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Regulation of the Rcs Phosphorelay by the Redox Responsive Transcription Factor, OxyR and the Role of a RTX-Like Toxin in Biofilm Formation for the Bacterial Plant Pathogen, *Pantoea stewartii*

A Dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

Microbiology

by

Polrit Viravathana

September 2022

Dissertation Committee:

Dr. M. Caroline Roper, Chairperson Dr. Hailing Jin Dr. Sharon Walker

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Committee Chairperson

University of California, Riverside

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Abstract of the Dissertation

Regulation of the Rcs Phosphorelay by the Redox Responsive Transcription Factor, OxyR and the Role of a RTX-Like Toxin in Biofilm Formation for the Bacterial Plant Pathogen, *Pantoea stewartii*

By

Polrit Viravathana

Doctor of Philosophy, Graduate Program in Microbiology, University of California, Riverside, September 2022 Dr. M. Caroline Roper, Chairperson

Pantoea stewartii subspecies *stewartii* (*Pnss*) causes Stewart's Wilt in sweet corn and maize, which is characterized by wilting, caused by the formation of exopolysaccharide (EPS)-based biofilms that block the xylem, and the formation of water-soaked lesions. These lesions can form via *Pnss*-induced expression of a repeat-in-toxin (RTX)-like protein called RTX2. Deleting *rtx2* prevents water-soaked lesion formation and effective plant colonization. The *rtx2* gene is in an operon with a second gene that encodes another putative rtx-like toxin (*rtx1*), and two genes that encode the phosphotransferase and the response regulator of the <u>Regulator of Capsular Synthesis</u> (Rcs) phosphorelay, which regulates gene expression via external stimuli. This operon also has a predicted upstream OxyR transcription factor binding site. Water-soaked lesions contain lethal Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS), and previous work by the Roper lab demonstrated that OxyR protects *Pnss* against ROS while deletion of *oxyR* caused increased H₂O₂ sensitivity and negated EPS production. As the operon contains genes for the Rcs phosphorelay, it is hypothesized that ROS promotes activity of OxyR, thereby inducing gene expression of this operon. Indeed, results of this study show OxyR does bind to the predicted binding site of the *rtx1/rtx2/rcsD/rcsB* operon, and induces its activity. Furthermore, sublethal concentrations of ROS induce gene expression of certain components of the operon in wild type *Pnss*, but not in an *oxyR* deletion mutant. Therefore, ROS appears to be a signal that induces expression of key components of the Rcs phosphorelay via OxyR. The Rcs phosphorelay also plays a key role in cell shape and membrane integrity, and results of this study show that RTX2 affects these cellular characteristics as well, wherein the deletion of rtx2 causes decreased cell length, increased sensitivity to Polymyxin B, and increased overall cellular hydrophobicity when compared to wild type. RTX2-dependent alteration of the cell envelope also causes increased biofilm formation activity as Pnss transitions between the apoplastic and xylem phases of Stewart's Wilt. Furthermore, RTX2 is required for both adhesion and biofilm formation *in-planta*, and impacts biofilm height in a non-EPS producing background (mimicking the initial stages of biofilm formation) in-vitro.

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Chapter I

Introduction

General Introduction

Background

Stewart's wilt of sweet corn is a disease distinguished by water-soaked lesion formation and wilting of corn plants. The causal agent is the bacterium *Pantoea stewartii* subspecies *stewartii*. Stewart's Wilt is endemic to the Ohio River Valley, the Mid-Atlantic regions of the United States, and the southern portion of the Corn Belt (Pataky, 2004). The primary insect vector of *P. stewartii* is the corn flea beetle (*Chaetocnema pulicaria*), found in Canada, and the United States. The bacterium is introduced into the plant via damage caused by insect feeding. Water-soaked lesions will form on the leaves and linear streaks with irregular margins develop parallel to leaf veins. These lesions may extend the entire length of the leaf and become necrotic. *Pantoea stewartii* can also spread to the vascular tissue and form a biofilm in the xylem, that presumably prevents the flow of water and causes wilting of seedlings (Pataky, 2004).

Stewart's wilt is one of the first plant diseases with a developed disease forecast system: winter temperatures influence Stewart's wilt impact during the following spring (Stevens, 1934; Boewe, 1949). Increased winter temperatures increase the severity of Stewart's wilt as more corn flea beetles survive the winter (Pataky, 2004). The development of resistant sweet corn hybrids, has reduced the impact of Stewart's wilt for US domestic corn production, but *Pantoea stewartii* is still a quarantine organism for seed exportation in many other countries (Gehring et al., 2014). Detection of this phytopathogen is performed by ELISA (enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay) or PCR analysis (Wensing et al., 2010). Over 60 countries have import regulations for maize seeds, while surveillance of traded plant material is required to prevent accidental distribution of *P. stewartii* (Pataky and Ikin 2003). Nonetheless, in 2012 *P. stewartii* causing Stewart's Wilt was reported in Argentina (Orio et al. 2012), and more recently was diagnosed as the causal agent of Jackfruit Bronzing in Malaysia, Indonesia and Mexico (Zulperi et al., 2017, Ibrahim et al. 2020; Rahma et al., 2014; Hernández Morales et al., 2017).

Agent of Stewart's Wilt

Formerly known as *Erwinia stewartii*, *Pantoea stewartii* subsp. *stewartii* is a member of the family Enterobacteriacae within the Gammaproteobacteria. This bacterium is a Gram Negative, rod-shaped, non-spore-forming species. Yellow pigmentation of bacterial colonies can occur depending on which culture medium is used (Pataky, 2004; Mohammadi, et al., 2012).

Following introduction into the corn plant due to feeding by the corn flea beetle, the bacterium colonizes the leaf apoplasts, causing plant cell lysis which results in watersoaked lesions. *P. stewartii* can also directly colonize the xylem tissue. After the appropriate cell densities are achieved, the bacteria form a biofilm encased in a stewartan exopolysaccharide (EPS) matrix, clogging the xylem vessels. Xylem vessel blockage presumably prevents water transport, leading to wilting of the plant (Carlier and Von Bodman, 2006; Von Bodman et al., 1998).

Exopolysaccharide Production and Biofilm Formation

Stewartn EPS is a viscous, high molecular weight polymer (estimated 45 megadaltons) of heptameric oligosaccharide repeat units of glucose, galactose, and glucuronic acid in a 3:3:12 proportion (Huang, 1980; Minogue et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2012). Stewartan EPS production is dependent on a group of 14 genes (designated *cps*) and is regulated in a cell density-dependent manner via quorum sensing (Dolph et al., 1988; Carlier and Von Bodman, 2006; Von Bodman et al., 1998). The quorum sensing regulatory system that controls stewartan EPS production is composed of two genes, esal and esaR. EsaI is an acyl-homoserine-lactone (AHL) signal synthase, while EsaR is the cognate transcription factor (Von Bodman, et al. 1998; Carlier and Von Bodman, 2006). Unlike quorum sensing systems in many other bacterial species that act as inducers, P. stewartii EsaR represses EPS synthesis by binding to promoter regions as a dimer in the absence of AHL. This repressor activity prevents expression of the *cps* genes at low cell density (low AHL). De-repression of the cps genes and increased EPS production requires higher concentrations of AHL (indicative of high cell density) which lead to reduced binding of EsaR and de-repression of EPS synthesis (Von Bodman and Farrand, 1995; Von Bodman, et al. 1998). Quorum sensing also regulates proper biofilm development, adhesion and host colonization of *P. stewartii* in sweet corn seedlings (Koutsoudis et al., 2006; Rumbaugh and Armstrong, 2014). Specifically, mutants constitutively expressing EPS yield loose biofilms and are reduced in virulence, indicating that coordination of EPS production and biofilm formation in *P. stewartii* is necessary for plant infection (Koutsoudis et al., 2006).

The Regulator of Capsular Synthesis (Rcs) Phosphorelay

The regulator of capsular synthesis (Rcs) phosphorelay is a complex, bacterial signal transduction system that translates environmental stimuli to alter gene expression. Found only in the family Enterobacteriaceae, activation of the Rcs phosphorelay is caused by a variety of conditions including changes in environment (i.e., growth on solid surfaces or at low temperatures), and exposure to polymyxin B, a compound that disrupts cellular envelope components (Huang et al., 2006; Pescartetti et al., 2013). First described in *Escherichia coli*, the Rcs phosphorelay was primarily known for control of the *cps* operon (operon managing synthesis of capsular polysaccharide colonic acid; Majdalani and Gottesman, 2005) the Rcs system also regulates genes vital for protection against oxidative stress, as well as bacterial cell wall integrity (Andresen, et al., 2007; Latasa, et al., 2012; Farizano et al., 2014). Activation can also be induced by perturbations or modifications to the bacterial membrane, or overproduction of certain membrane bound proteins (DjlA, YpdI, LolA and OmpG; Hinchliffe, et al., 2008; Madec et al., 2014). Once activated, the Rcs system regulates many different cellular processes, including aspects of the cellular envelope, biofilm formation, cell division and control of flagellar genes and virulence factors (Hinchliffe et al., 2008). The Rcs phosphorelay also has a significant role in governing cell shape and regulating cell division (Ranjit and Young, 2013; Luo et al., 2015).

The phosphorylation of well conserved histidine (H) and aspartic acid (D) amino acid residues are key to activation of the Rcs regulatory system. The proteins involved in this network are the transmembrane sensor kinase (RcsC), transmembrane intermediary protein (RcsD, also known as YojN), and the cytoplasmic response regulator (RcsB). RcsF is an outer membrane lipoprotein that can increase autophosphorylation activity of RcsC by some unknown mechanism (Majadalani and Gottesman, 2005; Huang et al., 2006; Hinchliffe, et al. 2008).

Stimulus of the Rcs system leads to autophosphorylation of the histidine kinase domain (H1) of RcsC. The phosphate is then transferred to a conserved aspartic acid in the receiver domain (D1) of the same protein (Majdalani and Gottesman, 2005; Pescartetti, et al., 2013), then to H2 of the RcsD histidine phosphotransfer domain (HPt), and then to the D2 receiver domain of the cytoplasmic protein RcsB (Majadalani and Gottesman, 2005; Farizano et al., 2014). Active (phosphorylated) RcsB may form a homodimer or a heterodimer with the auxiliary response regulator RcsA, and these complexes bind to different promoter sequences. As a heterodimer with RcsA, the RcsBA protein complex regulates the *cps* operon and other capsule related genes by binding to a promoter sequence (known as the "RcsAB box") which has the consensus sequence: TaAGaatatCctA. This regulatory sequence has a tenfold higher binding affinity for the RcsA-RcsB heterodimer vs. RcsB alone (Pristovsek et al., 2003). In P. stewartii, RcsA is also regulated by the EsaI/EsaR quorum sensing system. Expression of *rcsA* is repressed by EsaR at low cell concentration, and as cell density increases, EsaR repression is released (Von Bodman et al. 1998; Minogue et al., 2005).

Genome organization of major components of the Rcs phosphorelay is conserved among members of the family Enterobacteriaceae. In order, genes *rcsD* and *rcsB* are adjacent, with *rcsC* downstream in the opposite orientation (Dehal, et al. 2009). In

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Salmonella species, rcsD and rcsB are in their own operon, and expression of rcsB is controlled by two different promoters. Higher expression of rcsB negatively impacts expression of rcsD (Pescaretti et al., 2010). However, in the genome of *P. stewartii*, two genes encoding separate RTX toxins are located upstream of rcsD and rcsB. Designated rtx1 and rtx2, all 4 genes (rtx1-rtx2-rcsD-rcsB) may be transcribed as a single operon (Burbank 2014; Roper, unpublished data).

Repeat-in-Toxins

A major contributing factor to formation of water-soaked lesions during *P*. stewartii plant infection is the unique, repeat-in-toxin (RTX) like protein designated RTX2 (Roper et al., 2015). Repeat in toxin (RTX) proteins are a group of large proteins (40 to 600+ kDa) characterized by glycine-aspartate (GD)-rich peptide repeats (G-G-X-G-(N/D)-D-X-(L/I/V/W/Y/F)-X where X can be any amino acid near the C-terminus (Ostolaza et al., 2019; Satchell 2011). Each repeat forms half of a portion of a ß-roll structure with a GGxG consensus forming the tight turn followed by a β -strand. A hydrophobic interior is formed by hydrophobic residues in the B-roll structure. A calcium ion is located in each turn, which is bound to a conserved aspartate in the sixth position of the repeat (Satchell, 2011). These Ca²⁺ binding domains are vital for proper folding and activity of RTX toxins once these proteins are exported to the cell surface (Fiser and Konopasek, 2009; Chenal et al., 2010; Satchell, 2011). Most, but not all, RTX toxins are secreted via a Type I secretion system. Requirements for RTX toxin Type 1-secreted export are an inner membrane ATPase, transmembrane periplasmic linker protein, and a TolC, or TolC-like outer membrane porin (Chenal et al., 2010; Satchell, 2011).

Repeat-in-toxins include the 117 kDa, alpha (α) hemolysin from *Escherichia coli* (HlyA) and the adenylate cyclase toxin from *Bordetella pertussis*. The *E. coli* originating toxin lyses erythrocytes by colloid osmotic shock by forming hydrophilic pores in the cell wall, the latter toxin can damage bacterial membranes without using specific cellular receptors and forms small-cation selective membrane channels, flooding the interior of the host cell with monovalent cations, leading to osmotic lysis (Menestrina, et al., 1994; Fiser and Konopasek, 2009). One of the most diverse and largest groups of RTX proteins are the large repetitive RTX adhesins.

Collectively categorized into a broader group called <u>B</u>iofilm <u>a</u>ssociated <u>p</u>roteins (BAP), these proteins often function as adhesins, proteins which are often loosely attached to the cell envelope and play a role in biofilm development (Satchell, 2011; Lasa and Penades, 2006). Known for their large size, and the classical nonapeptide repeats at their C-terminus, these proteins are also distinguished for having 80 – 300 amino acid long extensive tandem repeats that vary in number and length between species (Girard and Mourez, 2006; Satchel 2011). Some of the most well characterized BAP proteins are the LapA and LapF proteins of *Pseudomonas putida*. Both of these proteins are large (8682 and 6310 amino acids in length), and are vital to the three-dimensional architecture of the biofilm: LapA is required for irreversible attachment to surfaces while LapF is needed for cell to cell interaction (Satchel, 2011). The SiiE protein from *Salmonella enterica* is a repetitive RTX protein needed for the colonization of cattle intestine. While its gene is found on *Salmonella* pathogenicity island 4 (SPI-4), SiiE is loosely localized to the surface and is an adhesin which attaches to epithelial cells (Satchell, 2011).

Other Virulence Factors

Plant Cell Wall Degrading Enzymes

Plant Cell Wall Degrading Enzymes are key components of a plant pathogen's arsenal: use of these proteins promotes pathogen movement through the plant xylem, as these enzymes break down components of the plant cell wall (Roper et al., 2007; Ingel et al., 2019) An endogluconase, EngY, from *P. stewartii* is a O-glycosyl hydrolase that cleaves the glycosydic bond between a carbohydrate and a noncarbohydrate component or between two or more carbohydrates (Mohammadi et al., 2011). This enzyme degrades carboxymethyl cellulose, β -D-glucan, and xylan, and its deletion ($\Delta engY$) results in *P. stewartii* losing all endoglucanase and xylanase activity *in vitro*. *In planta*, *P. stewartii* $\Delta engY$ is compromised in movement within the xylem vessels and as a result, this mutant causes less wilting in corn seedlings (Mohammadi et al., 2011).

Type III Secretion Systems

Pantoea stewartii has two Type III Secretion Systems (T3SS) (Correa et al., 2012;
Walterson, and Stavrinides, 2015). One of the T3SS in *P. stewartii* is involved in
colonizing its insect host (Correa et al., 2012). The bacterium can be found in the foregut,
midgut, and hindgut of *C. pulicaria* up to 12-days post-acquisition (Ammar *et al.*, 2014).
For infection of plants, *P. stewartii* relies on a Hrp T3SS encoded by the 29-kb, *hrp* gene
cluster with 8 complementation groups (Ahmad *et al.*, 2001; Roper, 2011). The
bacterium's effector locus contains two genes, *wtsE* and *wtsF* (Roper, 2011). WtsE is a
201 kDa protein belonging to the AvrE family of effector proteins (Ham et al., 2006;
Roper, 2011) and WtsF is a molecular chaperone of WtsE (Ham et al., 2006). AvrE-

family effector proteins are widely conserved in plant-pathogenic bacteria and are characterized by one, to two WxxxE motifs and a putative C-terminal endoplasmic reticulum membrane retention/retrieval signal (ERMRS). Similar to the effector DspE (aka DspA) of *Erwinia amylovora*, the WtsE protein is an essential pathogenicity factor for *P. stewartii* (Ham et al., 2009). Eliciting a hypersensitive response (HR; where cells immediately surrounding the site of infection rapidly die) in susceptible hosts, this cytotoxin causes water-soaked lesions and suppresses host defense systems, but in nonsusceptible hosts, this effect can still illicit an efficient hypersensitive response (HR) response (Tampakaki and Panopoulos, 2000; Ham et al., 2008; 2009).

Pantoea stewartii also produces harpins. Harpins are glycine-rich proteins that are also secreted through the Type III secretion system. These proteins also have few aromatic amino acid and cysteine residues. Harpins are protease sensitive but heat stable, despite having little or no cysteine residues (two cysteine residues are required for disulfide bond formation; Ahmad et al., 2001; Choi et al., 2013). Unlike effectors, harpins appear to be targeted to the plant tissue extracellular space by plant-pathogenic bacteria (Choi et al., 2013). Similar to harpins of other *Erwinia* species the *hrpN* gene from *P. stewartii* encodes a protein 382 amino acids in length (Ahmad et al., 2001). The harpin from *P. stewartii* can elicit a HR in tobacco, but a mutation in *hrpN* does not change the virulence of this bacterium in sweet corn. This suggests that the harpin of *Pantoea stewartii* subspecies stewartii may have an insignificant role in its virulence (Ahmad et al., 2001).

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Motility

Surface motility is vital for *P. stewartii* colonization of the plant host. This motility is flagella-dependent on semisolid media and requires production of exopolysaccharide. Surface-based motility is also influenced by active sideophore-dependent iron acquisition. Deletion of either the *iucA* (aerobactin siderophore biosynthesis) or *iutA* (siderophore transport) genes disrupts surface motility and limits movement in planta (Burbank et al. 2015). *P. stewartii* has not been observed to engage in, but cannot swim with motility in aqueous environments (Herrera et al. 2008).

Regulating Oxidative Stress

During its infection cycle, *Pantoea stewartii* encounters significant amounts of reactive oxygen species (ROS). Chemicals, such as H_2O_2 and superoxides, are part of the plant's innate immune system, serving as signaling molecules and components of the plant defense response (Choi et al., 2007; Yadeata and Tomma, 2013; Hilaire et al., 2001). Water-soaked lesions which develop during infection also contain significant amounts of ROS (Burbank and Roper, 2014). Therefore *P. stewartii* must have a strategy to combat this environment.

Transciption factor OxyR

The transcription factor OxyR is a thiol-based redox sensor that aids in maintaining the proper redox state inside the bacterial cell by transcriptionally activating genes that yield enzymes for protection against oxygen radicals (Tao et al., 1991; Green and Paget, 2004). A member of the LysR family of transcriptional regulators, this enzyme has a helix-turn-helix DNA-binding motif (HTH) at its N-Terminal domain and contains 6 cysteine thiols that directly monitor the oxidative environment in the cell (Zheng and Storz, 2000; Green and Paget, 2004).

Forming a tetramer in solution, this 34 kDa protein is inactive in its reduced form. When the cell is under oxidative stress, OxyR is oxidized; the conserved cysteine residues form disulfide bonds, activating this transcription factor (Seo et al., 2015; Zhang and Storz, 2000). The *oxyR* gene is negatively regulated by its protein product (Tao et al., 1991). The primary purpose of the OxyR system is to combat negative effects of hydrogen peroxide (Tao et al., 1991; Seo et al., 2015; Burbank and Roper, 2014; Yu et al. 2016). Mutations in *oxyR* result in increased sensitivity to hydrogen peroxide in many bacterial species (Tao et al., 1991; Burbank and Roper; 2014; Yu et al., 2016). Deletion of *oxyR* in *P. stewartii* also leads to the inability of the bacterium to produce EPS, although the mechanism is unknown (Burbank and Roper et al., 2014).

Carotenoid Pigment Production

*Pantoea stewart*ii subspecies *stewartii* produces a yellow carotenoid pigment. This naturally occurring chemical absorbs light in the 400 - 550 nm wavelength, resulting in *P. stewartii*'s distinct yellow to orange color. Deletion of *crtB* (encode for Phytoene synthase, enzyme in the first step of carotenoid synthesis) results in loss of pigment production in *P. stewartii*. In addition to loss of tolerance to UV radiation, the *crtB* mutant is also impaired in virulence, and is more sensitive to H₂O₂ when compared to wild type *P. stewartii*. (Mohammadi et al., 2012). Carotenoids provide protection against ROS by quelling singlet molecular oxygen and peroxyl radicals (Stahl and Sies, 2003).

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Dissertation Purpose and Justification

Biofilm formation allows the bacterium to survive against the host plant environment. This adaptation allows bacterial communities to withstand environmental challenges, but requires the tightly regulated synthesis of exopolysaccharide (EPS; Burbank and Roper, 2014). Identification of what triggers this defensive mechanism may give insight to how to combat biofilms during infection processes. The Rcs phosphorelay is required for EPS production in *P. stewartii*, but it is not known what exogenous environmental factor(s) induces expression or activity of this important and complex signal transduction system. The primary purpose of this research is to determine if ROS may act as an external environmental signal that induces the process of biofilm formation in *P. stewartii* via the Rcs phosphorelay by use of the transcription factor OxyR.

A conserved DNA binding site for OxyR is predicted upstream of the operon containing *rcsD* and *rcsB* along with two RTX-like proteins (Burbank, 2014; Roper, unpublished data). Deletion of the smaller RTX gene (designated *rtx1*) yields no change in phenotype, but deletion of the larger toxin gene (*rtx2*) decreases virulence, reduces exopolysaccharide (EPS) production, and significantly reduces formation of watersoaked lesions in corn seedlings (Roper et al., 2015; Roper, unpublished data). These water-soaked lesions contain ROS (i.e. H₂O₂ and superoxides; Burbank and Roper, 2014). In addition to its role in forming water-soaked lesions, RTX2 may serve an additional function in *Pantoea stewartii*: to alter membrane dynamics and initiate biofilm formation to protect the bacterium from ROS in the surrounding environment (Figure 1.1). The

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unique RTX2 protein shares similarities with other RTX proteins, yet it cannot be categorized into a specific subfamily of RTX proteins (Roper *et al.*, 2015).

Therefore, I hypothesize that presence of ROS acts as an environmental signal that induces expression of key components of the Rcs signal transduction system via the transcription factor OxyR, and uses RTX2-dependent alteration of the bacterial membrane properties to stimulate phosphotransfer through the Rcs system. This coordinated response would allow for increased EPS production and biofilm formation, as *P. stewartii* transitions between the apoplastic and xylem phases of Stewart's Wilt (Figure 1.1).



Figure 1.1. Proposed Model for relationship between OxyR, RTX2 and the Rcs phosphorelay. ROS species induces gene expression of an operon containing two genes encoding for RTX-like toxins (designated rtx1 and rtx2) and two genes for certain components of the Rcs phosphorelay (the phosphotransfer receptor RcsD and the terminal response regulator RcsB). Integration and perturbation of the RTX2 protein in the cell envelope yield increased activity in the Rcs phosphorelay. Phosphorylation of the sensor kinase RscC activates this protein. RcsC phosphorylates RcsD, the phosphotransfer protein, which then phosphorylates the cytoplasmic response regulator RcsB. Now active phosphorylated RcsB forms a heterodimer with the auxiliary response regulator RcsA to induce expression of the *cps* operon, yielding EPS for biofilm formation (Minogue *et al.*, 2005; Function of genes in operon are in parentheses; Abbreviations: OM = Outer Membrane, IM = Inner membrane, small yellow circle with a P indicates a phosphate group, black arrows denote transfer of phosphate group).

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Chapter II

A Membrane Localized RTX-Like Toxin Impacts Adhesion Properties and Hydrophobicity of the *Pantoea stewartii* Cell Envelope

Abstract

Characterized by the formation of water-soaked lesions and wilting of the plant, the causative agent of Stewart's Wilt, a severe disease of corn and maize is the phytopathogenic, gram negative bacterium Pantoea stewartii subspecies stewartii. Previously it has been shown that a large Repetitive Repeat-in-toxin or RTX-Like Protein, is the primary mediator of the formation of the water-soaked lesion symptom of this plant disease. Designated RTX2, this unique protein contains five putative Ca^{2+} binding domains, characteristic of RTX toxins. Despite its capability to facilitate the formation of water-soaked lesions, phylogenetic analysis indicates that this unique protein is more related to Biofilm Associated Proteins (BAP), a subfamily of RTX proteins, indicating the potential for additional functions. Through the use of molecular, microscopic and classical microbiology techniques and processes, our research group demonstrates that in addition to producing water-soaked lesions, RTX2 localizes to the bacterial cell envelope and influences the physiochemical properties of the bacterial cell envelope. This protein also impacts bacterial cell length, cell envelope integrity and overall cellular hydrophobicity. RTX2 influences adhesion and biofilm formation *in-vitro* and *in-planta*.

Introduction

Repeat-in-toxin (RTX) proteins have diverse roles in Gram negative bacteria. Functional examples of these proteins include proteases, lipases, adenylate cyclases and cell surface S-layer proteins (Chang et al., 2014). Conserved features of RTX proteins include transport to the cell surface via the Type I secretion system (T1SS), a secretory signal often at the C-terminus, and glycine-aspartate (GD)-rich peptide repeats containing the consensus sequence G-G-X-G-(N/D)-D-X-(L/I/F)-X (X denotes any amino acid) for binding of calcium ions. Each repeat forms half of a portion of a β -roll structure. A hydrophobic interior is formed by hydrophobic residues and each turn in the β -roll structure contains a Ca²⁺ ion. These Ca²⁺ binding domains are vital for proper folding and activity of RTX toxins once these proteins are exported to the cell surface (Fiser and Konopasek, 2009; Chenal et al., 2010). Canonical RTX toxins include the 117 kDa, alpha (α) hemolysin from *Escherichia coli* (HlyA) and the adenylate cyclase toxin from *Bordetella pertussis* (Fiser and Konopasek, 2009). The latter toxin can damage bacterial membranes without using specific cellular receptors and forms small-cation selective membrane channels, flooding the interior of the host cell with monovalent cations, leading to osmotic lysis.

RTX toxins are also deployed by plant pathogens. The genome of *Pectobacterium atrosepticum* contains a coding sequence for a ~4600 amino acid long repeat containing protein with a C-terminal signal suggesting export via the Type I secretion system and homology to adhesins (Chang et al., 2014). RTX genes are also found in the genomes of *Xanthomonas oryzae* pv. *oryzae*, the causal agent of bacterial blight in rice, *Ralstonia solanacearum*, the causal agent of Southern wilt of tomato and *Xylella fastidiosa*, the causal agent of Pierce's Disease of grapevine and other diseases (Dossa et al., 2014; Salanoubat et al., 2002; Gambetta et al., 2018) but many of these are uncharacterized. In

addition to lytic activity, RTX proteins have diverse functions in bacterial infection. There are several subfamilies of RTX toxins and one is made up of large repetitive RTX adhesins, also collectively called <u>b</u>iofilm <u>a</u>ssociated <u>p</u>roteins (BAP). BAPs often function as loosely attached adhesins and play a role in biofilm development (Satchell, 2011; Lasa and Penades, 2006).

In planta, P. stewartii colonizes both the leaf apoplast and the xylem of corn plants, causing leaf blight and wilt symptoms, respectively. During the leaf blight phase, the bacteria cause cellular damage that leads to accumulation of fluids in the surrounding leaf tissue that manifests as water-soaked lesions in young plants. In the xylem, the bacteria form robust biofilms encased in copious amounts of EPS that leads to xylem blockage and wilting of the plants. In P. stewartii, a RTX-like protein, designated RTX2, is responsible for water-soaked lesion formation in corn seedlings. While this 250 kDa protein shares similarities with other RTX toxins, it cannot be categorized into a specific subfamily of RTX proteins (Roper et al., 2015). Its orthologs include the large repetitive protein YeeJ in from *Pantoea ananatis*, and a putative hemagluttinin hemolysin adhesinrelated protein from *Erwinia billingiae* (Roper et al., 2015). The *P. stewartii* RTX2 toxin contains five putative Ca²⁺ binding domains, a polycystic kidney disease (PKD) domain, five C-terminal transmembrane domains and an autotransport domain .Characteristic of RTX toxins, Ca²⁺ binding domains are vital for proper folding and activity of the toxin once exported to the cell surface, while the presence of transmembrane domain suggests it localized to the cell envelope. The presence of the autotransport domain suggests that unlike traditional RTX toxins, RTX2 is likely not be transported by Type I secretion like

other RTX proteins (Fiser and Konopasek, 2009; Chenal et al., 2010). The PKD domain is predicted to mediate interactions with other proteins and with carbohydrates (Roper et al., 2015; Ciccarelli, et al. 2002). In this study we determined that RTX2 is localized in the cell envelope of *P. stewartii* where it acts as a surface adhesion. Moreover, RTX2 contributes to overall cellular charge, cell surface hydrophobicity and cell length.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial Strains, Growth Conditions, and Strain Construction. All *P. stewartii* strains were grown on_nutrient agar (Difco Laboratories, Detroit) at 28°C and *E. coli* strains were grown on LB at 37°C. Luria-Bertani (LB) broth (Difco Laboratories) was supplemented with 0.2% glucose (final concentration) where indicated. All pertinent strains of *P. stewartii* and *E. coli* are listed in Table 2.1. When needed and appropriate, the following antibiotics were added to microbiology media: nalidixic acid, 30 µg/ml; ampicillin, 100 µg/ml, kanamycin, 30 µg/ml, and tetracycline, 30 µg/ml (all final concentration). The *E. coli* S17-1 λ strain served as a donor for conjugal transfer. The $\Delta rtx2/\Delta wceo$ mutant was constructed using the method described for synthesis of the $\Delta rtx2$ from Roper et al., 2015.

Electron Microscopy. Individual strains were inoculated into Luria Broth supplemented with 0.2% glucose and grown overnight at 28°C, at 180 rpm. Cultures were individually subcultured 1:20 into fresh media (of the same type) and allowed to grow until mid-log phase. Cells were harvested by centrifugation at 5000 rpm for 5 minutes, and washed with sterile PBS, pH 7.4. Cells were resuspended in sterile PBS, pH 7.4 and adjusted to

optical density (OD₆₀₀) of 0.3. Individual cell suspensions were then inoculated on onto separate acid washed glass-slides covered with sterile Poly-Lysine (Mfg: Cultrex, Catalog #3438-100-01) and allowed to sit for 30 minutes at 28°C. Samples were then taken to the UCR Central Facility for Advanced Microscopy and Microanalysis (CFAMM) for further processing and analysis. Prepared samples underwent critical point drying with a Tousimis 815 CriticalPoint Dryer and sputter coated. Samples were then viewed with a ThermoFisher Scientific (formerly FEI/Philips) NNS450 scanning electron microscope.

Quantification of Cellular Length and Width. Wild type and $\Delta rtx2$ strains containing a plasmid constitutively expressing GFP (pHC60) were grown overnight in Luria Broth medium with 0.2% glucose (LBG) and 30 µg/ml tetracycline at 28°C with shaking at 180 rpm. Cultures were then diluted 1/20 in the same media type and allowed to grow at the same condition until mid-log phase was reached. One milliliter of each strain was individually spun down in a microcentrifuge, washed once and then resuspended in 150 µl of sterile Phosphate Buffered Saline (PBS) pH 7.4. Exactly 2 µl of each suspension was inoculated onto individual 2% agarose pads and imaged with a Confocal Inverted Zeiss 880 Airyscan UV PALM. Using a 40X water immersion lens, 3 randomly selected fields were taken for analysis with Imaris x64® software (version 9.1.2; Mfg.: Bitplane). From each field, ten cells were randomly selected and the length and width were measured. The entire experiment was repeated for a total of 3 biological replicates (with each biological replicates for each biological replicate).

Quantification of Overall Cell Size. Single colonies of either wild type or $\Delta rtx2$ were grown in LB medium with 0.2% glucose (LBG) overnight at 28°C with shaking at 180 rpm. Cultures were reinoculated into fresh LBG with 0.2% glucose at a final dilution of 1/20 and allowed to grow at the same conditions until mid-log phase was reached. Cells were then individually harvested by centrifugation (5000 rpm for 10 minutes). Cell pellets were washed and then resuspended to $OD_{600} = 0.3$ in sterile 10 mM KCl, pH 5.28. Particle size of cell suspensions were measured in a ZetaPal, zeta potential analyzer (Brookhaven Instruments Corporation, Holtsville, NY, U.S.A.). Results based on 3 biological replicates.

Localization of RTX2. Fractionation of bacterial cell envelope was prepared per Bennion et al., 2010 but with the following modifications: the complemented *rtx2* strain ($\Delta rtx2/rtx2^+$) from Roper et al, 2015, and its corresponding mutant ($\Delta rtx2$ with the pBBR1-MCS4 vector) were grown, inverted at 28°C for 3 days on nutrient agar supplemented with nalidixic acid, 30 µg/ml. Cells were then harvested with sterile PBS, pH 7.4. Cells were pelleted by centrifugation at 5000 rpm for 10 minutes and stored at -80°C. Cells were then thawed on ice and resuspended at a concentration of 0.5 g/ml with Expedeon ProteolocTM EDTA-free Proteinase Inhibitor Cocktail. After lysozyme treatment for 30 minutes at 4°C, cellular suspension was lysed via French Press. Membrane and cytosolic fractions were separated by ultracentrifugation via 105,000 x gravity at 4°C for 60 minutes. Membrane (pellet) fraction was carefully resuspended in Tris Buffered Saline, pH 7.5, while the protein in the cytosolic (supernatant) fraction was precipitated via trichloroacetic acid precipitation and resuspended in SDS loading buffer. For immunoblotting, the above samples were mixed with 2X Laemmli loading dye (Mfg. Biorad, Catalog 1610737), and boiled for 5 minutes. Samples were loaded onto a 4% stacking and 6% resolving SDS-PAGE gel and transferred onto a 0.2 μm Polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membrane and blocked with 5% dried milk in Tris Buffered Saline, pH 7.4 with 0.1% Tween 20 (TBST). A rabbit polyclonal antibody raised against a synthetic peptide derived from RTX2 (SAELAFTVDNTGSSVALSPVG; both manufactured by Genscript) in TBST and 5% milk was used as the primary antibody (500 ng/ml, final concentration). Goat Anti-Rabbit IgG conjugated with Horseradish peroxidase (HRP; Mfg.: Agrisera, Cat# AS09 602) was used as the secondary antibody. The blot was developed with a PierceTM ECL Western Blotting Substrate, and read with a Biorad ChemiDoc XRS+.

Bacterial Adhesion to Hydrocarbon Assays. Single colonies of either wild type or $\Delta rtx2$ were grown in LBG overnight at 28°C with shaking at 180 rpm. Cultures were subcultured into fresh LBG at a final dilution of 1:20 and allowed to grow at the same conditions until mid-log phase was reached. Cells were then individually harvested by centrifugation (5000 rpm for 10 minutes). Cell pellets were washed (by gentle inversion until solution is homogenous, without using a vortex) and then resuspended to $OD_{600} = 0.3$ in Phosphate Urea Magnesium Buffer (K₂HPO₄: 17 g, KH₂PO4: 7.26 g, Urea: 1.8 g, MgSO₄7H₂O: 0.2 g), pH 7.1 (Tridbedi and Sil, 2014). Two milliliters of cell suspension were then aliquoted into sterile glass test tubes and OD_{600} was measured using a Thermo Scientific Biomate 3 spectrophotometer (Waltham, Massachusetts). This measurement served as the initial optical density reading (ODI). Then 2 ml of dodecane or n-

hexadecane was added to each separate tubes of cell suspension and vortexed for 2 minutes. After allowing the phases to separate for 2 hours, the second optical density reading (ODF) was taken. A control (no hydrocarbon added) for each culture was used to further monitor change(s) in optical density over time. The percentage of cell surface hydrophobicity of each strain was a modified version of the calculation from Tridbedi and Sil, 2014 and Swiatlo et al., 2002, calculated as follows: [(ODI-ODF)/ODI] x 100 of Treatment cells - [(ODI-ODF)/ODI] x 100 of control cells. Results are based on 4 biological replicates, each with 3 technical replicates.

Polymyxin B Challenges. For growth inhibition, single colonies of wild type, and $\Delta rtx2$, *P. stewartii* were grown overnight in LBG. The following day, cultures were diluted 1:20 and inoculated into fresh LBG in 96-well U-bottom microplates (Mfg. Falcon, Ref # 353077) to a final volume of 150 µl. Cells were treated with final concentrations of Polymyxin B (0 µg/ml (Negative Control), 6.25 µg/ml, 12.5 µg/ml, and 25 µg/ml). Growth was assessed in a Tecan Infinite F200 microplate reader using an absorbance reading of OD₅₉₅ at room temperature. Measurements were taken every hour for 24 hours at room temperature, with 30 seconds of orbital shaking with an amplitude of 6 mm prior to each reading. Growth curve readings are based on 3 biological replicates, each containing 3 technical replicates. To evaluate overall survival, *Δrtx2* and wild type cells that were challenged with polymyxin B as described above were serially diluted with 1X phosphate buffered saline (PBS, pH7.4), plated onto nutrient agar with nalidixic acid (final concentration: 30 µg/ml), and incubated at 28°C for 2 days. The same concentrations of polymyxin B were used as for the growth curve (0, 25, 12.5, and 6.25

µg/ml). Percent survival was determined by dividing viable cell counts of antibiotic challenged bacteria by mock (negative control) viable cell counts. Results are based on 3 biological replicates, each containing 3 technical replicates.

SEM of *In Vivo* **Biofilm Formation**. Infection of 10-day old Jubilee Corn Seedlings was performed per Roper et al., 2015. At 5 days post inoculation, the entire corn plant was placed in a fixative solution containing 63% Ethanol with 5% glacial acetic acid and 5% formalin. Three-five 1 mm wide leaf strips were cut from the base part, middle portion, and tip portion of each leaf blade, respectively. The leaf strips were dehydrated through an ethanol series of 70%, 80%, 90%, 95%, 100% and 100% with 15 min at each step. Dehydrated leaf specimens were critical-point dried with Tousimis Autosamdsri-931 (Tousimis Research Corp., USA) and then sputter-coated with Au-Pd in a Safematic CCU-010 compact coating unit (Safematic GmbH, Switzerland). Coated specimens were examined and photographed under an SEM (Hitachi S3400-II) at the accelerating voltage of 8kV with a secondary electron detector.

Surface Adhesion Assays. Adhesion assays were based on Koutsoudis et al., 2006, Davies and Marques, 2009 and Theunissen et al. 2010. For preparation of etched assay plates: non-coated polystyrene plates (Mfg. Greiner Bio-One; Ref #655101) were exposed to acetone for 10 seconds. After removal of acetone, plates were inverted to allow evaporation of residual acetone. After sterilization by ultraviolet light for 1 hour, plates were further left open in a sterile, running biosafety cabinet overnight. For culture preparation: In brief, single colonies of wild type, $\Delta rtx2$, $\Delta wceo$, $\Delta wceo/\Delta rtx2$ all carrying empty vector plasmid pBBR1, as well as $\Delta rtx2/rtx2^+$, and $\Delta wceo/\Delta rtx2/rtx2^+$ were grown

at 28°C in LBG plus 100 µg/mL ampicillin with shaking at 180 rpm. After resuspending (by gentle inversion until solution is homogenous, without using a vortex) and centrifugation (5000 rpm for 10 minute) and washing twice in sterile PBS, pH7.4, these overnight cultures were all adjusted to $OD_{600} = 0.5$, then further diluted 1/10 in fresh LB broth supplemented with 0.2% glucose and 100 µg/mL ampicillin and inoculated into the acetone treated microplate to a final volume of $150 \,\mu$ per well. One set of wells were incubated with only medium (with no antibiotics) to confirm proper sterilization of the plates. Cells were incubated statically at 28°C for 48 hours. After absorbance readings at OD₅₉₅ in a Tecan Infinite M Plex microplate reader (Switzerland), planktonic cells and culture medium were removed and remaining surface-attached cells were adhered by incubation at 37°C for 60 minutes. Exactly 200 µl of a 1% crystal violet solution (dissolved in 95% ethanol, then filtered through a sterile 0.2-micron cellulose acetate filter housing) was then added to each well and the plates were incubated at room temperature, statically for an hour. The crystal violet solution was removed and each well was then washed three times with 200 μ l sterile water with agitation for 30 seconds and dried overnight. The crystal violet was then solubilized by adding 200 µl of a 30% acetic acid solution per well, followed by a 1 hour shaking period on a Thermo Scientific MaxQ 2000 Orbital Shaker (Waltham, Massachusetts) set at 100 rpm at room temperature. The acetic acid solution from each well was further diluted 1 to 10 in 30% acetic acid in an untreated, polystyrene, 96-well microplate, mixed, and the absorbance reading were taken at OD₅₉₅ in a Tecan Infinite M Plex microplate reader (Switzerland). The adhesion value or Specific Biofilm formation (SBF) was calculated as follows: (OD₅₉₅CV-media value)/

(OD₅₉₅Cell growth-media value; Niu and Gilbert, 2004). Results are based on 5 biological replicates, each containing 36 technical replicates (12 technical replicates from 3 separate, acetone treated microplates per biological replicate). Statistical analysis was performed using a linear mixed effects model, where adhesion value was the response variable, strain, biological replicate, and their nested interactions were fixed effects, and plate number and the interactions between plate and strain were random effects. Post hoc analysis was performed using the least-squares means method and was corrected for multiple comparisons using the "sidak" method. Statistical analysis was performed with R version 4.0.5 with Ime4 and emmeans packages.

Confocal Microscopy of *In-Vitro***Biofilms**. Assays were based on Koutsoudis et al., 2006 with modifications. In brief, single colonies of wild type, $\Delta rtx2$, $\Delta wceo$, and $\Delta wceo/\Delta rtx2$ all carrying plasmid pHC60, were grown separately overnight, at 28°C in LBG with 30 µg/mL tetracycline shaking at 180 rpm. After resuspending (by gentle inversion until solution is homogenous, without using a vortex), centrifugation (5000 rpm for 10 minutes) and washing twice in sterile PBS, pH7.4, these overnight cultures were all adjusted to OD₆₀₀ = 0.5, then diluted further1/10 in fresh LB broth supplemented with 0.2% glucose and 30 µg/mL tetracycline. Then 7.5 ml of cell suspension was placed in a sterile 50 ml conical tube along with an autoclaved, confocal grade coverslip (Mfg.: Electron Microscopy Sciences, Cat # 72204-01). Prior to use, coverslips were gently etched with P220 grade sandpaper, rinsed with sterile water and sterilized by autoclave. Tubes were then incubated statically for 96 hours at 28°C. After gently rinsing the inoculated coverslip with sterile water, the biofilm formed at the location of the liquid air

interface was analyzed by placing the incubated coverslip on a glass slide covered with an adhesive microscope slide grid (Mfg: Diversified Biotech, Catalog # 89032-163), and viewed with a Zeiss 880 upright confocal microscope at 20X magnification. A total of 5 biological replicates were imaged with 11 images taken at individual grid points along the length of liquid air interface. BiofilmQ software developed by Hartmann et al., 2021 was used for quantitative three-dimensional image analysis of biofilms formed *in-vitro*. The Z-stack images analyses were based on Castro, 2021: formed biofilms were denoised by convolution using the default parameters, while floating cells were removed from images and a threshold of 100 vox was used to remove small artifacts due to noise. Tophat filter was set to a value of 15 to remove background fluorescence. Images were segmented automatically with a sensitivity of 1.75, and use of the Otsu algorithm. Autoaggregation Assays. Autoaggregation assays were based on Sorroche et al., 2012 with modifications. Individual strains were incubated overnight at 28°C at 180 rpm in Luria Broth supplemented with 0.2% glucose. After diluting 1/20 in 11.5 ml of fresh LB with 0.2% glucose, individual cultures were incubated under the same conditions until strains reached mid-log phase. Each culture was split into two, 5.5 ml volumes in separate sterile, 15 ml polypropylene tubes (Mfg.: Falcon, Ref # 352096) and both tubes were incubated at 4°C, for 18 hours. From the first tube: three, separate 0.1 ml aliquots were taken from just below the solution surface and were placed into individual wells of a 96-well polystyrene microplate (Mfg.: Greiner, Catalog # 655101) and read at an optical density of 595 nm (OD_{Final})The second tube, which served as a control was vortexed for 30 seconds, and three, separate 0.1 ml aliquots were placed into individual

wells of the same type of 96-well polystyrene microplate and also read at an optical density of 595 nm (OD_{Initial}). Sterile LB with 0.2% glucose served as a background control. After subtraction of background absorbance, the autoaggregation percentage was calculated as follows: $100 \times [1 - (OD_{final}/OD_{initial})]$. Experiments were performed for a total of 5 biological replicates, each with 2 technical replicates. Statistical Analysis was performed using a Kruskal Wallis Test, followed by post-hoc Dunn's test.

Results

Deletion of *rtx2* **Decreases Cell Length.** Observations of *rtx2* mutant and wild type *P*. *stewartii* bacterial cells via scanning electron microscope observed differing dimensions between the two strains (Figure 2.2). Measurements of length and width by confocal microscopy showed the $\Delta rtx2$ mutant to be shorter than the wild type (Figure 2.3). Both bacterial strains contain the plasmid pHC60 (which constitutively expresses GFP). Similar results were observed during particle size analysis by a ZetaPals, Zeta Potential Analyzer (Brookhaven Instruments). Wild Type *P. stewartii* also had a larger Average Diameter Eff. and half diameter when compared to the $\Delta rtx2$ mutant (Figure 2.4).

<u>RTX2 Localizes to the Cell Envelope</u>. French press processing and further separation by ultracentrifugation yielded separate cell envelope (pellet) and cytosol (supernatant) fractions. SDS-PAGE followed by immunoblotting yielded distinct bands found only in the membrane fraction of $\Delta rtx2/rtx2^+$ (Roper et al., 2015). This strain expresses rtx2 from a multicopy plasmid, allowing for increased expression of the protein compared with the

wild type. Immunoblot did not detect any such bands in the wild type cytosolic fraction, nor in either membrane or cytosolic fractions of the *rtx2* mutant with pBBR1 empty vector (Figure 2.5). The antibody also detected additional bands only in the membrane fraction of the overexpressing strain. This may be an artifact of the overproduction of RTX2, or perhaps the RTX2 protein is cleaved when it is in the cell envelope.

Deletion of *rtx2* Increases Sensitivity to Polymyxin B. RTX2 is predicted to be

membrane bound and we hypothesize that the integration and membrane perturbation of the RTX2 protein in the cell envelope influences the physiochemical properties of the cell envelope. The antibiotic Polymyxin B destabilizes the bacterial outer membrane, by binding to the lipopolysaccharide layer (Hébrard et al., 2012), and can be used as an indication of membrane integrity. Deletion of *rtx2* increases sensitivity to Polymyxin B in all tested concentrations (25, 12.5 and 6.25 μ g/ml), compared with the wild type (Figure 2.6A, 2.6B, and 2.6C).

<u>RTX2</u> is Required for Colonization and Biofilm Establishment *In-Planta*. Scanning electron microscopy of 10 days old jubilee corn seedlings 5 days post inoculation yielded no visible bacteria in the lumen or xylem, while wild type *P. stewartii* was found heavily encased in EPS, in the xylem (Figure 2.7). Areas of highest bacterial concentration in the xylem corresponded to areas of water-soaked lesion development.

<u>RTX2 Influences Cell Hydrophobicity and Surface Adhesion</u>. Bacterial adherence to hydrocarbons (BATH) assays are a simple and rapid technique for determining cell surface hydrophobicity: change in optical density after mixing and exposure to an organic solvent is used to compare overall hydrophobicity of the cell surface (Rosenberg, 1984).

The more hydrophobic the cell, the more cells will be attracted to the organic phase, leading to a decrease in optical density measured in the buffer phase. BATH assays show that the rtx2 mutant has higher adherence to the hydrocarbons dodecane or n-hexadecane (Figure 2.8).

In vitro crystal violet adhesion assays, demonstrated no significant difference in adhesion value (adhesion in proportion to bacterial growth measured by optical density) between wild type P. *stewartii* and the *Artx2* in an EPS-producing (wild type) background. However, P. stewartii produces high levels of EPS in culture, which can interfere with biofilm formation and surface adhesion in *in vitro* assays (Koutsoudis et al., 2006). The non-EPS producing ($\Delta w ceo$) background mimics the initial stages of biofilm formation where bacteria attach to a surface, prior to the production of EPS (O'toole, 2003; Koutsoudis et al., 2006). In the non-EPS producing background ($\Delta wceo$), the deletion of rtx2 (i.e., the $\Delta rtx2/\Delta wceo$ double mutant) decreases the adhesion value when compared to the non-EPS producing wild type ($\Delta wceo$ mutant). The $\Delta wceo$ mutant also had a significantly higher adhesion value than all other strains, except the compliment strains. The complement strains in both EPS and non-EPS forming backgrounds showed a higher level of adhesion value than all other strains (Figure 2.9). **RTX2 Impacts Biofilm Height** *In-Vitro* in a Non-EPS Background. Similar to the crystal violet adhesion results, only the wild type in the non-EPS background ($\Delta wceo$) showed a significant difference in biofilm height, when compared to all the other strains. The *wceo* mutant (non-EPS producing wild type) was significantly taller than the other

strains (Figure 2.10). Results are based on 5 biological replicates, each with 11 technical replicates.

RTX2 has no Impact in Cell to Cell Aggregation *In-Vitro.* Autoaggregation Assays indicated that RTX2 appears to have no influence in cell-cell aggregation, *in-vitro* (Figure 2.13). The only significant difference was seen in the wild type strain in an EPS producing background. However, this difference was a decrease in the percentage of autoaggregation. The *rtx2* mutant, in its non-EPS producing counterpart ($\Delta rtx2/\Delta wceo$), and even the non-EPS producing wild type ($\Delta wceo$) showed no significant difference in autoaggregation.

Table 2.1. Bacterial Strains and Plasmids

Strain or Plasmid	Relevant Genotypes	Source
Pantoea stewartii subsp. Stewartii		
DC283	Wild type, NaI ^r	Coplin et al. 1986
$\Delta rtx2$ (CR54)	NaI ^r , knockout in <i>rtx2</i>	Roper et al., 2015
∆wceo	NaI ^r , knockout in <i>wceo</i>	Carlier et al, 2009
$\Delta rtx2/\Delta wceo$ (CR59)	NaI ^r , knockout in <i>wceo / rtx2</i>	This study
$\Delta rtx2/rtx2^+$ (CR64)	<i>∆rtx2</i> , pMCR29. parent strain DC283	Roper et al., 2015
DC283 w/ pBBR1 (EV)	NaI ^R , Ap ^R	This study
<i>∆rtx2 w</i> /pBBR1(EV)	$\Delta rtx2$, NaI ^R , Ap ^R	This study
<i>∆wceo w/</i> pBBR1(EV)	<i>∆wceo</i> , NaI ^R , Ap ^R	This study
<i>∆rtx2/ ∆wceo w/</i> pBBR1(EV)	<i>∆rtx2/ ∆wceo</i> , NaI ^R , Ap ^R , Kan ^R	This study
$\Delta rtx2/\Delta wceo/rtx2^+$	<i>∆rtx2/ ∆wceo</i> , NaI ^R , Ap ^R , Kan ^R	This study
	pMCR29. parent strain DC283	
Escherichia coli		
S17-1λ	RP4, Mob+, Smr	Simon et al. 1983
Plasmids		
pHC60	Broad host range vector carrying gfp , tet^R	Cheng & Walker, 1998
pMCR29	<i>rtx2</i> cloned into pBBR1	Roper et al, 2015
pBBR1-MCS4	Broad host range vector, Ap ^R	Kovach, et al. 1995



Figure 2.1. Phylogenic Tree relating Domain Relationship of RTX2 to other similar proteins. Using TREND software from Gumerov, and Zhulin, 2020 a phylogenic tree based on protein domains was determined. The protein RTX2 appears to be more related to Biofilm associated proteins than traditional RTX toxins.







A

В





А

В



Figure 2.5. RTX2 is detected in membrane fraction of the cell. Rabbit polyclonal antibody raised against a peptide (SAELAFTVDNTGSSVALSPVG) designed from a portion of the RTX2 protein (Genscript) detected a protein of approximate size to RTX2 in the membrane fraction (indicated with a green arrow) of the complimentary strain of *rtx2* mutant *P. stewartii* ($\Delta rtx2/rtx2^+$) and not in the cytoplasmic fraction of the same strain of bacteria, and neither in the membrane or cytoplasmic fractions of the corresponding *rtx2* mutant ($\Delta rtx2$ w/ pBBR1 (EV; Empty vector). Equal amounts (1 µg) of membrane or cytoplasmic fractions of either the overexpressing strain of wild type or $\Delta rtx2$ *P. stewartii* were run on a 4% stacking / 6% resolving sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) Denaturing Gel and transferred onto 0.25 µM Polyvinylidene fluoride membrane. Goat anti-Rabbit IgG conjugated with horseradish peroxidase (HRP) was used for detection.







Figure 2.7. RTX2 is required for biofilm formation in-planta. Representative SEM Images of A) wild type *P. stewartii* and B) *Artx2* inoculated plants showed that the RTX2 protein is needed by the bacteria to form the EPS-based biofilm characteristic of Stewart's wilt. SEM images of inoculated plants, 5 days post infection show that while wild type *P. stewartii* is found in the xylem, the *rtx2* mutant is not present in significant numbers to be detected.

B.

A.



Dodecane





N-Hexadecane 90 ** 80 Cell Surface Hydrophobicity (%) 70 60 50 40 Wild Type □ ∆rtx2 30 20 10 0 -10 -20

Figure 2.8. **Deletion of** *rtx2* **increases cell surface hydrophobicity.** Bacterial Adhesion to Hydrocarbon (BATH) Assays using the organic solvent A) Dodecane or B) N-Hexadecane indicates that the *rtx2* mutant has increased cell surface hydrophobicity compared to the wild type. * indicates significance at p < 0.0001 and ** p < 0.002 via Mann Whitney Test. Results are based on 4 biological replicates, each with 3 technical replicates.



В



Figure 2.9. Deletion of rtx2 decreases surface adhesion in-vitro. Surface Adhesion Crystal Violet Assays with acetone treated, uncoated microplates showed A) no major difference in adhesion value (adhesion in proportion to bacterial growth measured by optical density) between wild type P. stewartii and the $\Delta rtx2$ in an EPS-producing background. B) In a non-EPS producing ($\Delta wceo$) background, the deletion of rtx2 (i.e., $\Delta rtx2/\Delta wceo$ mutant) decreases the adhesion value when compared to the non-EPS producing wild type ($\Delta wceo$ mutant). In the $\Delta wceo$ (non-EPS producing) background, the wild type ($\Delta wceo$ mutant) had a significantly higher adhesion value versus the EPS producing wild type, $\Delta rtx2$, and the non-EPS producing $\Delta rtx2/\Delta wceo$, suggesting a role of the RTX2 protein as an adhesin. The complimenting strains in both EPS and non-EPS forming backgrounds showing a higher level of adhesion value than all other strains. Adhesion value or Specific Biofilm formation (SBF) was calculated as follows: (OD595CV-media value)/(OD595Cell growth-media value)(Niu and Gilbert, 2004). Statistical analysis was performed using a linear mixed effects model, followed by a post hoc analysis using the least-squares means method with the "sidak" method to correct for multiple pairwise comparisons. Letters denote levels of significance.



Figure 2.10. Deletion of *rtx2* **decreases height of biofilms** (*in-vitro*). Analysis of 3-D, confocal imaging of the above strains of *P. stewartii* by BiofilmQ (Hartmann et al., 2021) show deletion of *rtx2* leads to a decrease in height, in a non-EPS forming background. Results are based on 5 biological replicates, each with 11 technical replicates. * indicates significance at p < 0.01 via ANOVA plus post hoc Tukey HSD test.



Figure 2.11. Observed impact of the deletion of *rtx2*. Deletion of *rtx2* impacts biofilm formation (*in-vitro*). Representative Imaging of GFP tagged A) Wild Type B) $\Delta rtx2$ C) $\Delta wceo$ and D) $\Delta rtx2/\Delta wceo$ expressing plasmid pHC60, allowing for constitutively GFP expressing shows increased observed biofilm formation in wild type and $\Delta wceo$ strains.



Figure 2.12. Determined Thickness of representative images of GFP tagged bacteria. A) Wild Type B) $\Delta rtx2$ C) $\Delta wceo$ and D) $\Delta rtx2/\Delta wceo$ strains of *P. stewartii* expressing plasmid pHC60 from Figure 11. Calculation of Local thickness of the representative images and resulting figure is by BiofilmQ (Hartmann et al., 2021) shows the *wceo* mutant to be taller than all other strains.



Figure 2.13. RTX2 has no impact on cell to cell autoaggregation, *in-vitro*.

Autoaggregation Assays showed that only the EPS-producing wild type *P. stewartii* had a significant difference, but it resulted in a decrease in autoaggregation. Results are a total of 5 biological replicates, each with 2 technical replicates. Statistical Analysis was performed using a Kruskal Wallis Test, followed by post-hoc Dunn's test, with $p \le 0.005$.
Discussion

Bap-like RTX proteins are implicated in biofilm formation several bacterial systems such as Pseudomonas fluorescens, Escherichia coli, Acinetobacter baumanii, and *Staphylococcus aureus* among others where they are required for the formation of 3dimensional tower structures and biofilm maturation (Lasa and Penades, 2006; Brossard and Campagnari, 2011). In addition to to having cytolytic activity, the *P. stewartii* RTX2 also has large repetitive adhesin motifs homologous to hemagglutinins and to the Bap subfamily of RTX proteins suggesting it plays a pleiotropic role as an adhesin and a cytolysin (Roper et al., 2015, Tao et al., 2006, Heidelberg et al., 2004). Comprehensive images of biofilms formed on glass slides indicated that the 3-dimensional biofilm morphologies were, indeed, qualitatively different than the isogenic wild type strain. Specifically, the wild type cells readily colonized the glass surface and formed congruent biofilms, whereas, the Δrtx^2 mutant sparsely populated the glass slides resulting in a patchy biofilm. Although the domain architecture of RTX2 suggested it behaves as an adhesin, the $\Delta rtx2$ mutant was similar to the wild type parent when assayed for direct cell-to-surface adhesion properties to polystyrene using a crystal violet assay designed to isolate the initial attachment to a surface. This suggested that RTX2 may play a nuanced role in adhesion that affects fine-scale downstream biofilm architecture but is not apparent during initial surface attachment or cell-cell adhesion in traditional crystal violet assays.

In canonical biofilm development, biofilm initiation is mediated by cell surface adhesins that allow for attachment to surface substrata and cell-cell aggregation that lead to microcolony formation. Once established in a microcolony, the biofilm cells differentiate and begin producing an extracellular matrix that contributes to the building and maintenance of the biofilm architecture (O'toole, 2003). *P. stewartii* produces copious amounts of EPS called stewartan that is necessary for biofilm maturation. Stewartan forms a very fluid, slime layer that is loosely associated with the cell surface and can often mask nuanced roles of surface adhesins by preventing strong adherence to the surface substrata (Koutsoudis et al., 2006). Because *P. stewartii* does not strongly adhere to surfaces due to its fluid EPS, we tested the role of RTX2 as adhesin in absence of the confounding effects of stewartan EPS by introducing the *rtx2* mutation into the *Awceo* genetic background that is defective in EPS production. WceO is a glucosyltransferase involved in EPS production in *P. stewartii* (Carlier et al., 2009). Indeed, the *Artx2/Awceo* was significantly impaired in attachment to the polystyrene substrate indicating that RTX2 has adhesive properties.

However, even in a non-EPS producing ($\Delta wceo$) background, RTX2 does not appear to play a role in cell to cell aggregation. There was no significant difference between the non-EPS producing wild type ($\Delta wceo$) and the non-EPS producing *rtx2* mutant ($\Delta rtx2/\Delta wceo$). While the wild type (EPS-producing) *P. stewartii* was the only strain to show any significant difference, it was in a decrease in autoaggregation. This could be due to the *in-vitro* characteristics of wild type *P. stewartii* producing excess EPS, which may prevent cell to cell interaction (Koutsoudis, et al., 2006). This phenomenon also may impact the *in-vitro* biofilm height, as seen in the confocal based visualization of the wild type (EPS-producing), GFP-tagged bacteria.

In planta, P. stewartii colonizes both the leaf apoplast and the xylem, causing leaf blight and wilt symptoms, respectively. During the leaf blight phase, the bacteria cause cellular damage that leads to accumulation of fluids in the surrounding leaf tissue that manifests as water-soaked lesions. In the xylem, the bacteria form robust biofilms encased in copious amounts of EPS that leads to xylem blockage and wilting of the plants. Both the leaf apoplast and the xylem present a mosaic of hydrophilic and hydrophobic surfaces that the bacterium must adhere to during the infection process. Thus, P. stewartii's ability to change its surface properties during the interaction with different tissue niches in the plant is critical to the infection process. Cell surface hydrophobicity is a multifactorial phenotype dictated by the composition of the bacterial cell surface and is an important parameter that governs bacterial attachment and detachment to biotic surfaces. Hydrophobicity can be impacted by cell envelope structures including lipopolysaccharides and cell surface proteins (Lahesaare et al., 2016). Microorganisms can fine tune their cell surface hydrophobicity in response to changes in environmental conditions (temperature, composition of nutrients, etc.) and growth phases (Heipieper et al., 2010) that, in turn, affects their adhesion to surfaces. Surface localized adhesins, such as LapF, from *Pseudomonas putida* and YcfR of *E. coli* contribute to overall cell surface hydrophobicity (Zhang et al., 2007; Lahesaare et al., 2016). The Bap-like protein, Esp, from biofilm forming strains of *Enterococcus faecalis* promotes primary attachment to surfaces and also is an important contributor to cell surface hydrophobicity (Toledo-Arana, et al., 2001). Membrane fractionation and immunoblot experiments confirmed that the RTX2 protein localized to the P. stewartii

envelope as predicted by the five transmembrane domains in the C-terminus. Moreover, deleting *rtx2* resulted in a significant increase in cell surface hydrophobicity of *P*. stewartii indicating either that the RTX2 protein imparts hydrophilic properties to the cell surface or that deleting RTX2 exposes hydrophobic entities on the cell surface. Based on this, we speculate that RTX2 plays a role in early attachment where it acts as a primary adhesin by modulating cell surface hydrophobicity. Both the apoplastic phase and xylem colonization phases require attachment to host surfaces. RTX2 is implicated in watersoaked lesion formation where it causes cellular damage that leads to accumulation of fluids in the surrounding leaf tissue that manifests as water-soaked lesions. In tandem with RTX2, a Type III effector, WtsE, is also required for water-soaked lesion formation (Roper et al, 2015; Ham et al., 2006) The Type III secretion system functions by directly injecting effectors into host cells and, thus, requires host cell contact. We speculate that RTX2 is an important contributor to host cell attachment particularly during the apoplastic phase of colonization to enable its own access to the plant cell as well as facilitating the host cell contact required for delivery of the WtsE effector.

Determination of cell size is a multi-faceted and complex process and the mechanisms that govern cell size can diverge substantially among bacterial species. Spatiotemporal mathematical models of biofilm assembly predict that cell length has an impact on shaping biofilm structure. Specifically, a longer average cell length yields more rapidly expanding, flatter biofilms than those formed by shorter cells (Beroz et al., 2018). Deletion of *rtx2* resulted in a significant reduction in bacterial cell size when compared to wild type *P. stewartii*. We speculate that its role in modulating cell size also

is a factor in its role in biofilm formation. It is unknown how this surface localized protein aids in determination of cell size or why a smaller cell size impacts biofilm development. However, the rtx2 gene is found in an operon with two components of the <u>Regulator of Capsular Synthesis (Rcs) phosphorelay regulatory system, the</u> phosphotransferase RcsD, and the response regulator, RcsB (Burbank, 2014). The Rcs phosphorelay is an environmental responsive, multi-component signal transduction system that regulates EPS production, cell division, integrity of the cell envelope, biofilm formation, flagellar genes and virulence factors (Hinchliffe et al., 2008). Because RTX2 localized to the cell envelope and rtx2 may be co-transcribed with rcsB and rcsD (see Chapter 3), we hypothesize RTX2 may also be linked to fine-tuning of the physiochemical properties of the bacterial cell that are linked to the Rcs phosphorelay.

Establishment and synthesis of a biofilm is a complex, coordinated endeavor. In this study we determined that the *P. stewartii* Bap-like RTX2 affects the physiochemical properties of the cell envelope, and mediates cell surface attachment in addition to its previously determined cytolytic role in water-soaked lesion formation (Roper et al, 2015). However, despite the activity of the multifunctional protein RTX2, more research is required to determine all related protein activity during the biofilm process, as *P. stewartii* forms a biofilm as part of infection cycle in Stewart's wilt.

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Chapter III

OxyR Regulates the Rcs Phosphorelay Under Oxidative Stress in the Bacterial Plant Pathogen, *Pantoea stewartii* subsp. *stewartii*

Abstract

Pantoea stewartii subsp. stewartii, is the causative agent of Stewart's wilt in sweet corn. This disease is characterized by seedling wilt and water soaked (WS) lesion formation. WS lesions contain high levels of the reactive oxygen species (ROS) likely as a consequence of cellular lysis caused by the bacterium. The transcription factor OxyR plays a significant role in regulating the response to H_2O_2 exposure by sensing and responding to oxidative stress and inducing production of ROS degradative enzymes, like an alkyl hydroperoxidase. Interestingly, in *P. stewartii*, the operator region of an operon that contains components of the Regulator of Capsular Synthesis (Rcs) pathway, that regulates EPS production, contains a conserved OxyR binding site. Moreover, an $\Delta oxyR$ mutant produces significantly less capsular polysaccharide than the wild type parental strain suggesting that the Rcs phosphorelay and downstream EPS production are tied to sensing of environmental ROS. Our data demonstrate that, indeed, sublethal exposure to the ROS generators, H₂O₂ and paraquat, induced expression of the Rcs operon. Furthermore, promoter binding assays confirmed that OxyR binds to the operator region of this operon. Induction of the Rcs phosphorelay by sensing of ROS via OxyR may be one mechanism *P. stewartii* uses to transition from the WS lesion phase to the xylem phase of plant colonization. This operon also encodes two rtx toxin genes, one of which encodes a RTX protein involved in WS lesion formation. Exposure to ROS in WS lesions stimulates expression of this operon and serves as a method for P. stewartii to sense ROS in their local environment, stimulating the production of a protective EPS matrix and to begin the biofilm process, aiding in xylem colonization.

Introduction

Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) are highly reactive molecules that cause damage to cellular molecules. ROS species include hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), nitric oxide (NO), oxide anion (O₂⁻), peroxynitrite (ONOO⁻), hydrochlorous acid (HOCl), and hydroxyl radical (OH⁻). These unstable molecules oxidize proteins and lipids, damage DNA and can lead to cell death. The thiol-based transcription factor, OxyR, regulates the redox state inside the bacterial cell by activating genes for protection against H₂O₂ (Tao et al., 1991; Green and Paget, 2004; Seo et al., 2015; Burbank and Roper, 2014). Deletion of *oxyR* leads to increased sensitivity to reactive oxygen species, including H₂O₂ (Tao et al., 1991, Burbank and Roper; 2014, Wan et al., 2018). OxyR also regulates some virulence factors that impact autoaggregation and surface adhesion in *Escherichia coli* and *Serratia marcescens*, respectively (Hasman, et al., 1999; Shanks et al., 2007).

Biofilm formation, a communal association of of microorganisms adhered to a surface enables bacteria, in part, to withstand environmental stressors, including ROS. Biofilm formation is a complex coordinated effort that generally follows the developmental regimen of surface attachment, microcolony formation that mature in microcolonies encased in an extracellular matrix. OxyR has been implicated in early steps of biofilm initiation through regulation of the surface adhesion protein, Ag43 in *Escherichia coli* (Schembri et al., 2003). In *P. stewartii*, deletion of *oxyR* causes a significant reduction in capsular or exopolysaccharide (EPS) production suggesting it is involved in transitioning to the later stages of biofilm formation that require tight regulation of EPS synthesis (Burbank and Roper, 2014). An OxyR conserved binding site

is upstream of an operon containing 2 genes that are a part of the Rcs synthesis signaling pathway along with two repeat in toxin (RTX) like proteins. Deletion of the smaller RTX gene (designated rtx1) yields no change in phenotype, but deletion of the larger toxin gene (designated rtx2) decreases virulence, and water-soaked lesion formation (Roper et al., 2015). Therefore, I hypothesize reactive oxygen species may induce expression of these key components of the Rcs signal transduction system as well as these RTX like toxins, via OxyR leading EPS synthesis for biofilm formation in *Pantoea stewartii*.

The Rcs phosphorelay is required for EPS production in *P. stewartii* but the environmental signals that induces expression or activity of this important and complex signal transduction system is largely unknown. The primary purpose of this research is to determine if reactive oxygen species may act as an external environmental signal that may induce the process of biofilm formation in *P. stewartii* via the Rcs phosphorelay by use of the transcription factor OxyR.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial Strains, Growth Conditions, and Strain Construction. All *P. stewartii* strains were grown on_nutrient agar (Difco Laboratories, Detroit) at 28°C and *E. coli* strains were grown on Luria-Bertani (LB) at 37°C. LB broth (Difco Laboratories) was supplemented with 0.2% glucose (final concentration) where indicated. All pertinent strains of *P. stewartii* and *E. coli* are listed in Table 1. When needed and appropriate, the following antibiotics were added to the media: nalidixic acid, 30 µg/ml; or ampicillin,

100 μ g/ml (final concentrations). The *E. coli* S17-1 λ strain served as a donor for conjugal transfer.

Recombinant OxyR Synthesis: The *oxyR* gene was cloned into the pET101/d-TOPO expression plasmid (Invitrogen; Waltham, MA), then transformed into BL21(DE3)pLysS for synthesis of a recombinant OxyR protein with a C-terminal His-tag under a T7 inducible promoter (Roper, unpublished data). Recombinant OxyR expressing bacteria were initially grown overnight in LB with 100 µg/ml ampicillin (final concentration) at 37°C while shaking at 180 rpm. Cultures were then subcultured 1/100 into fresh media and grown under the same conditions until an absorbance of $OD600_{nm} = 0.5$ was reached. After addition of 1mM IPTG (final concentration), cultures were grown overnight at 28°C (Roper, unpublished data). Bacterial cells were harvested by centrifugation at 5,000 rpm, at 4°C for 10 minutes, and stored at -80°C. Bacterial crude extracts were prepared by resuspending cell pellets to a concentration of 0.2 gram per ml in cell lysis buffer (100 mM Tris HCl, 1 mM EDTA, and NaCl, pH 8.0) containing HaltTM EDTA-free, proteinase inhibitor Cocktail (Reference # 78425, Mfg. Thermo Scientific). Cell slurries then underwent lysozyme treatment at 4°C followed by sonication on ice with a Fisher Scientific 550 Sonic Dismembrator.

A recombinant mutant version of OxyR with a point mutation in the DNA binding domain (formed by changing serine 33 to asparagine (S33N)) was cloned and expressed as described above as a control. This mutation inactivates the helix-turn-helix DNA binding domain of OxyR (Kullik et al., 1995). This mutation was introduced with a

Thermo Scientific Phusion Site Directed Mutagenesis Kit per manufacturer's instructions (Roper, unpublished data).

Promoter Binding Assays: Electrophoretic Mobility Shift Assay (EMSA): To

determine if OxyR binds to its predicted binding site upstream of the rtx1/rtx2/rcsD/rcsB operon, individual bacterial crude extracts containing either the recombinant, wild type OxyR or the recombinant, mutated OxyR (S33N) were incubated for 30 minutes at room temperature in 30 microliters of binding buffer (10 mM Tris, pH 7.5, 1 mM EDTA, 100mM KCl, 10 mM DTT, 5% vol/vol glycerol, 0.01 mg/ml of Bovine Serum Albumin, final concentration; Hellman and Fried, 2007) containing 1µg poly(dI-dC) and 50 nanograms of a DNA probe. The DNA probe was an approximately 500 bp PCR product containing either the predicted OxyR binding site for the *rtx1/rtx2/rcsD/rcsB* operon or the OxyR binding site upstream of the *aphC* gene found in *P. stewartii*. The DNA probes were synthesized by PCR with a PrimeStar® GXL DNA Polymerase (Mfg. Takara Bio, Cat# R050A), using gene specific primers (Table 3.2) under the following conditions: initial denaturization at 98°C for 1 minute, then denaturization at 98°C for 10 seconds, annealing at either 55°C for the *aphC* gene OxyR binding site control probe or 40°C for the *rtx1/rtx2/rcsD/rcsB* operon predicted OxyR binding site for 15 seconds, then elongation for 1 minute at 68°C for 30 cycles, followed by an extended elongation at 68°C for 5 minutes. The PCR product was purified with a DNA Clean & Concentrator Kit from Zymo Research (Cat# D4003). The entire solution (30 µl) was loaded onto a 5% native acrylamide TAE gel and run for 90 minutes at 76 V. Gels were the stained with

InvitrogenTM SYBRTM Safe DNA Gel Stain (Catalog # S33102) per manufacturer's instructions and read with a Biorad ChemiDocTM MP Imaging System.

Promoter Binding Assays: DNA-Protein-Interaction (DPI)- Enzyme-Linked

Immunosorbent Assay (ELISA): DNA-Protein-Interaction (DPI)-ELISA was performed per Brand et al., 2010, but with following modifications: wells of a Thermo ScientificTM PierceTM NeutrAvidin Coated Microplate (Catalog #PI151280) were coated with 1.25 pmol of a biotin-labeled, 22 nucleotide, double stranded DNA fragment, containing either the OxyR binding site upstream of the *rtx1/rtx2/rcsD/rcsB* operon, or the *ahpC* gene (encodes alkyl hydroperoxidase), a gene known to be under regulatory control of OxyR by incubating at room temperature for 2 hours. These DNA fragments were oligonucleotides synthesized by IDT (San Diego, California), and biotin labeled with a Thermo Fisher North2South Complete Biotin Random Prime Labeling and Detection Kit (Catalog # 17175) after forming a double stranded DNA fragment in a Biorad T100TM Thermocycler by initially heating the complementary fragments together at 95°C for 5 minutes, then decreasing the temperature by one degree every minute until a temperature of 20°C was reached. Blocking of the wells was performed with 5% milk in Tris Buffered Saline, pH 7.5 with 0.1% Tween 20. A 1:1000 dilution of a mouse, 6X His-Tag, monoclonal antibody conjugated to horseradish peroxidase (Thermofisher Scientific, Catalog # MA1-21315-HRP) was used to detect any bound, OxyR His-tagged protein. Absorbance at 450 nm was measured with an Infinite M Plex Tecan Plate reader.

<u>Gene Expression Reporter Assays</u>: Individual strains wild type DC283 and $\Delta oxyR$ transformed with either the pFPV25 vector containing the native promoter region of the

rtx1/rtx2/rcsD/rcsB operon (pFPV25::prtx2) upstream of a gene encoding a GFP reporter protein or the pFPV25 empty vector were grown overnight in LB supplemented with 0.2% glucose containing 100 μ g/ml ampicillin (final concentration) at 180 rpm at 28°C. Optical density of individual cultures were adjusted to $OD600_{nm} = 0.5$, then further diluted to 1:10 in fresh medium and aliquoted into individual wells of a sterile, black chimney polystyrene 96-well plate (Catalog number 3603, Mfg. Costar). The plate was incubated at room temperature for 24 hours. Following this, the individual cultures were exposed to either 0.2 μ g/ml paraquat, 10 μ M H₂O₂ (final concentration) or sterile water (mock controls) and optical density and fluorescence was continued to be monitored for every 15 minutes for 7 hours, a modified process from Pescaretti et al., 2010 with an Infinite M Plex Tecan Plate reader. Experiments were executed for a total of 3 biological replicates, each containing 3 technical replicates. Readings were reported as the ratio of fluorescence to optical density, and analysis was performed per De Jong and Geiselmann (2015). Calculations to determine fluorescence were done as follows: background fluorescence and optical density was subtracted from each treatment or control well. Following this, the ratio of fluorescence/OD 595 nm was calculated for each well. Then the total amount of fluorescence of each well was calculated. Any calculated negative result was given a value equal to zero. Fluorescence was calculated to determine the difference between wells of bacteria exposed to the sublethal ROS species and the wells of bacteria not exposed to the ROS species.

Quantification of Gene Expression Following Sub-Lethal ROS Treatment. Exposure to ROS was performed as previously described (Burbank and Roper, 2014) with the

following modifications: cells were grown in LB supplemented with 0.2% glucose (final concentration). For the ROS challenge, cells were incubated with 0.2 μ g/ml paraquat (final concentration) for 15 minutes, or 10 μ M H₂O₂ (final concentration) for 5 minutes. Isolation of RNA was performed as described in Burbank and Roper, 2014. Following DNAse treatment, RNA was quantified using Qubit Analysis. Differentiation of gene expression was determined by a custom probe set designed for the Nanostring Gene Expression System (Seattle, WA). Three reference genes, *ffh* (GenBank accession number EHT99250), *proC* (GenBank accession number EHU02233) and *gyrB* (GenBank accession number WP006121375) were used for normalization of gene expression (Burbank and Roper, 2014; Takle et al. 2007; Yu et al., 2016). All RNAs and Nanostring probes were sent to Canopy Biosciences (Hayward, CA) for testing. Analysis of gene expression data was performed by Nanostring nsolver 4.0 data analysis program and expressed as change in fold gene expression compared with *untreated* (Mock) controls.

Results

<u>OxyR Binds the Operator Region of the rtx1/rtx2/rcsD/rcsB Operon</u>. We have demonstrated through EMSA and DPI-ELISA that bacterial crude extracts containing a recombinant version of OxyR binds to a predicted binding operator region of the *rtx1/rtx2/rcsD/rcsB* operon (Figure 3.1 and 3.2). This same bacterial crude extract is also bound to an OxyR transcriptional binding site for the gene *ahpC* that is known to be under control of OxyR that was used as a positive control (Burbank and Roper, 2014). In addition, crude extracts containing a mutated version of the His-tagged recombinant OxyR that prevents the OxyR protein from binding to DNA did not effectively bind to the operator region of the *rtx1/rtx2/rcsD/rcsB* operon or the operator region of the *ahpC* gene as compared to the wild type recombinant OxyR.

OxyR Induces Expression of the *rtx1/rtx2/rcsD/rcsB* **Operon**. Wild type and $\Delta oxyR$ mutant strains of *P. stewartii* containing the plasmid pFPV25::prtx2 that included the predicted binding site of OxyR upstream of a GFP reporter were monitored for fluorescence in proportion to optical density, after the introduction of sublethal concentrations of either H₂O₂ or paraquat. These measurements were also compared to untreated strains, as well as empty vector controls. After the introduction of (final concentration) either 10 μ M H₂O₂ (Figure 3.3A) or 0.2 μ g/ml Paraquat (Figure 3.3B), wild type *P. stewartii* showed a significant increase in fluorescence in proportion to optical density, mutant. This was not observed in the $\Delta oxyR$ strain containing the empty pFPV25::prtx2 reporter plasmid, after treatment with H₂O₂ or paraquat. This data also indicates that OxyR does bind to the operator region of the *rtx1/rtx2/rcsD/rcsB* operon.

We also monitored OxyR-dependent induction of gene expression of genes that are controlled by the Rcs phosphorelay following exposure to sub-lethal amounts of H_2O_2 using Nanostring probes designed for genes in the *rtx1/rtx2/rcsD/rcsB* operon, as well as certain possible transcriptional variants that can be detected with the Nanostring technology and methodology. Genes involved in EPS synthesis and flagellar activity were also targeted (Figure 3.4; Tables 3.3 and 3.4).

After sublethal exposure to H₂O₂, Wild type *P. stewartii* showed increased in induction of expression of *ahpC* that is not seen in the *oxyR* mutant (Figure 3.4A). This gene served as a control in the EMSA and DPI-ELISA experiments, as well as in previous publications from the Roper Lab (Burbank, and Roper, 2014). Wild type P. stewartii also had an increase in induction of expression of wceG1, which encodes a undecaprenyl-phosphate UDP-galactose phosphotransferase required for capsule synthesis (Burbank and Roper, 2014; Kaszowska et al., 2021). This gene is a part of the wce-I gene cluster, one of three gene clusters used by P. stewartii for EPS synthesis (Carlier et al., 2009). The $\Delta oxyR$ mutant showed significant decreases in expression of *flhD* and *flhC* genes following hydrogen peroxide exposure as compared to the wild type. Both of these genes encode proteins that form a protein complex that forms a transcriptional activator of the flagellar regulon (Liu and Matsumura, 1994). Both strains of *P. stewartii* showed an increase in expression of *soxS* after non-lethal exposure to hydrogen peroxide. SoxS is important for protection against oxidative stress (Wang et al, 2020; Figure 3.4A).

Sub-lethal exposure to the ROS generator paraquat caused induction of the *rtx1*, *rtx2*, and *rcsD* genes, as well as *wzx2* and *wceo* in wild type *P. stewartii* (Figure 3.4B). The gene *wzx2* encodes a flippase, required for the translocation of lipid-linked repeating units across the inner membrane into the bacterial periplasm, while the *wceo* gene encodes a beta-1,6-glucosyltransferase, required for EPS synthesis (Carlier et al., 2009). Also both *wceG2* and *wceG1* showed increased induction of expression. Both of these genes encode a undecaprenyl-phosphate UDP-galactose phosphotransferase required for

capsule synthesis (Burbank and Roper, 2014; Kaszowska et al., 2021). The *rtx1* gene encodes a hypothetical protein, while *rcsD* encodes for a phoshotransferase and *rcsB* a cytoplasmic response regulator. Both products of the *rcsD* and *rcsB* genes are components of the Rcs phosphorelay (Burbank, 2014). The gene *rtx*2 encodes for a unique RTX-like protein (Roper et al., 2015; Viravathana Chapter 1)

Table 3.1. Bacterial Strains and Plasmids

Strain or Plasmid	Relevant Genotypes	Source
Pantoea stewartii subsp. stewartii		
DC283	Wild type, NaI ^r	Coplin et al. 1986
$\Delta rtx2$ (CR54)	NaI ^r , gene deletion of <i>rtx2</i>	Roper et al., 2015
$\Delta oxyR$ (LB003)	NaI ^{r} , deletion of <i>oxyR</i>	Burbank and Roper, 2014
Escherichia coli		
BL21(DE3)pLysS		Life Sciences, Inc.
S176	RP4, Mob+, Smr	Simon et al. 1983
Plasmids		
pFPV25	amp ^r	Valdivia and Falkow,1996
pFPV25::p <i>rtx</i>	amp ^r	This Study
pET101	amp ^r	Invitrogen

Table 3.2. Primers and Probes used in this study

Primer	Sequence	Source or Reference
oxyR D-topo fwd	CACCATGTTCAGATTCGTTACGCT	This Study
oxyR D-topo rev	AACCGCCTGTTTTAGCGTGG	This Study
ahpC promoter fwd	GTCCAGCTCAGCCACTAAA	This Study
ahpC promoter rev	GACATGTGATGGCCTCCTT	This Study
rtx1_prom-FP500	CGTAGATGGATTTTCGC	This Study
rtx1_prom-RP500	GCGAATCTAAAAACG	This Study
Probe	Sequence	Source or Reference
rtx1-R-Probe-22	AATTTCGGATTAATTAAAATTA	This Study
rtx1-R-Probe-C22	TAATTTTAATTAATCCGAAATT	This Study
ahpC-R-Probe-22	GGCCTCCTTTAAAATATGTGAT	This Study
ahpC-R-Probe-C22	ATCACATATTTTAAAGGAGGCC	This Study

Gene	Gene	Accesion	ASAP
Name	Product	Number	ID
			ACV-
rtx1	hypothetical protein	EHT99805.1	0291982
			ACV-
rtx2	large Repetitive Protein	EHT99806.1	0285925
	undecaprenyl-phosphate UDP-galactose		ACV-
wceG2(WbaP)	phosphotransferase	WP_006119430.1	0286879
			ACV-
wzx2	flippase	WP_006118652.1	0288192
			ACV-
wceo	beta-1,6-glucosyltransferase	WP_006118651.1	0288191
	undecaprenyl-phosphate UDP-galactose		ACV-
wceG1(WbaP)	phosphotransferase	WP_006119874.1	0289544
			ACV-
rcsD	phosphotransferase	WP_006120000.1	0285924
	DNA-binding response regulator in two-		ACV-
rcsB	component regulatory system with RcsC & YojN	Not Available	0285923
			ACV-
WZC	tyrosine-protein kinase	WP_006119870.1	0289539
	exopolysaccharide biosynthetic		ACV-
wceB	glycosyltransferase	Not Available	0289537
			ACV-
wzb	phosphotyrosine-protein phosphatase	Not Available	0289540
			ACV-
soxS	AraC family transcriptional regulator	EHT98349.1	0288908
			ACV-
wza	polysaccharide export protein	Not Available	0289541
			ACV-
IrhA	transcriptional regulator LrhA	Not Available	0285895
	DNA-binding transcriptional dual regulator with		ACV-
flhD	FINC	WP_006119910.1	0285679
	FAD/NAD(P)-binding alkyl hydroperoxide	No.4 Apro 11.1.1	ACV-
anpF	reductase, F52a subunit	Not Available	0289585
		EU1002121	ACV-
anpC	DNA his dis a transportational dual ram hittar it	EHU00213.1	0289380
fll C	DNA-binding transcriptional dual regulator with	Not Available	ACV-
jinc		INOL AVAIIADIE	0283078
an D	DNA gyroca gubunit P	WD 006121275 1	ACV-
gyn	Diversities Subulified (SDD) component	wP_0001213/3.1	0280312
ffl.	signal Recognition Farticle (SRF) component with 4.55 DNA (ffs)	EUT00250 1	ACV-
jjn	NAD(P) binding purroling 5 corboxulate	L111772JU.1	10271041
nroC	reductase	FHU02233 1	0287506
pioc	10000000	LIIU02233.1	0201390

Table 3.3. Nanostring® Probes used in this study

Table 3.4. Nanostring[®] Probes used in this study that target possible transcriptional variants of rtx1/rtx2/rcsD/rcsB operon

Gene	Gene	Accesion	ASAP
Name	Product	Number	ID
rtx2/rcsD	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
rcsD/rcsB	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available
rtx1/rtx2	Not Available	Not Available	Not Available

А

Probe: Predicted OxyR binding site, rtx1/rtx2/rcsB/rcsD operon



В

Probe: OxyR binding site, ahpC gene



Figure 3.1. OxyR binds to a double stranded DNA probe containing a predicted OxyR binding site upstream of *rtx1/rtx2/rcsD/rcsB* **operon**. Interaction of OxyR to a predicted OxyR binding site upstream of *rtx1/rtx2/rcsD/rcsB* operon is confirmed via Electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA). A) Bacterial crude extracts (CE) containing recombinant OxyR (WT-OxyR) decreased the distance traveled of dsDNA probe containing a predicted OxyR binding site upstream of the *rtx1/rtx2/rcsD/rcsB* operon as well as (B) the probe containing the OxyR binding site for the *ahpC* downstream control. See green arrows. Crude extracts containing recombinant OxyR with a mutated DNA binding site (Mut-OxyR) negated the decrease in the distance that both probes travelled.



Figure 3.2 DNA-Protein-Interaction (DPI)-ELISA detects significant presence of His-tagged recombinant OxyR in bacterial crude extracts. Bacterial crude extracts containing wild type, recombinant OxyR (WT OxyR CE) in wells coated with a 22 nucleotide, double stranded, biotinylated DNA containing either the predicted predicted OxyR binding site upstream of rtx1/rtx2/rcsD/rcsB operon (A) or the OxyR binding site upstream of rtx1/rtx2/rcsD/rcsB operon (A) or the OxyR binding site upstream of the gene *ahpC* (downstream control; B) were detected by His-tagged Antibody. There is a significant decrease in presence of His-tagged recombinant OxyR when a mutation is introduced in the DNA binding site (mutant OxyR CE). Results are based on 3 biological replicates, each with 3 technical replicates with 100 micrograms of bacterial crude extracts) was deducted from all readings before calculation. There was no significant difference between background absorbance and readings of bacterial crude extracts in wells that were not not coated with biotinylated, double stranded DNA (data not shown). Asterick denotes significance of p < 0.05 via t-test.

A



Figure 3.3. Reporter assays indicate that sublethal exposure of reaction oxygen species induces promotor activity via the transcription factor OxyR. Exposure to A) 10 μ M of hydrogen peroxide or B) 0.2 μ g/ml of the ROS generator paraquat demonstrates an increase in fluorescence in proportion to bacterial optical density in wild type *P. stewartii* containing the plasmid pFPV25::*prtx*. A significant increase in fluorescence in proportion to seen in the *P. stewartii* $\Delta oxyR$ containing the pFPV25::*rtx* plasmid. * indicates significance of p = 0.03 while ** indicates p = 0.001 via t-test Results are based on 3 biological replicates, each with 3 technical replicates.

	Strain	
Gene Name	Wild Type	ΔoxvR
rtx2/rcsD	-0.803	-1.07
rcsD/rcsB	0.0571	-0.227
rtx1	-0.689	0.338
tx2	-0.486	0.883
vceG2(WbaP)	-0.951	-0.561
tx1/rtx2	-0.54	0.28
vzx2	-0.916	-0.129
vceo	-0.953	-0.345
vceG1(WbaP)	1.64	-1.07
rcsD	-0.366	-0.3
csB	0.125	-0.132
vzc	-0.418	-0.185
vce B	0.0686	0.0568
vzb	-0.302	0.367
sox\$	2.98	2.63
wza	-0.448	-0.187
IrhA	0.452	-0.0896
1hD	-0.923	-1.19
ahp F	2.72	-0.0624
ahpC	2.49	0.417
flhĆ	-0.819	-0.89

Figure 3.4. Fold change gene expression in the rtx1/rtx2/rcsD/rcsB operon and biofilm related genes via OxyR after sublethal exposure to reactive oxygen species. A) Fold change in level of gene expression after sub-lethal exposure to $10 \mu M H_2O_2$ and B) Fold change in gene expression after sublethal exposure to $0.2 \mu g/ml$ of paraquat. Numbers denote log2 fold change comparing treated vs non-treated (Mock) bacteria cells, red color denotes no significant change in gene expression, while green color indicates significant fold change indicated by p < 0.05 via t-test by analysis with Nanostring nsolver 4.0 data analysis program.

А

Discussion

Bacterial protection against reactive oxygen species is vital for its survival. The highly unstable compounds that are Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) are a significant danger to cellular molecules. These compounds, such as hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), and superoxides (O_2^{-}) oxidize proteins, lipids, proteins, and DNA. The damage caused can lead to cell death. Bacterial species have evolved a variety of methodologies to protect themselves from this danger.

The transcription factor, OxyR, induces expression of genes required for protection against H₂O₂ and to maintain the proper redox state inside the bacterial cell (Tao et al., 1991; Green and Paget, 2004; Seo et al., 2015; Burbank and Roper, 2014). In the human pathogen *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, OxyR is vital in combating oxidative stress and in pathogenesis by enhancing fimbrial expression, mucosal colonization, and biofilm formation, allowing for gastrointestinal colonization. The deletion of *oxyR* resulted in higher sensitivity to bile and acid stresses (Hennequin and Forestier, 2009). However, in the soil dwelling gram negative bacterium *Acinetobacter oleivorans* DR1, and the obligate anaerobe, periodontal pathogen *Tannerella forsythia*, the deletion of *oxyR* increases EPS production (Jang et al., 2016; Shin et al., 2020, Honma et al., 2009) . The deletion of *oxyR* also decreases cell-cell aggregation in *T. forsythia* (Honma et al., 2009). A similar observation is seen in *Escherichia coli* where deletion of *oxyR* decreases the expression of the Antiaggregation Factor 43, leading to a decrease in clumping and fluffing of cells needed for biofilm formation (Schrembi et al, 2003). In *Pantoea stewartii*, the transcription factor OxyR not only confers resistance to oxidative stress, but is required for full EPS production (Burbank and Roper, 2014). Here, we have shown that OxyR also induces expression of the gene rcsD, which encodes a phosphotransferase that is a part of the Rcs phosphorelay, a high conserved signal transduction system that regulates EPS production. OxyR also induces expression of other components of that operon, particularly the gene rtx2. The rtx2 gene encodes a unique RTX-like protein required for the formation of water-soaked lesion formation and is vital for biofilm formation (Roper et al., 2015, Viravathana, Chapter 1 and 2).

One of the most important functions of the Rcs phosphorelay is to regulate the synthesis of exopolysaccharide (Majdalani and Gottesman, 2005). The terminal receiver of phosphate groups in this system: the cytoplasmic response regulator RcsB forms a heterodimer with the auxillary response regulator RcsA to induce expression of genes vital for EPS synthesis (Pristovsek et al., 2003).

Exopolysaccharide synthesis is a highly regulated and resource intensive process. Even subtle differences in the environment can lead to unwanted changes in these processes. *In-vitro*, wild type *P. stewartii* produces excess EPS, which may prevent and mask cell to cell and adhesion interactions (Koutsoudis, et al., 2006). Further regulation of the Rcs phosphorelay is thru the repression of *rcsA* by the EsaI/EsaR quorum sensing system. Only after a significant cell density is established, then will concentrations of EsaI be high enough to hinder EsaR repression of the induction of expression of *rcsA* (Von Bodman et al. 1998; Minogue et al., 2005). This coordinated regulation between the

Rcs phoshorelay and the EsaI/EsaR quorum sensing system allows for EPS synthesis to proceed only at the most proper time in biofilm formation.

Here I have shown that *in-vitro*, induction of gene expression of portion(s) of the *rtx1/rtx2/rcsD/rcsB* operon are dependent on transcription factor OxyR, after the sublethal exposure of Reactive Oxygen Species. Overall, published information on what induces expression of genes of the components of the Rcs phoshphorelay remains limited. In *Salmonella*, increased expression of *rcsB*, negatively impacts expression of *rcsD*. Also, while *rcsD* and *rcsB* are located in their own operon, the differental expression of *rcsD* and *rcsB* is due to the regulation of two different promoters of two promoters for *rcsB* (Pescaretti et al., 2010).

Genome organization of major components of the Rcs phosphorelay is mostly conserved among members of the family Enterobacteriaceae. In order, genes *rcsD* and *rcsB* are adjacent, with *rcsC* downstream in the opposite orientation (Dehal, et al. 2009). There is a nonconical and unique arrangement to certain genes of the Rcs phosphorelay in *Pantoea stewartii*: the *rcsD* and *rcsB* genes are found in an operon with two genes that encode rtx-like toxins.

This distinct arrangement of the Rcs phosphorelay, as well as the presence of the the two genes that encode rtx-like toxins in the same operon can provide the unique opportunity to study the functions of the Rcs phosphorelay that can be applied to other members of the Family Enterobacteraicee. Additional experiments to determine the true correlation between OxyR, RTX2 and exopolysaccharide production, as well as the identification of transcript variants of the rtx1/rtx2/rcsD/rcsB operon are vital to decipher

the relationship between these two vital proteins in the infection process of *P. stewartii* to corn seedlings.

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Appendix

Supplementary Experiments for Research Chapters

Introduction

This section contains supplementary experiments that were part of Chapters 2 and 3.

Materials and Methods

Note: Portion(s) of this section are the same as in Chapters 2 and 3 of this document.

Polymyxin B Challenges in Supplemented AB Medium. Growth Inhibition. Single colonies of wild type, and $\Delta rtx2$, P. stewartii were grown overnight in AB medium (Clark and Maaloe, 1967) supplemented with 0.2% glucose and 0.05% yeast extract. The following day, cultures were diluted 1/20 and inoculated into fresh AB medium supplemented with 0.2% glucose and 0.05% yeast extract in 96-well U-bottom microplates (Mfg. Falcon, Ref #353077) to a final volume of 150 µl. Cells were treated with final concentrations of Polymyxin B ($0 \mu g/ml$, 6.25 $\mu g/ml$, 12.5 $\mu g/ml$, and 25 μ g/ml). Growth was assessed in a Tecan Infinite F200 microplate reader using an absorbance reading of OD_{595nm}. Measurements were taken every hour for 23 hours at room temperature, with 30 seconds of orbital shaking with an amplitude of 6 mm prior to each reading. Growth curve readings are based on 3 biological replicates, each containing 3 technical replicates. To evaluate overall survival, Δrtx^2 and wild type cells that were challenged with polymyxin B as described above were serially diluted with 1X phosphate buffered saline (PBS, pH7.4), plated onto nutrient agar with nalidixic acid (final concentration: 30 µg/ml), and incubated at 28°C for 2 days. The same concentrations of polymyxin B were used as for the growth curve (0, 25, 12.5, and $6.25 \mu g/ml$). Percent

survival was determined by dividing viable cell counts of antibiotic challenged bacteria by mock (negative control) viable cell counts. Results are based on 3 biological replicates, each containing 3 technical replicates.

Surface Adhesion Assays with Poly-Lysine Coated Plates. Adhesion assays were based on Koutsoudis et al., 2006 and Theunissen et al. 2010. In brief, single colonies of wild type, $\Delta rtx2$, $\Delta wceo$, and $\Delta wceo/\Delta rtx2$ were grown at 30°C in LB broth supplemented with 0.2% glucose at 180 rpm. Overnight cultures were all adjusted to $OD_{600} = 0.5$, then diluted 1/10 in fresh LB broth supplemented with 0.2% glucose and inoculated into a 96-well, Poly-L-Lysine-coated Microplate (Corning; Ref #354516) to a final volume of 150 μ l per well. Cells were incubated statically at 28°C for 2 hours. Planktonic cells and culture medium were removed and remaining surface-attached cells were adhered by incubation at 37° C for 60 minutes. 200 µl of a 1% crystal violet solution (solution dissolved in water and filtered through a 0.2-micron filter) was then added to each well and the plates were incubated at room temperature for an hour. The crystal violet solution was removed and each well was then washed three times with sterile water and dried overnight. The crystal violet was then solubilized by adding 200 μ l of a 30% Acetic Acid solution per well, followed by a 1 hour shaking period. Absorbance reading were taken at OD595nm in a Tecan Infinite F200 microplate reader. The Adhesion value or Specific Biofilm formation (SBF): growth normalized biofilm accumulation was calculated as follows: (OD595CV-media value)/(OD595Cell growth-media value; Niu and Gilbert, 2004). Results are based on 5 biological replicates, each containing no less than 5 technical replicates.

Quantification of Gene Expression After Sub-lethal ROS Treatment. Exposure to ROS performed as previously described (Burbank and Roper, 2014) with the following modifications: cells were grown in Luria Broth with 0.2% glucose. For challenge against ROS species, cells were incubated with 0.2 μ g/ml paraquat (final concentration) for 15 minutes, or 10 μ M H₂O₂ (final concentration) for 5 minutes. Differentiation of gene expression was determined by TaqMan quantitative (q) PCR assays. Primers and probes for TaqMan qPCR were designed and optimized using Beacon design software (Mfg. Premier Biosoft). Two reference genes, *ffh* (GenBank accession number EHT99250) and *proC* (GenBank accession number EHU02233) were used for normalization of gene expression (Burbank and Roper, 2014; Takle et al. 2007). Analysis of qPCR data was performed by CFX Manager software (Biorad Laboratories) and expressed as change in fold gene expression compared with untreated (mock) controls. Results are based on 3 biological replicates, each with 3 technical replicates.

Results

Polymyxin Challenge in AB Medium Showed No Difference Versus use of Luria

Broth With 0.2% Glucose. Growth curves challenged against varying concentration of the antibiotic Polymxyin B of A) wild type *P. stewartii* and B) $\Delta rtx2$ mutant as well as End Point Plate Counts demonstrated that the deletion of $\Delta rtx2$ compromises membrane integrity when compared to the wild type under all concentrations tested (Figure A.1A, A.1B, and A.1C).

Surface Adhesion in Poly-Lysine Coated Plates is Impacted by the Deletion of *rtx2* in a Non-EPS Producing Background. RTX2 is a large (249.8 kDa) protein containing 5 putative Ca²⁺-binding domains similar to serralysin, from *Serratia marcescens* and a hemolysin-like protein from *Desulfovibrio vulgaris*. It also has 5 predicted transmembrane domains in the C-terminus, and large repetitive adhesin motifs homologous to hemagglutinins and to the BAP subfamily of RTX proteins implicated in promoting bacterial-host adhesion during biofilm formation (Roper et al., 2015). In a wild type (EPS-producing background), there was no significant difference between wild type and the $\Delta rtx2$ in adhesion in proportion to optical density growth (Absorbance value). However, in a non-EPS producing genetic background ($\Delta wceo$), deletion of *rtx2* ($\Delta wceo/\Delta rtx2$) reduces surface adhesion compared to the wild type ($\Delta wceo$). The non-EPS producing wild type ($\Delta wceo$) had a higher adhesion value than all other tested strains (Figure A.2), similar to what is seen with the use of acetone treated, non-coated, polystyrene microplates (Viravathana, Chapter 2)

In Vitro Induction of *rcsD* is OxyR-Dependent. Using TaqMan® based qPCR, there was only a significant increase in the induction of gene expression for *rcsD* in wild type *P. stewartii* and not in the Δ oxyR mutant when grown in Luria Broth with 0.2% glucose, after sub-lethal expsoure to 10 µM of hydrogen peroxide for 5 minutes (Figure A.3). However, both *rcsB* and *rcsD* demonstrated higher levels of expression in wild type *P. stewartii* versus Δ oxyR when exposed to 0.2 µg/ml of paraquat for 15 minutes, when also grown in Luria broth with 0.2% glucose (Figure A.4).

Table A.1 Primers and Probes used in this study

Primer	Sequence	Source or Reference
rcsD RT FP2	CCTTGAGACAACCCAGGTTTCG	This study
rcsD RT RP2	CGAGCAGCAGGCGAACAAG	This study
rcsB RT FP	GAAGGTATCGTTCTGAAGCAAGG	This study
rcsB RT RP	GACGTAATACTTCGCTCTCTTTAGG	This study
proC RT FP2	CTCGGTCACGCCCAATGC	This study
proC RT RP2	CATGGCTTCAATGAACATAAACACG	This study
ffh RT FP2	AACTGGTTGCGGCGATGG	This study
ffh RT RP2	CTTACCCACACTGGTGGTTTTAC	This study
Probe	Sequence	Source or Reference
rcsD	CCACGACATTGAGATAGCCGCAGCC	This study
rcsB	ACGCTTATCGCCATAACCGCCG	This study
proC	TGCCGAACCACTCACGCCTACCACG	This study
ffh	CCGCCATCAGCACGACAGCCG	This study





Δrtx2, 6.25 µg/ml

20.00%

0.00%



Figure A.2. Deletion of *rtx2* **decreases surface adhesion** *in vitro***.** Surface Adhesion Crystal Violet Assays with poly-L-lysine coated microplates showed that the deletion of *rtx2* reduces surface adhesion in a non-EPS producing ($\Delta wceo$) genetic background. Adhesion value or Specific Biofilm formation (SBF) is: growth normalized biofilm accumulation was calculated as follows: (OD595CV-media value)/(OD595Cell growthmedia value)(Niu and Gilbert, 2004). * indicates statistically different results based on a Linear Regression Model (p < 0.01). Results are based on 5 biological replicates, each with no less than 5 technical replicates.



Figure A.3. Expression of *rcsD* is induced by H₂O₂.Exposure to 10μ M H₂O₂ for 5 minutes. Only wild type *P. stewartii* had increased *rcsD* expression after 5 minutes. *P. stewartii* was grown in Luria broth with 0.2% glucose. Asterisk symbolize treatments that are statistically different at P≤0.05 by t-test.



Figure A.4. ROS induces expression of components of the Rcs phosphorelay.

Induction of expression of *rcsB* and *rcsD* when exposed to 0.2 µg/ml of paraquat for 15 minutes, wild type *P. stewartii* showed significant induction of gene expression of these two genes compared to $\Delta oxyR$ after exposure for 15 minutes. The gene *rcsD* encodes the phosphotransfer receptor RcsD, while *rcsB* encodes for the terminal response regulator RcsB. Asterisk symbolize treatments that are statistically different at P \leq 0.05 by t-test. *P. stewartii* was grown in Luria broth with 0.2% glucose.

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