferation, $manA^*$ cells had lower expression of known stationary-phase genes cspD, katG, and spdR (38) following 48 h of culture in low-phosphate media (Fig. 4D) and deletion of the stationary-phase response regulator spdR inhibited stalk elongation (Fig. 4E).

Stationary-phase entry and the stringent response are, in part, regulated by the production of the alarmone guanosine 3',5'-bispyrophosphate (ppGpp) (39, 40). Overexpression of the N-terminal domain of the ppGpp synthetase RelA results in the constitutive production of ppGpp and decreased growth rate in *E. coli* (41). To test whether stationary phase entry was necessary for stalk elongation in *C. crescentus*, we overexpressed truncated RelA in the *manA** cells; overproduction of ppGpp resulted in a significant increase in stalk length (Fig. 4F).

Discussion

C. crescentus stalks elongate under phosphate-limited conditions, however the mechanism is not well understood. Perturbation of genes associated with peptidoglycan synthesis results in shorter stalks (7, 8, 15); however, this system appears to be highly redundant as even the deletion of multiple PBPs does not abrogate stalk synthesis completely. Recently, a fluorescent fusion to the cytoskeletal protein MreB was shown to be functional with regards to cell growth, but this fusion did not localize at the poles nor support stalk formation (9), suggesting that the GFP-tag interferes with protein-protein interactions necessary for stalk synthesis.

To identify novel regulatory mechanisms of stalk elongation, we used chemical mutagenesis to introduce single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and isolated mutants with stalk elongation defects. One particular strain had two SNPs in *ccna_03732 (manA)*, a phosphomannose isomerase (Fig. 2A), both of which were required for a stalk-deficient phenotype (Fig. 1A-D). The SNPs were on the protein surface in close proximity to one another, yet quite distant from the enzyme active site (Fig 2G). This suggests that these residues may mediate a protein-protein interaction. Although we could not find any report of PMI enzymes oligomerizing, other AGE family members can form dimers (42, 43). These SNPs affected the relative levels of F6P and M6P (Fig. 2F) and cellular envelope biosynthesis (Fig. 3A-E), but not the transcriptional response to phosphate limitation (Fig. 1E). These findings demonstrate that cellular metabolism regulates stalk elongation independently of phosphate starvation.

Disruption of sugar-phosphate metabolism results in cell shape phenotypes in a wide range of organisms. In *Bacillus subtilis*, deletion of *manA* leads to cells with an elongated spheroid morphology (44). This morphology is due, in part, to a decrease in wall techoic acid

(WTA) production which affects cell wall architecture (44). PMI plays a role in eukaryotic cell shape as well. Deletion of PMI in the fungus *Aspergillus fumigatus* affects conidiation and produces a thickened chitin-rich cell wall (45), while in the protozoan *Leishmania mexicana*, Δ*pmi* promastigotes were shorter and rounder than wild-type (46).

While manA disruption affects cell shape in both C. crescentus and B. subtilis, it appears that the mechanisms may be quite different. In Gram-positive B. subtilis, ManA specifically reduces the levels of the cell wall carbohydrates glucose and N-acetylgalactosamine (GalNAc) without affecting N-acetylglucosamine (GlcNAc). Thus, $\Delta manA$ affects WTA but not PG synthesis. By contrast, Gram-negative C. crescentus does not produce WTA, and the composition of the PG was not affected in the $manA^*$ strain (Fig. 3C); thus, another mechanism is required to explain the stalk elongation phenotype. While the $manA^*$ mutations affected LPS O-antigen and EPS production, these envelope perturbations were not solely responsible for the mutant cell defect (Fig. 3F).

In addition to interfering with cellular envelope biosynthesis, the metabolic imbalance produced by the $manA^*$ mutations prevents stationary-phase entry of C. crescentus (Fig. 4A-D). The accumulation of sugar-phosphates triggers a variety of bacterial stress responses. In B. subtilis, a build-up of M6P leads to increased expression of the stress sigma factors σ^X and σ^W (47) as well as derepression of the glcR-phoC operon (48). In E. coli, elevated concentrations of sugar-phosphates leads to growth inhibition (49), induction of the stringent response (50), and expression of the stress-response gene uspA (51). This response is mediated, in part, by the small RNA sgrS which directs the degradation of mRNAs important for sugar-phosphate transport including ptsG and manXYZ as well as the stabilization of the phosphatase yigL (52-54). Interestingly, while alterations to sugar-phosphate homeostasis promote the stringent response

and growth arrest in *B. subtilis* and *E. coli*, F6P accumulation in *C. crescentus* due to the *manA** mutations prevents stationary-phase entry. *C. crescentus* does not encode homologues of SgrRS, UspA, or GlcR; therefore, further investigations will be required to identify the sensor and downstream targets of sugar-phosphate stress in *C. crescentus*.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial strains, plasmids, and growth conditions

The strains, plasmids, and primers used in this study are described in Supplemental Tables S1,

S2, and S3, respectively. Details regarding strain construction are available in the Supplementary

Methods.

C. crescentus wild-type strains NA1000, CB15, and their derivatives were grown at 30 °C in peptone-yeast-extract (PYE) medium (55) for routine culturing. To regulate phosphate levels, *C. crescentus* was grown in Hutner-Imidazole-Glucose-Glutamate (HIGG) media with varying concentrations of phosphate (1-1000 μM) (19). *E. coli* strains were grown at 37 °C in LB medium. When necessary, antibiotics were added at the following concentrations: kanamycin 30 μg ml⁻¹ in broth and 50 μg ml⁻¹ in agar (abbreviated 30:50) for *E. coli* and 5:25 for *C. crescentus*; tetracycline 12:12 *E. coli* and 1:2 *C. crescentus*. Gene expression was induced in *C. crescentus* with 0.003-0.3% (w/v) xylose. Growth curves were determined by measuring OD (660 nm) at the indicated time points.

Chemical mutagenesis and screening for stalk-elongation mutants

C. crescentus NA1000 cells (1 mL) were grown in HIGG-1 mM phosphate overnight and treated with 200 μg mL⁻¹ 1-methyl-3-nitro-1-nitrosoguanidine (NTG, TCI America) for 50 min at 30 °C to induce DNA mutations. The cells were washed once in HIGG without phosphate and resuspended in 100 mL HIGG- 1 μM phosphate to promote stalk elongation. After 72 h, cells were pelleted at 16,000 x g for 20 min, resuspended in 5.5 mL of HIGG- 1 μM phosphate, and

mixed 1:1 with Percoll (GE Healthcare) to establish a density gradient. This mixture was centrifuged for 1 h at 9,500 x g and cells from the bottom of the tube were recovered using a Pasteur pipette. After two additional Percoll gradients, the bottom cells were plated on PYE plates to isolate individual mutants. 384 individual colonies were grown in HIGG- 1 μ M phosphate and visually screened for stalk defects.

Whole-genome sequencing

Genomic DNA was isolated from NA1000 and SDM1, barcoded sequencing libraries were constructed using the NEBNext Fast DNA Fragmentation & Library Prep Set for Ion Torrent (New England Biolabs), and templated using the Ion PI Hi-Q Chef kit (Thermo Fisher). The libraries were sequenced on an Ion Proton system (Thermo Fisher) (NA1000: 2,148,749 reads, mean read length=132 bp, mean sequencing depth=70X; SDM1: 1,976,601 reads, mean read length=132 bp, mean sequencing depth=64X). Reads were mapped to the NA1000 genomic sequence (NCBI NC_011916.1) and variants were called using Ion Reporter software (Thermo Fisher). SNPs present in both SDM1 and our lab strain of NA1000 were eliminated from analysis.

Cosmid conjugation

E. coli cosmid-library strains (kindly provided by Lucy Shapiro, Stanford University) (20) and SDM1 *C. crescentus* cells were grown overnight in LB and PYE, respectively. 100 μL of each cosmid-strain was mixed with 900 μL SDM1, centrifuged at 8,000 x g for 2 min, washed once in PYE, and the final pellet was resuspended in 20 μL PYE. The mixed and concentrated samples were dropped onto PYE plates and incubated at 30 °C for 6 h. Samples of the bacterial

conjugants were streaked onto PYE plates containing 25 µg mL⁻¹ kanamycin and 30 µg mL⁻¹ nalidixic acid; C. crescentus cells are naturally resistant to nalidixic acid allowing for selection of *C. crescentus* cells that have received the cosmid. manA* suppressor screen A single colony of the manA* strain grown 2 mL of HIGG-1mM phosphate overnight at 30°C. 1 mL of the culture was washed twice in HIGG (without phosphate), resuspended in HIGG- 1μM phosphate, and grown for 2 days at 30°C. The culture was centrifuged at 10,000 x g for 10 min. The supernatant containing buoyant potential suppressor cells was collected and centrifuged at 28,000 x g for 30 min. The pelleted cells were then resuspended in 20mL of HIGG- 1µM phosphate. This purification process was repeated every 48 h; after two weeks the culture was streaked onto PYE plates to isolate individual colonies. Colonies were subsequently grown in HIGG- 1µM phosphate and screened by microscopy for stalk recovery. Microscopy and image analysis Cells were spotted onto 1% agarose pads made in the corresponding growth medium. Microscopy was performed on a Nikon TiE inverted microscope equipped with a Prior Lumen 220PRO illumination system, Zyla sCMOS 5.5-megapixel camera, CFI Plan Apochromat 100X oil immersion objective (NA 1.45, WD 0.13 mm), and NIS Elements software for image acquisition. Stalk lengths were measured using ImageJ v. 1.48q (NIH).

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Quantitative RT-PCR (qRT-PCR) 388 RNA was extracted from bacterial cultures using the Qiagen RNeasy kit. Following DNase 389 digestion, RNA (5 ng ul⁻¹) was reverse transcribed using the High Capacity cDNA Reverse 390 Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems). 1 µl of cDNA was used as a template in a 10 µl qRT-391 PCR reaction performed with Power SYBR reagent (Applied Biosystems). qRT-PCR was 392 performed on an ABI QuantStudio 6 using the $\Delta\Delta$ Ct method. rpoD or rpoH expression was used 393 as the loading control as indicated. 394 395 396 Western blot analysis C. crescentus cells were grown overnight in the indicated medium and cell concentration was 397 normalized by OD₆₆₀. 1 mL samples of OD₆₆₀=0.5 were collected by centrifugation (8,000 x g, 2 398 min), resuspended in 100 µL 1X Laemmli buffer, and boiled for 5 min to denature proteins. 399 Protein samples were separated on 10% SDS-PAGE gels, transferred to PVDF membrane, and 400 probed using the following antibodies: FLAG (1:500, sc-166355, Santa Cruz) and DivK (1:1000, 401 kind gift from Lucy Shapiro, Stanford University (56)). 402 403 404 <u>Metabolomics</u> C. crescentus cells were grown overnight in HIGG- 1 mM phosphate, back diluted, and grown to 405 $OD_{660}=0.3$. For high-phosphate samples, 5 mL of $OD_{660}=0.3$ was filtered onto a 0.2 µm pore-size 406 407 nylon membrane (Millipore GNWP04700). For low-phosphate samples, 5 mL of OD₆₆₀=0.3 was washed twice in HIGG lacking phosphate, resuspended in 5 mL HIGG- 1 µM phosphate, grown 408

for 6 h, and then filtered onto nylon membranes. The filters were immediately quenched in 1.2

mL ice-cold 40:40:20 acetonitrile:methanol:water containing 0.5% (v/v) formic acid. The

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samples were incubated at -20 °C for 15 min and the solutions were transferred to pre-chilled 2 mL microcentrifuge tubes containing 50 mg 0.1 mm glass beads (Med Supply Partners, NA-GB01-RNA). The solvent was neutralized by adding 100 µL 1.9M ammonium carbonate and cells were lysed on a Qiagen TissueLyser for 5 min at 30 Hz. Samples were centrifuged at 16,000 x g for 10 min at 4 °C to pellet unbroken cells and the supernatant was transferred to a pre-chilled microcentrifuge tube and frozen on dry ice. Samples were sent to the Metabolomics Core Facility of the Cancer Institute of New Jersey (New Brunswick, NJ) for analysis by liquid chromatography/mass-spectrometry (LC/MS) as previously described (57). Briefly, metabolites were analyzed on a Q Exactive PLUS hybrid quadrupole-orbitrap mass spectrometer (ThermoFisher Scientific) coupled to hydrophilic interaction chromatography (HILIC). Chromatography was performed on an UltiMate 3000 UHPLC system with an XBridge BEH Amide column (150 mm × 2.1 mm, 2.5 μM particle size, Waters). The LC solvents were: A (95%:5% H2O:acetonitrile with 20mM ammonium acetate, 20mM ammonium hydroxide, pH 9.4) and B (20%:80% H2O:acetonitrile with 20 mM ammonium acetate, 20 mM ammonium hydroxide, pH 9.4). The gradient was 0 min, 100% B; 3 min, 100% B; 3.2 min, 90% B; 6.2 min, 90% B; 6.5 min, 80% B; 10.5 min, 80% B; 10.7 min, 70% B; 13.5 min, 70% B; 13.7 min, 45% B; 16 min, 45% B; 16.5 min, 100% B. The flow rate was 300 μl min⁻¹. Injection volume was 5 μl and column temperature 25°C. The MS scans were in negative ion mode with a resolution of 70,000 at m/z 200 and the scan range was 75–1000. Since F6P and glucose 1-phosphate have the same molecular weight and co-elute by LC, it is impossible to distinguish between these two sugar-phosphates. To enable quantification of F6P, we replaced the glucose in our standard HIGG media with deuterated 2-D glucose (Cambridge Isotope Laboratories, DLM-1271). During

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the isomerization of glucose to fructose, the deuterium at C-2 is replaced with hydrogen, leading to a 1 mass-unit shift between these sugars and enabling their distinction by MS.

Lipopolysaccharide (LPS) purification and analysis

LPS was purified essentially as previously described (34, 58). Briefly, 5 ml of *C. crescentus* cells grown in HIGG- 1 μM phosphate (OD₆₆₀ = 0.5) were collected and washed once in 10 mM HEPES, pH 7.2. Cells were resuspended in 250 μl TE buffer (10 mM Tris, 1 mM EDTA, pH 7.2) and frozen overnight at -20 °C. Cells were thawed, treated with 1 μl DNase (0.5 mg ml⁻¹), 20 μl lysozyme (10 mg ml⁻¹), and 3 μl MgCl₂ (1 M), and incubated at room temperature for 15 min. For each sample, 36.25 μl was mixed with 12.5 μl 4X SDS-sample buffer and boiled at 100 °C for 10 min. After cooling to room temperature, 1.25 μl proteinase K (20 mg ml⁻¹) was added and samples were incubated at 60 °C for 1 h. LPS samples were resolved by Tris-Tricine SDS-PAGE on a 16% acrylamide gel containing 3% crosslinker followed by staining with the Pro-Q Emerald 300 LPS stain kit according to the manufacturer's protocol (Thermo Scientific). Images were acquired on a Bio-Rad ChemiDoc MP using UV excitation and a 530 nm emission filter and band intensities were quantified using Image Lab (Bio-Rad).

Peptidoglycan (PG) purification and analysis

C. crescentus cells (500 mL) were grown in HIGG- 1 μM phosphate. Peptidoglycan muropeptides were purified from *C. crescentus* as previously described (59) and separated on a reversed-phase C18 column (Thermo Scientific; 250 x 4.6-mm column, 3-μm particle size) held at 55 °C. The LC solvent system consisted of 50 mM sodium phosphate [pH 4.35] with 0.4% sodium azide (solvent A) and 75 mM sodium phosphate, pH 4.95 + 15% (v/v) methanol (solvent

456	B). The solvent flow rate was 0.5 mL min ⁻¹ and a linear gradient to 100% solvent B was
457	performed over 135 min. Muropeptide elution was monitored at 205 nm.
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459	Pulse-chase fluorescent labeling of PG
460	Cells were grown in HIGG- 1 μM phosphate for 48 h prior to labeling. Aliquots of each culture
461	(250 μ L) were labeled with 0.25 mM HADA (35), a fluorescent D-amino acid analog, for 30 min
462	at 30 °C. The cells were washed 3 times in PBS and imaged using DAPI excitation/emission
463	filters.
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465	Exopolysaccharide (EPS) production assay
466	Strains were streaked onto HIGG- 1 μM phosphate agar plates supplemented with 3% (w/v)
467	sucrose. EPS production was determined by assessing mucoidy. CB15 and NA1000 ΔMGE were
468	used as non-EPS producing controls (32).
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475	
476	Author contributions
477	K.dY., G.S., and E.A.K. designed, performed, and analyzed experiments. E.A.K. wrote the
478	manuscript. K.dY. and G.S. edited the manuscript.

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Figure 1. Isolation and mapping of a stalk-deficient mutant. (A) Screening a library of chemically-mutagenized C. crescentus strains identified Stalk Deficient Mutant 1 (SDM1; KD80). This mutant phenotype was rescued by complementation with two individual cosmids containing 20-30 kb genomic fragments (KD9, KD10). Scale bar: 5 µm. (B) A diagram of the two complementing cosmids shows their region of overlap. Within the overlapping genes, only ccna 03732 has SNPs (denoted by *) as determined by whole-genome sequencing. (C-D) The SDM1 stalk phenotype was complemented by xylose-inducible expression of wild-type ccna 03732 (KD64). Introduction of both ccna 03732 SNPs into NA1000 was sufficient to produce the stalk-elongation defect (KD145), whereas each individual SNP had either no effect (A19T; KD174) or a partial effect (G335N; KD175). Scale bar: 5 µm. Stalk lengths were measured using ImageJ (error bars are SEM, ANOVA F(3,196)=76.8, P<0.0001; * post-hoc comparisons using Bonferroni test, P<0.05). (E) Wild-type and ccna 03732^{A19T/G335N} cells were grown for 24 h in HIGG-1 mM phosphate. For low phosphate samples, cells were washed twice in HIGG without phosphate, resuspended in HIGG without phosphate and grown for an additional 6 h. Total RNA was collected from each sample for qRT-PCR analysis of the PhoBregulated genes phoB and pstC. Gene expression was normalized to rpoD and sample expressions were normalized to wild-type 1 mM phosphate (error bars are SEM, n=3). Strong induction of both genes confirmed that the *ccna 03732* SNPs do not affect the sensing of phosphate starvation. (F) Wild-type and ccna 03732A19T/G335N cells expressing DivJ-mCherry from its native locus (KD GB212, EK394) were grown for 48 h in HIGG- 1 µM phosphate prior to imaging. Scale bar: 5 μm.

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Figure 2. CCNA 03732 is a phosphomannose isomerase. (A) Exogenous expression of the closest E. coli homologue to CCNA 03732, YihS, did not complement the stalk elongation defect (KD153). Screening the other AGE-family isomerases (EK266, EK268, EK270) demonstrated that only ManA can rescue stalk synthesis in the ccna 03732^{A19T/G335N} strain. (B) Western blot analysis of FLAG-tagged CCNA 03732 and YihS (both wild-type and codonoptimized) showed that they are expressed at comparable levels. Therefore, the inability of YihS to rescue stalk-elongation is a reflection of differing enzymatic activities rather than expression level. (C) Sequencing of the manA locus in the suppressor strain identified a single base deletion upstream of the manA transcription start site. (D) Native-locus mCherry fusions to ManA showed that the stalk elongation phenotype can be suppressed by dramatic overexpression of ManA* (KD160, KD161, KD162). Images were acquired with the same exposure time and the lookup tables (LUTs) were adjusted identically for each sample. Scale bar: 5 µm. (E) Reinsertion of the deleted base into the suppressor strain reverted the stalk deficiency phenotype (KD170, KD186). Scale bar: 5 µm. (F) Metabolomic analysis of F6P and M6P levels showed that wildtype cells maintain a 1:1 ratio in both low and high phosphate, whereas manA* (KD145) cells increase their relative levels of F6P as phosphate decreases (error bars are SEM, n=3; * p=0.04, one-tailed t-test). (G) A cartoon of the ManA protein identifies the locations of the ManA* SNPs (red triangles) as well as the predicted active site residues (yellow triangles). The active site residues are based on an alignment to the AGE protein YihS (Fig. S1) (24). A homology model of ManA (based on PDB 1FP3) shows that the ManA mutations (red) are near one another but not near the enzyme active site (yellow).

Figure 3. ManA* results in alterations to specific cellular envelope components. (A) ManA regulates the interconversion of F6P and M6P. These metabolites are important precursors for the synthesis of cellular envelope components including LPS, PG, and EPS. (B) LPS was extracted from wild-type, manA* (KD145), Tn5::wbqP (CJW1249), and Tn5::wbqP/Pxvl-wbqP (EK393) cells grown for 48 h in HIGG- 1 µM phosphate with 0.03% xylose and separated by Tris-Tricine SDS-PAGE. (C) Comparisons of muropeptides from wild-type and manA* cells grown in HIGG- 1 µM phosphate did not yield any gross changes in PG composition. (D) Wildtype and manA* cells were grown in HIGG-1 µM phosphate for 48 h prior to pulse-chase labeling with HADA for 30 min to label regions of active PG synthesis. Both strains showed labeling at the base of the stalk. Scale bars: 5 µm. (E) The indicated strains were streaked onto HIGG plates supplemented with 3% sucrose to induce EPS production and mucoidy. Wild-type cells had a distinct mucoid appearance whereas manA* was matte in appearance signifying a decrease in EPS production. CB15 and NA1000 AMGE (EK717) were non-EPS-producing control strains. (F) The indicated strains were grown in HIGG-1 µM phosphate for 48 h and stalk lengths were measured using ImageJ (error bars are SEM, ANOVA F(4,377)=115.5, P<0.0001; * post-hoc comparisons using Bonferroni test, P<0.05). The Tn5::wbqP strain, which does not make O-antigen, had a partial effect on stalk elongation compared to the $manA^*$ strain. The effect of the wbqP transposon insertion was fully complemented by inducible expression of wbqP.

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Figure 4. *manA** cells have a defect in stationary-phase entry which contributes to the stalkelongation phenotype. (A) Metabolomic analyses of wild-type and *manA** (KD145) cells grown in HIGG- 1 μM phosphate demonstrated that wild-type cells have higher levels of M6P as well as TCA cycle metabolites. The horizontal lines indicate a 1.5-fold difference between wild-type

and manA*. Bars are the means of 3 independent experiments. (B) Growth curves of wild-type, manA*, and complemented manA* cells in HIGG- 30 μM phosphate showed that manA* grows to a higher OD than wild-type (error bars are SEM, n=3). (C) WT and manA* cells were grown in HIGG- 1 µM phosphate for 72 h prior to imaging. Scale bar: 5 µm. (D) Wild-type and manA* cells were grown in HIGG-30 µM phosphate for 48 h. Wild-type and manA* cultures were back diluted into HIGG-30 μ M phosphate to an OD₆₆₀ = 0.03 and allowed to grow for 48 h. Expression of the indicated stationary-phase genes was measured by qRT-PCR and relative mRNA levels between wild-type and manA* were quantified. Gene expression was normalized to rpoH mRNA (error bars are SEM, n=3). (E) Wild-type and ΔspdR (KD181) cells were grown for 48 h in HIGG- 1 μM phosphate and stalk lengths were measured. spdR deletion inhibits stalk elongation (error bars are SEM, * Mann-Whitney U=2778, $n_1=58$, $n_2=61$, P < 0.05 two-tailed). (F) manA* cells with or without exogenous expression of constitutively-active RelA (KD178) were grown in HIGG-1 µM phosphate with 0.003% xylose and stalk length was measured by microscopy (error bars are SEM, * Mann-Whitney U=1313, $n_1=70$, $n_2=87$, P < 0.05 two-tailed).

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