| 1  | Pectin induced colony expansion of soil-derived Flavobacterium strains  |
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| 3  | Judith Kraut-Cohen <sup>a</sup> , Orr H.Shapiro <sup>b</sup> , Barak Dror <sup>ac</sup> Eddie Cytryn <sup>a</sup> |
| 4  |   |
| 5  | <sup>a</sup> Institute of Soil, Water and Environmental Sciences, Agricultural Research                           |
| 6  | Organization, Volcani Center, P.O Box 15159, Rishon LeZion 7505101, Israel  |
| 7  | <sup>b</sup> Institute of Postharvest and Food Sciences, Agricultural Research Organization,                      |
| 8  | Volcani Center, P.O Box 15159, Rishon LeZion 7505101, Israel  |
| 9  | <sup>c</sup> Department of Plant Pathology and Microbiology, The R.H. Smith Faculty of                            |
| 10 | Agriculture, Food and Environment, The Hebrew University of Jerusalem, Rehovot,                                   |
| 11 | Israel  |
| 12 |   |
| 13 | Running title: Pectin induces Flavobacteria colony expansion  |
| 14 | #Address correspondence to Eddie Cytryn, eddie@volcani.agri.gov.il.   |
| 15 | *Present address: Agricultural Research Organization - the Volcani Center,  |
| 16 | 68 HaMaccabim Road, P.O.B 15159 Rishon LeZion 7505101, Israel.  |
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# 28 **Contribution to the field statement**

Members of the *Flavobacterium* genus are frequently rhizosphere competent, *i.e.* abundant and generally enriched on root surfaces relative to surrounding bulk soil, and previous studies suggest that they may play a role in plant health and ecosystem functioning. However, little is known about genetic and physiological factors that facilitate flavobacterial colonization and proliferation in this highly competitive environment.

In this study we found that pectin stimulates flavobacterial colonies in a bi-phasic manner, initially characterized by rapid expansion on agar followed by increased biomass production. This appears to be linked to pectin-stimulated induction of specific TonB-associated proteins evidentially involved in the binding and uptake of complex sugars. Given the fact that pectin and other glycans are a primary component of plant cell walls, we hypothesize that these mechanisms are at least partially responsible for the rhizosphere competence of flavobacteria.

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## 54 Abstract

The genus *Flavobacterium* is characterized by the capacity to metabolize complex 55 organic compounds and a unique gliding motility mechanism. They are often abundant 56 in root microbiomes of various plants, but the factors contributing to this high 57 abundance are currently unknown. In this study, we evaluated the effect of various 58 plant-associated poly- and mono-saccharides on colony expansion of two 59 Flavobacterium strains. Both strains were able to spread on pectin and other 60 polysaccharides such as microcrystalline cellulose. However, only pectin (but not 61 pectin monomers), a component of plant cell walls, enhanced colony expansion on solid 62 surfaces in a dose- and substrate-dependent manner. On pectin, flavobacteria exhibited 63 bi-phasic motility, with an initial phase of rapid expansion, followed by growth within 64 the colonized area. Proteomic and gene expression analyses revealed significant 65 induction of carbohydrate metabolism related proteins when flavobacteria were grown 66 on pectin, including selected SusC/D, TonB-dependent glycan transport operons. Our 67 results show a positive correlation between colony expansion and the upregulation of 68 proteins involved in sugar uptake, suggesting an unknown linkage between specific 69 70 operons encoding for glycan uptake and metabolism and flavobacterial expansion. Furthermore, within the context of flavobacterial-plant interactions, they suggest that 71 72 pectin may facilitate flavobacterial expansion on plant surfaces in addition to serving as an essential carbon source. 73

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| 75  | <b>Keywords:</b> | Flavobacterium,      | colonv ex | pansion. Pectin    | . TonB.          | polysaccharides  |
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## 83 Introduction

The complex interactions between plant-associated microorganisms and their hosts 84 (collectively referred to as the "plant holobiont") are crucial for plant health and growth 85 (Berendsen et al., 2012; Bulgarelli et al., 2013; Reinhold-Hurek et al., 2015). Plants 86 modulate their rhizospheres, by exuding various small molecular weight compounds 87 (rhizodeposits) such as sugars, amino acids and organic acids, by rhizodepositing root 88 cap border cells, and by releasing various mono- and poly-saccharides in their mucilage 89 (Dennis et al., 2010; Barret et al., 2011; Beauregard et al., 2013; Reinhold-Hurek et al., 90 2015; Massalha et al., 2017; Sasse et al., 2018). Collectively, these rhizodeposits, create 91 a nutrient rich environment relative to the surrounding bulk soil, which facilitates 92 colonization by soil microorganisms. Root colonizing bacteria can outcompete other 93 soil bacteria by a combination of specific traits collectively coined "rhizosphere 94 competence", which include: motility, resistance to stress, ability to utilize plant-95 derived organic compounds, chemotaxis, and the production of secondary metabolites 96 (Barret et al., 2011). Some earlier studies demonstrated that root-associated 97 (rhizoplane) bacteria are attracted to the roots by plant-exuded organic acids such as 98 99 malic, citric or fumaric acid and various amino acids (Rudrappa et al., 2008; Williams et al., 2008; Oku et al., 2012; Webb et al., 2017; Feng et al., 2019). Many of these 100 101 sensed chemo-attractants, can also be consumed by the bacteria (Cremer et al., 2019). Although root recruitment and colonization mechanisms of certain plant-growth-102 promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR) have been identified and characterized (Lugtenberg 103 and Dekkers, 1999; Yan et al., 2008; Pieterse et al., 2014), those responsible for 104 recruitment of the vast majority of rhizoplane bacteria are currently an enigma. 105

Flavobacterium is a Gram-negative genus of bacteria from the phylum Bacteroidetes 106 known to degrade complex organic compounds in freshwater, marine and soil 107 environments (Kolton et al., 2013; McBride et al., 2014). It is highly abundant in the 108 rhizoplane of a wide array of plants, in contrast to considerably lower abundance in the 109 rhizosphere and bulk soil (Johansen et al., 2002; Janssen, 2006; Manter et al., 2010; 110 Kolton et al., 2011, 2013; Lundberg et al., 2012; Bodenhausen et al., 2013; Bulgarelli 111 et al., 2015). Several root- and soil-derived flavobacteria were found to antagonize 112 various plant pathogens in different crops (Gunasinghe et al., 2004; Sang and Kim, 113 2012; Kolton et al., 2014a; Xue et al., 2015; Kwak et al., 2018), and recently it was 114 discovered that endophytic *Flavobacterium* strains play a fundamental role in 115

antagonizing phytopathogenic fungi, through specific secondary metabolites (Carrión et al., 2019). Furthermore, a recent study that applied bacterial network analysis
indicated that Flavobacteria are potential drivers of pathogen suppression in root ecosystems (Wei et al., 2019). In addition, selected members of this genus have been characterized as plant growth promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR) of various crops (Hebbar et al., 1991; Alexander and Stewart, 2001; Gunasinghe et al., 2004; Manter et al., 2010; Sang et al., 2011; Sang and Kim, 2012).

Soil flavobacteria have specialized ability to decompose complex plant derived 123 polysaccharides, such as pectin and glucomannan and the ability to secret various 124 carbohydrate-active enzymes via the Bacteroidetes -specific type IX secretion system 125 (T9SS) (McBride et al., 2009; Kolton et al., 2013; Kharade and McBride, 2015; 126 McBride and Nakane, 2015; Lauber et al., 2018). Like other Bacteroidetes, they contain 127 128 a myriad of genes that encode Polysaccharide Utilization Loci (PULs) that are activated 129 specifically to facilitate glycan capture and sugar uptake (Martens et al., 2009; Jiménez et al., 2015; Foley et al., 2016). These PULs include outer membrane protein 130 transducers involved in polysaccharide utilization, which are part of the TonB family, 131 generally referred to as Starch Utilization System (SUS) proteins. Interestingly, 132 comparative genomics revealed that genomes of soil and root-associated flavobacterial 133 strains are significantly enriched with genes associated with plant polysaccharide 134 degradation relative to aquatic strains from this genus, indicating that physiology of this 135 genus is strongly influenced by its ecology (Kolton et al., 2013). 136

Most terrestrial *Flavobacterium* strains possess a unique gliding mechanism that 137 rapidly propels them over solid and semi-solid surfaces. The proteins that comprise this 138 gliding system are molecularly intertwined with at least fifteen proteins that make up 139 the T9SS, seven of whom are responsible for the secretion of SprB and RemA adhesins 140 which are expressed on the cell surface and involved in gliding (Shrivastava et al., 2013; 141 Johnston et al., 2018). We previously demonstrated that this T9SS-gliding complex is 142 crucial for root colonization by flavobacteria, and this colonization was positively 143 144 linked to the induction of plant resistance to foliar pathogens (Kolton et al., 2014a).

Collectively, the above studies strongly suggest that terrestrial flavobacterial strains have evolved means that enable them to interact with plant roots, and that these interactions are beneficial to plant health. Nonetheless, the specific mechanisms behind this phenomenon are currently unclear. In this study, we assessed the impact of an array

of plant cell wall-derived substrates on the motility and growth dynamics of flavobacteria by coupling conventional petri dish assays and live-imaging fluorescent microscopy with proteomic and gene expression analyses. We demonstrate that pectin, a plant cell wall-associated polysaccharide, facilitates bi-phasic proliferation over solid surfaces through induction of specific TonB-associated glycan uptake operons. These results suggests that the link between pectin, motility and carbohydrate metabolism may be fundamental to rhizosphere competence in flavobacteria.

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## 157 Materials and methods

## **Bacterial Strains and growth conditions**

Flavobacterial strains targeted in this study included F. johnsoniae strain UW101 159 (ATCC17061), a gliding/secretion impaired ( $\Delta gldJ$ ) F. johnsoniae strain 160 UW101(Braun and McBride, 2005), Flavobacterium sp. F52, isolated from the roots of 161 a greenhouse pepper (Sela et al., 2012; Kolton et al., 2014b), and a gliding/secretion 162 impaired ( $\Delta gldJ$ ) Flavobacterium sp. F52 strain (Kolton et al., 2014b). For live imaging 163 microscopy (see below) the fluorescent strain F. johnsoniae UW101 WT+pAS43 164 (Flavo GFP) Flavo-ErytRFlavo-CefR, and the gliding/secretion impaired F. johnsoniae 165 UW102-48 (\Delta gldJ)+pAS43 (Flavo GFP) Flavo-ErytR Flavo-CefR were used (Mcbride 166 and Baker, 1996; Staroscik et al., 2008). Erythromycin, 100 ug/ml was added to the 167 media of the GFP labeled bacteria. 168

Flavobacteria strains were grown in CYE medium (Casitone, 10 mg/ml, yeast extract at 5mg/ml, and 8 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub> in 10 mM Tris buffer [pH 7.6]) at 30°C, as previously described (Mcbride and Baker, 1996). To observe colony-spreading, bacteria were grown on PY2 agar medium (2 g peptone, 0.5 g yeast extract, 10 mg/ml agar, pH 7.3) at 30°C (Agarwal S. et al., 2001).

#### 174 Organic amendments to growth media

175 A suite of mono- and polysaccharides were amended to growth media in various 176 configurations (as described below), to evaluate colony spreading dynamics of the 177 selected flavobacterial strains. The following substances were used in this study: pectin 178 (Sigma P9135), D(+)glucose (Fischer scientific 10373242), microcrystalline cellulose 179 (M.cellulose- partially depolymerized cellulose synthesized from an  $\alpha$ -cellulose

precursor, Merck 102331), D(-)arbinose (Acros 161451000), glucomannan (Megazyme 180 P-GLCML), , L-rhamnose (Sigma 83650) and D(+)-galacturonic acid monohydrate 181 (Sigma 48280-5G-F), Polyethylene Glycol (PEG) 8000 (Amresco 0159). All 182 substances were dissolved and suspended to 2% final concentration in double distilled 183 water (DDW), unless indicated otherwise. Glucose, arabinose, rhamnose and 184 galacturonic acid (titrated to pH 7) were dissolved and filtered through a 0.22-micron 185 filter. Pectin was dissolved in DDW heated at 80°C, and subsequently filtered through 186 0.45-micron filters. M.cellulose, and glucomannan were mixed with DDW heated to 187 50°C and then autoclaved for 20 min. 188

#### 189 Flavobacterial growth on various plant-derived poly- and mono- saccharides

The selected plant-derived poly- and mono- saccharides were amended to the PY2 agar 190 plates in two manners: (i) to test the effect of specific carbon sources on the directional 191 proliferation of flavobacteria, 10 µl of the selected compounds were thinly applied 192 along a line projecting outward from the center of the petri dish using a pipetor (FigS1); 193 (ii) to test the effect of specific carbon sources on the general proliferation of 194 flavobacteria, 500µl from each 2% sugar solution were uniformly smeared over the 195 entire petri dish (Fig1A, C, Fig2A). Non-soluble substances such as M.cellulose were 196 vigorously vortexed and dispensed using a cut tip. Where two sugars were used (*i.e.* 197 rhamnose+ galacturonic acid) we added 250µl of each. In all cases, plates were left to 198 dry overnight after adding organic amendments. Flavobacteria were incubated on CYE 199 media overnight, colonies were harvested and subsequently diluted in 200ul saline to 200 0.6-1 OD ( $5 \times 10^9$ -1.12  $\times 10^{10}$  cells), vortexed well, and 2ul were spotted in the center of 201 PY2 agar covered or streaked with the selected plant-derived poly- and mono-202 saccharides as indicated above. Plates were left to dry for 15min and then incubated for 203 48 hours at 30°C. The colony area or the length of expansion (in cm) were measured 204 using Fiji (Schindelin et al., 2012) and statistics was calculated using JMP®, 205 Version Pro 14 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, 1989-2019). Differences between 206 length/area were considered as significantly different when p<0.05 in Tukey HSD test 207 208 unless indicated differently.

### 209 Live Imaging Fluorescent Microscopy Experiments

To visualize the effect of different mono- and polysaccharides on *F. johnsoniae* colony
expansion, we filled the wells of a 24 well plate with 500µl of PY2 agar. Subsequently,

10ul of the mono- and polysaccharides (2%) or the control (DDW) were gently applied 212 to the wells in triplicates, plates were rotated for 1hour and dried overnight at room 213 temperature. A 30G needle (KDL 16-0310) was used to seed the bacteria in the center 214 of each well by punching an agar plate with a 24hr grown colony. Microscopic imaging 215 was performed using a NIKON eclipse Ti microscope (Nikon, Japan) equipped with a 216 ProScan motorized XY stage, an HF110A system (enabling rapid switching of emission 217 filters)(Prior Scientific, MA, USA) and a temperature-controlled stage incubator (on 218 25°C) (LAUDA ECO RE 415, Korea). Bright field illumination was provided by a cool 219 220 LED pE-100A (Cool LED, UK). Excitation light for epifluorescence microscopy was provided by a Spectra X light engine (Lumencor, USA). Imaging was performed using 221 a long working distance 40X objective (NA 0.6) (Nikon, Japan). Images were captured 222 at 2 hr intervals for 44 hr using an ANDOR zyla 5.5 MP sCMOS camera (Oxford 223 Instruments, UK). 224

225 Images were processed using the NIS elements AR 4.6 (64 bit) software package (Nikon, Japan) and Fiji (Schindelin et al., 2012). Fluorescence level was normalized to 226 the initial measured value (to avoid differences in the initial number of seeded bacteria) 227 and to the maximal fluorescence on PY2 media amended with DDW (to reduce 228 variability of GFP fluorescence levels between movies). The population growth 229 dynamic of GFP- F. johnsoniae on each substance computed using Fiji's time series 230 analyzer plugin, and average fluorescence density profiles of the expanding population 231 over time was quantified using JMP<sup>®</sup>, Version Pro 14. (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, 232 1989-2019). 233

## 234 **Proteomic Sample preparation**

Wild type *F. johnsoniae*, was grown on PY2 agar plates smeared either with 500µl of

236 2% pectin or with DDW, in triplicates. After 48hr, bacteria were scraped from plates

in 1ml of 4°C PBS and centrifuged for 10 min, 4500rpm in 4°C. Supernatant was

238 discarded and bacterial pellets were processed.

239 Samples were subjected to in-solution tryptic digestion using a modified Filter Aided

240 Sample Preparation protocol (FASP). Sodium dodecyl sulfate buffer (SDS) included:

241 4% (w/v) SDS, 100mM Tris/HCl pH 7.6, 0.1M DTT. Urea buffer (UB): 8 M urea

242 (Sigma, U5128) in 0.1 M Tris/HCl pH 8.0 and 50mM Ammonium Bicarbonate.

243 Bacterial cell pellets were lysed in SDS buffer. Lysate was centrifuged at 16,000 g for

10min. 50 ug total protein were mixed with 2 mL UB, loaded onto 30 kDa molecular 244 weight cutoff filters (Sartorius VS15RH22) and centrifuged. 1.5 ml of UB were added 245 to the filter unit, and centrifuged at 14,000 g for 40 min. Proteins were alkylated using 246 iodoacetamide (10 mM final concentration) and washed twice with Ammonium 247 Bicarbonate. Trypsin was then added (50:1 protein amount:trypsin) and samples 248 incubated at 37°C overnight, followed by a second trypsin digestion for 4 hours at 37°C. 249 Digested peptides were then collected in a clean tube by centrifugation, acidified with 250 trifloroacetic acid, desalted using HBL Oasis (Waters 094225), speed vacuumed to 251 252 dryness and stored in -80°C until analysis. All chemicals used were from Sigma Aldrich, unless stated otherwise. Sample preparation and initial statistical analysis was 253 performed at the Nancy and Stephen Grand Israel National Center for Personalized 254 Medicine, The Weizmann Institute of Science, Rehovot, Israel. 255

#### 256 Liquid chromatography and proteomics analysis

Each sample was loaded and analyzed using split-less nano-Ultra Performance Liquid 257 Chromatography (10 kpsi nanoAcquity; Waters, Milford, MA, USA). The mobile phase 258 was: A)  $H_2O + 0.1\%$  formic acid and B) acetonitrile + 0.1% formic acid. Desalting of 259 the samples was performed online using a Symmetry C18 reversed-phase trapping 260 column (180 µm internal diameter, 20 mm length, 5 µm particle size; Waters). The 261 262 peptides were then separated using a T3 HSS nano-column (75 µm internal diameter, 250 mm length, 1.8 µm particle size; Waters) at 0.35 µL/min. Peptides were eluted from 263 the column into the mass spectrometer using the following gradient: 4% to 20%B in 264 155 min, 20% to 90% B in 5 min, maintained at 90% for 5 min and then back to initial 265 conditions. ULC/MS grade solvents were used for all chromatographic steps. Each 266 sample was analyzed on the instrument separately in a random order in discovery mode. 267 Raw data was searched against the F. johnsoniae protein databases, to which a list of 268 common lab contaminants was added. Database search was done using the Mascot 269 algorithm, and quantitative analysis was performed using the Expressionist software 270 from GeneData. A student's t-test based on log-transformed intensity values was 271 272 performed determine significant differences in protein expression between colonies grown with and without pectin. As a rule of thumb we consider significant differences 273 to be >1 peptide per protein, fold change >2 or <0.5, and <0.05 p-value. Proteins were 274 functionally annotated using RAST (Rapid Annotations using Subsystems Technology) 275 (Overbeek et al., 2014). 276

Twenty-five pectin-induced proteins were selected based on high fold change between
PY2 agar coated with pectin vs. PY2 agar coated with DDW and statistical significance
(proteins without annotation were removed from this analysis). Gene abundance across
the dataset was normalized to 100% for each gene, and a heatmap was created using

studio.plot.ly (https://plotly.com/).

The mass spectrometry proteomic data was deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium through the PRIDE partner repository (Perez-Riverol et al., 2019) under the dataset identifier PXD023649.

## 285 **RNA extraction**

To assess the expression of selected genes in the presence of pectin, total RNA was 286 extracted from F. johnsoniae cells grown for 48 hours at 30°C on PY2 plates covered 287 with 500µl of DDW or 2% pectin as described above. For each plate, bacteria were 288 suspended in 1 ml cold (4°C) PBS buffer, washed once in cold PBS, centrifuged for 289 2min at 18,000g, resuspended in TE buffer supplemented with 0.4mg/ml lysozyme and 290 291 then incubated for 10 min at room temperature. RNA was subsequently extracted from cells using the TRIzol reagent (TRIzol® InvitrogenTM, #15596026), following the 292 manufacturer's instructions. Residual DNA was removed from the RNA samples by 293 294 digesting with RQ1 DNAse (Promega M6101A) at 37°C for 40 min. For the real time experiments, cDNA was synthesized using 50ng of DNAse treated RNA, with 1ul of 295 296 random primers (Promega C118A). Synthesis of single strand cDNA was achieved using ImProm-IITM Reverse-Transcriptase (Promega, Madison, WI, United States). 297

The integrity and concentration of the extracted RNA and cDNA, was examined with a QubitTM 3.0 Fluorometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, United States) using reagents and protocols supplied by the manufacturer, and by electrophoresis of samples on a 0.8% agarose gel.

## 302 Quantitative PCR Assessment of Gene Expression Levels

The expression of 10 genes encoding for proteins found to be significantly induced on pectin in the proteomic analyses were analyzed using qPCR. Primers for qRT-PCR experiments (**Table S5**) were constructed based on the *F. johnsoniae* genome sequence and were pre-designed using the PrimerQuest® tool (Integrated DNA Technologies, USA). Triplicate cDNA samples for each of the treatments (with or without pectin) were diluted and 2ng was used in a 20  $\mu$ l final reaction volume together with 10ul Fast

SYBR<sup>TM</sup> green PCR master mix (Thermo Fisher scientific), 100 nM each of forward 309 and reverse primers, DDW and 1ul of template cDNA. Amplification was carried out 310 on a StepOnePlus real-time PCR thermocycler (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, 311 United States) using the following program: heat activation of DNA polymerase at 312 95°C for 3 min and 40 cycles at 95°C for 5 sec for denaturation and primer annealing 313 and extension at 60°C for 30 sec. A melting curve was produced to confirm a single 314 gene-specific peak and to detect primer-dimer formation by heating the samples from 315 60 to 95°C in 0.3°C increments. Gene amplification was confirmed by detection of a 316 317 single peak in the melting curve analysis. For each gene, PCR gene amplification was carried out using three independent biological replicates. Expression of each of the 318 targeted genes was normalized to that of three alternative housekeeping genes (16S 319 rRNA, DNA gyrase subunit B (gyrB, EC 5.99.1.3), and the electron transfer 320 flavoprotein, alpha subunit (ETF) threonine synthase (EC 4.2.3.1). These genes were 321 selected because there was no detected difference in their expression when grown on 322 PY2 media amended with pectin vs. DDW in the proteomic analysis. The relative 323 324 abundance of each target gene relative to a reference gene was determined according to the method described previously (Livak and Schmittgen2001). Concentrations and 325  $\Delta\Delta$ CT values were calculated and analyzed with the StepOne software v2.3 (Applied 326 Biosystems, Foster City, CA, United States). Concomitant "no-RT" reactions, 327 lacking reverse transcriptase, were performed for each sample and run to confirm 328 329 absence of DNA contamination, as well as no template controls (NTCs) to confirm lack of contamination. Reaction efficiency was monitored by means of an in internal 330 standard curve using a 10-fold dilution of DNA ranging from 0.01-10ng of DNA per 331 reaction, in triplicates. Efficiency was between 92.1 and 97.2% for all primers, and R2-332 values were greater than 0.99. Data analysis was conducted using the StepOne software 333 v2.3 (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, United States). 334

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## 336 **Results**

## 337 Growth of *Flavobacterium* strains on various carbon sources

We evaluated growth dynamics of flavobacteria on rich media (PY2 agar) coated with selected plant-derived poly- and mono- saccharides (**Fig1A**). Colony expansion of *F*.

*johnsoniae* on PY2 agar media coated with pectin was close to five times higher than

on the same media coated with other analyzed mono- and polysaccharides or with 341 DDW, (control) (p<0.05, Tukey-Kramer HSD test) (Fig1B). Wild type (WT) and 342 gliding/typeIX secretion system mutants ( $\Delta gldJ$ ) of F. johnsoniae and the pepper root 343 isolate Flavobacterium sp. F52 were inoculated in the center of PY2 agar media 344 amended with or without pectin (Fig1C). When grown on pectin, WT colonies of both 345 Flavobacterium strains significantly expanded after 48 hours of incubation, while 346 growth was reduced in the control without pectin (DDW). In contrast, gliding mutant 347  $(\Delta gldJ)$  colonies of both flavobacterial strains did not expand (Fig1C, D), indicating 348 349 that the gliding apparatus is a prerequisite for pectin-induced colony expansion.

#### 350 Dose-dependent pectin facilitated colony expansion

To determine whether expansion on pectin is dose dependent, *F. johnsoniae* and *Flavobacterium* sp.F52 strains were inoculated at the center of PY2 agar media plates streaked with pectin at final concentrations of 0.5, 1, 2 and 4%. For all the examined pectin concentrations colonies radiated along the pectin streaks, but expansion was more significant on 2% and 4% pectin (p<0.05,Tukey-Kramer HSD test) (**FigS1**).

Since galacturonic acid and rhamnose are the two major components of pectins, we examined the colony expansion of *F. johnsoniae* on PY2 agar coated with 2% titrated galacturonic acid, 2% rhamnose, a combination of galacturonic acid and rhamnose, 2% pectin and DDW. *F. johnsoniae* expansion on galacturonic acid, rhamnose (alone or combined) did not facilitate significant colony expansion (p<0.05,Tukey-Kramer HSD test) in contrast to colonies that were grown on pectin (**Fig2**).

#### **Temporal dynamics of pectin induced** *F. johnsoniae* colony expansion

The expansion of green fluorescent protein (GFP)-labeled *F. johnsoniae* on PY2 agar coated with glucose, M.cellulose, glucomannan, Peg8000, pectin or DDW (without sugar amendment), was visualized at a higher resolution using time-lapse microscopy. Colony morphology after 32 hours, on each tested substance is presented in **Fig3A**.

Growth dynamics were clearly affected by the sugar type. Expansion on pectin was characterized by a relatively long lag phase. However following this stage, colonies rapidly expanded and after 22 hours, the fluorescent signal of colonies grown on pectin surpassed both the control (without sugar amendment) and the glucose (according to Student T test test) and other amended compounds, after 36 hours. Plates coated with polyethylene glycol (PEG8000) served as an additional control to rule out

mechanosensitivity associated with substrate stiffness (Tchoufag et al., 2019), since its 373 viscosity is similar to that of pectin. Colony expansion on Peg8000 was similar to the 374 DDW control without amended sugars, suggesting that effects were specific to pectin. 375 Growth on pectin facilitated multiple ring-like microstructures that resemble previously 376 described "raft" structures (Gorski et al., 1993) (Fig3B, Supplementary movie S1). 377 Conversely, expansion of colonies on glucose did not display this bi-phasic expansion. 378 While bi-phasic growth was observed in all of the non-amended and amended plates, 379 this phenomenon was most pronounced in the pectin-amended plates (Supplementary 380 381 movie S1). Bacterial colonies grown on glucose expanded the least resulting in compact, small colonies with less ringed structures, suggesting that glucose has an 382 inhibitory effect on F. johnsoniae motility and possibly growth as was previously 383 demonstrated (Fig3C) (Wolkin and Pate, 1984; Imamura et al., 2018). The most 384 significant expansion observed between 6 to 20 hours was on M.cellulose, but the 385 colonies grown on glucomannan and pectin proliferated at later times, and the colonies 386 grown on pectin reached the greatest intensity at 44 hours (Fig3C), thereby surpassing 387 388 the colonies grown on other sugar sources (p<0.05,Tukey-Kramer HSD test). The high sensitivity of the fluorescence detection enabled us to visualize lateral colony expansion 389 390 on M.cellulose, which was less visible on agar plates (Fig1A, movie S1).

We further evaluated the pectin-induced bi-phasic expansion described above. An initial peak in fluorescence occurred at 20 hours, and a second peak at 36 hours (**Fig3D**). After 20 hours of growth, total fluorescence was highest in cells grown on pectin, glucomannan and M.cellulose, and lowest on glucose (p<0.05, Tukey-Kramer HSD test).

Next, we estimated the velocity of colony expansion on the selected mono- and 396 polysaccharides by measuring the time it took the colonies to cross three radials (3mm, 397 6mm and 9mm), and subsequently calculating the mean velocity from circle to circle 398 (Fig3E). In the first 1.5mm radius, the estimated colony expansion velocity was higher 399 in pectin and M.cellulose and similar on the rest of the substances. Between 1.5-3mm, 400 colony expansion on pectin and glucomannan increased. Colony expansion velocity in 401 the outer circle was similar for all substance except glucose, with pectin still exhibiting 402 the fastest expansion rates of all the tested mono- and polysaccharides although this 403 was not statistically significant (Fig3F). Thus, F. johnsoniae expanded faster on pectin 404 than on any of the other tested carbon sources (Fig3G). Collectively, we conclude that 405

the bi-phasic growth of *F. johnsoniae* is very prominent on pectin. In summary, after
an initial lag phase, *F. johnsoniae* is characterized by a rapid expansion phase, followed
by a slower growth phase where cells appear to spread less and gain biomass.

#### 409 Specific TonB/Sus transducers are expressed in response to growth on pectin

In order to gain greater insight into the molecular mechanisms associated with 410 flavobacterial colony expansion on pectin, we conducted a proteomic assay in which 411 we examined differential intracellular protein expression after 44 hr growth of F. 412 *johnsoniae* on PY2 agar coated with pectin relative to the same rich media coated with 413 DDW. Eighty-three proteins were more expressed on pectin, whereas forty-three were 414 415 more expressed on the DDW control (**Table S1A+B**). A substantial proportion of these proteins were unassigned, while a large fraction of the proteins (17%, 22% and 37% of 416 KEGG, SEED and EggNog annotations, respectively) were associated with 417 carbohydrate metabolism (FigS2A-C). Of the 25 most markedly pectin-induced 418 proteins identified, 13 were involved in polysaccharide uptake, processing and 419 metabolism, including four Sus C/D related proteins (Fig4A). Other pectin-induced 420 proteins included a novel transcriptional regulator (12-fold higher on pectin) and a 421 protein associated with auxin regulation (26-fold higher on pectin) (Table S1A+B). 422 Interestingly, none of the differentially synthesized proteins were gliding related (**Table** 423 424 **S2**).

Of the 44 previously-described SusC and 42 SusD homologues identified in the F. 425 johnsoniae genome (McBride et al., 2009), 27 SusC and 15 SusD proteins were detected 426 in the proteomic analysis, in addition to 610 proteins encoding flanking genes 427 surrounding these Sus proteins encoding genes that constitute PUL clusters seemingly 428 429 associated with glycan metabolism. Of these, three SusC and six SusD proteins along with 31 associated PUL genes encoding proteins (forming 4 gene clusters Table S3) 430 were significantly induced in response to growth on pectin in the proteomic analysis 431 (Table S4). 432

In order to validate the proteomic results, *F. johnsoniae* cells were again grown on PY2 agar coated with pectin or DDW as described in the proteomic analysis, and the expression of 8 genes (**Table S5**) were evaluated by quantitative real time PCR. Pectin did not induce expression of *remA* (WP\_012022896.1) encoding for an adhesion protein involved in gliding motility (not evaluated in the proteomic analysis since it's

an extra-membrane protein), indicating that synthesis of this protein is not enhanced on 438 pectin at the tested time point. Expression of genes encoding for the novel 439 transcriptional regulator (Trans. Regul WP 012022876.1), pectate lyase (Pec lyase 440 WP\_012026072.1), auxin-regulated putative annotated protein (Auxin 441 WP\_012023111.1) and tonB 2144 (WP\_012026069.1), were also not differentially 442 expressed on pectin-coated media despite the fact that they were significantly induced 443 on pectin in the proteomic analysis. Among the examined TonB/SusC related genes, 444 tonB 260 (WP\_012026229.1) and sus73 (SHH12854.1) were significantly upregulated 445 446 (60-100 fold, p<0.05 Tukey-Kramer HSD test) while TonB 445 (WP\_012022294.1) was substantially upregulated (10-20 fold) but not statistically significant (Fig4B). 447 tonB260 and sus73 are part of an 18-gene cluster, of which all of the encoded proteins 448 were upregulated in the presence of pectin in the proteomic analysis (cluster 1-Table 449 **S3**). Using two different prediction tools, the TonB260 and Sus73 encoding genes were 450 mapped to the same operon together with a gene encoding for the hydrolytic enzyme 451 polygalacturonase that cleaves the  $\alpha$  (1-4) bonds between adjacent galacturonic acids 452 453 within the homogalacturonic acid backbone of pectin (Table S6).

454

## 455 **Discussion**

## 456 **Pectin facilitates rapid spreading of flavobacteria**

Results from this study demonstrated that flavobacteria not only metabolize complex 457 plant cell wall-derived glycans but that these polysaccharides (particularly pectin) 458 facilitate rapid spreading of flavobacteria over solid surfaces, even when carbon was 459 not limited. Both the pattern and the extent of F. johnsoniae colony expansion was 460 dictated by the carbon source supplemented to the growth media. The expansion on rich 461 media coated with pectin and glucomannan was rapid, patchy, non-uniform and sparse 462 relative to colonies grown on rich media coated with glucose or DDW. On a 463 464 microscopic level, this rapid expansion was characterized by ring like micro-structures, resembling previously described rafts or dendrites (Gorski et al., 1993; Sato et al., 465 2021). While the connection between the carbon source and flavobacterial colony 466 expansion is not clear, the fact that we did not observe rapid expansion or raft-like 467 structures in flavobacteria grown on PEG8000, indicates that the phenomenon is 468

specifically attributed to the chemical attributes of pectin and not to physical properties(viscosity) of the growth medium.

While previous studies indicate that F. johnsoniae cannot utilize non-depolymerized 471 cellulose or M.cellulose a sole carbon source (McBride et al., 2009), we demonstrate 472 that colonies of F. johnsoniae did expand on rich (PY2) media amended with 473 M.cellulose in microplate experiments using fluorescent microscopy. It appears that the 474 bacteria propagated on the microcrystal surfaces without creating a dense colony 475 structure, suggesting that the bacterium glides along the fibers without actually 476 metabolizing them. In contrast to pectin, growth on glucose inhibited propagation of 477 flavobacteria as previously reported (Wolkin and Pate, 1984; Imamura et al., 2018). 478 Specifically, glucose was shown to inhibit colony spreading via MfsA which encodes 479 a major facilitator superfamily (MFS) transporter (Imamura et al., 2018), resulting in 480 absence of raft microstructures that are formed when grown on other carbon sources. 481 482 Nonetheless, glucose did not inhibit gliding motility in general (Wolkin and Pate, 1984; Gorski et al., 1993) and spreading on glucose was recently found to be in inverse 483 correlation to agar concentration and characterized by unique windmill-like structures 484 under media of specific glucose-agar levels (Sato et al., 2021) 485

#### 486 Pectin induces colony expansion and colonization of soil and root bacteria

Pectin, but not pectin monomers (D-galacturonic acid and L-rhamnose) significantly 487 facilitated colony expansion in a dose dependent manner. Rhizosphere and 488 phyllosphere associated flavobacterial genomes are genetically compatible for 489 metabolizing plant-associated polysaccharides. Specifically, their genome contains 490 many genes encoding glycohydrolases, polysaccharide lyases, and esterases and can 491 492 efficiently degrade complex biopolymers (McBride et al., 2009) and plant-associated flavobacterial genomes have an over-representation of genes involved in the 493 494 metabolism of pectin (Kolton et al., 2013). Beside the ability to degrade pectin and consume it, the reduced ability of flavobacteria colonies to spread on pectin monomers 495 (rhamnose or/and galacturonic acid) suggests that the original spatial organization of 496 plant cell wall components are important for recognition and expansion on it. Due to 497 the importance of pectin and other glucans in plant cell walls, we hypothesize that soil 498 and root-associated bacteria have devised different strategies to colonize it and use it as 499 500 a que for colonization and expansion on root surfaces.

For example, *Flexibacter* sp. FS-1 was not able to glide on agarose alone but did glide 501 on agarose amended with 1% pectin (Arlauskas and Burchard, 1982). Purified 502 Arabidopsis polysaccharides (arabinogalactan, pectin, or xylan) triggered biofilm 503 formation in B. subtilis when added to rich media and induced root colonization 504 (Beauregard et al., 2013). Similarly, addition of pectin and sucrose to the media of the 505 PGPR Bacillus amyloliquefaciens strain SQY 162, increased bacterial abundance, 506 induced biofilm formation and improved the ability of the amended bacterium to 507 suppress tobacco bacterial wilt disease (Wu et al., 2015). In the symbiotic nitrogen 508 509 fixing bacterium Rhizobium leguminosarum, glucomannan-mediated attachment was important for legume infection and nodulation (Williams et al., 2008). 510

#### 511 **Growth on Pectin is bi phasic**

Live-imaging fluorescent microscopy revealed that F. johnsoniae growth on PY2 media 512 coated with different mono- and polysaccharides was bi-phasic in nature, with an initial 513 phase of rapid expansion, followed by biomass production within the colonized area. 514 This bi-phasic growth pattern, which was most pronounced on pectin, resembles 515 previously described models in motile E. coli, which depicted an initial expansion 516 phase, where "pioneer" bacteria with high velocity advance in front of the colony, 517 followed by a second phase, where "settler" bacteria grow and replicate locally(Cremer 518 519 et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2019). We hypothesize that plant-derived polysaccharides and especially pectin may serve as signal that facilitates the expansion of "pioneer" cells, 520 and later as carbon sources that support growth of "settlers". 521

## 522 Pectin does not induce gliding-associated proteins

523 Despite the substantial evidence that pectin stimulated flavobacterial colony expansion, it did not induce expression of known gliding motility proteins (although not all were 524 identified in the proteomic analyses) or proteins associated with chemotaxis, nor did it 525 induce expression of remA, encoding the lectin binding, flavobacterial cell surface 526 adhesin involved in gliding (Shrivastava et al., 2012). While the specific correlation 527 between expansion on pectin and the unique flavobacterial gliding motility mechanism 528 529 was not determined in this study, it is evident that the latter is required, because gliding deficient ( $\Delta g l d J$ ) flavobacterial mutants did not expand on pectin. The gliding 530 machinery might be induced in the earlier phase of the response to pectin, in which we 531 observed intensive bacterial motility. Alternatively, pectin might facilitate gliding in a 532

protein expression-independent manner or induce other components of the gliding machinery not identified in our proteomic analyses. A recent study identified two flavobacterial lipoproteins linked to both biofilm formation and gliding motility (Sato et al 2021), supporting the notion that other currently hypothetical proteins may also be linked to colony spreading.

Based on proteomic and subsequent qPCR (quantitative real-time PCR) gene 538 expression validation, we believe that the pectin-induced flavobacterial expansion 539 observed in this study is at least partially mediated by the induction of specific TonB-540 associated PULs. Extrapolation of these lab-based results to flavobacterial-root 541 interactions, suggesting a link between niche recognition, colony expansion and 542 543 metabolic fitness. Similar induction of TonB and PUL was observed in marine flavobacteria as response to phytoplankton blooms characterized in decomposition of 544 545 alga-derived organic matter (Teeling et al., 2012).

A few studies have previously linked Ton B proteins with motility, attachment or plant-546 bacterial interactions. Ton B was associated with twitching motility in P. aeruginosa 547 (Huang et al., 2004), and was also found to play a role in the ability of A. baumannii to 548 bind to the high-molecular weight glycoprotein fibronectin, indicating the capacity to 549 bind to extracellular host proteins (Zimbler et al., 2013). In Xanthomonas campestris 550 pv. Campestris, pectate sensed by specific TonB-dependent receptors triggered 551 secretion of extracellular polygalacturonate. This resulted in pectin degradation and 552 generation of oligogalacturonides (OGA) that are recognized as damage-associated 553 molecular patterns (DAMPs), facilitating the initiation of the plant defense 554 mechanisms (Vorhölter et al., 2012). Previous experiments showed that Pseudomonas 555 putida mutants that lacked TonB, were deficient in their capacity to uptake iron and 556 displayed impaired seed colonization, linking TonB to metabolic and functional fitness 557 in plant-associated bacteria (Molina et al., 2005). The high energetic cost and substrate 558 specificity of TonB transducers explains why the genes encoding them were induced 559 by pectin and not constitutively expressed (Postle and Kadner, 2003; Postle, 2007). 560 561 These proteins may play a pivotal role in flavobacterial-plant interactions, however, knock-out of specific tonB genes in F. johnsoniae will be challenging due to the 562 multitude of predicted tonB genes in its genome, which suggests a high level of 563 functional redundancy (McBride et al., 2009). 564

## 565 Additional pectin-induced proteins

Pectin significantly induced several proteins in addition to TonB related proteins. These 566 included an auxin-regulated protein, which is especially interesting since auxin is a 567 major phytohormone responsible for plant growth and development, demonstrating 568 again a possible connection between pectin sensing and flavobacterial-plant 569 interactions. Interestingly, pectin resulted in substantial induction of a putative 570 transcriptional regulator, suggesting pectin-induced regulation of additional genes. 571 Knocking out or silencing this regulator can shed light on this pectin-induced 572 downstream response, and its potential role in flavobacterial-plant interactions. 573

The fact that gene expression (qPCR) did not completely correlate with the proteomic data might be explained by post-translational modifications or regulation affecting protein stability, degradation and complex formation, as shown in similar cases (Flory et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2016). Alternatively, this discrepancy may be explained by a recently proposed model showing that in growing cells, mRNA can saturate ribosomes thereby limiting translation, resulting in an increase in the protein-to-DNA ratio (Lin and Amir, 2018).

#### 581 Summary

To summarize, we found that pectin, a prominent plant cell wall polysaccharide, 582 facilitates expansion of flavobacteria on solid surfaces, even in the presence of nutrient-583 rich media. We postulate that pectin may enhance the capacity of flavobacteria to 584 efficiently colonize and proliferate on plant surfaces. The interaction between pectin 585 (and potentially other root glycans) and flavobacteria is mediated by induction of 586 TonB/SusC operons and other associated PULs that facilitate metabolism of pectin. 587 Thus, in the root environment, plant cell wall polysaccharides, and specifically pectin, 588 589 may not only serve as a nutrient source for flavobacteria, but also as a potential environmental cue for colonization and rapid expansion along the root surface. 590

591

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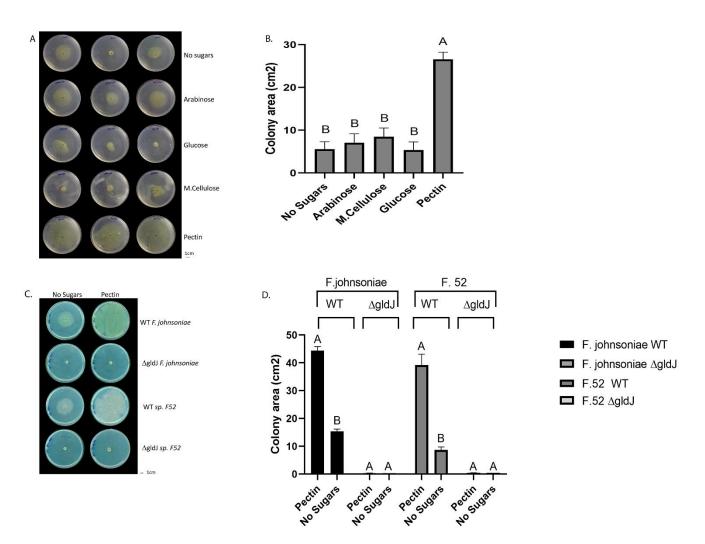
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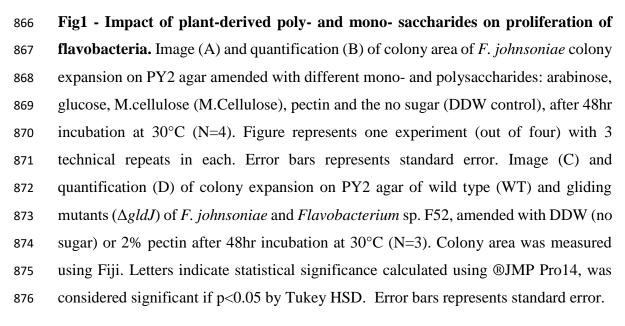
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#### 864 Figures

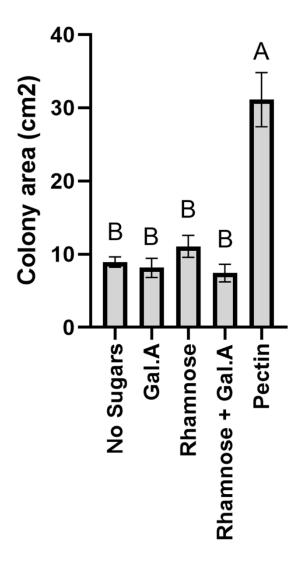


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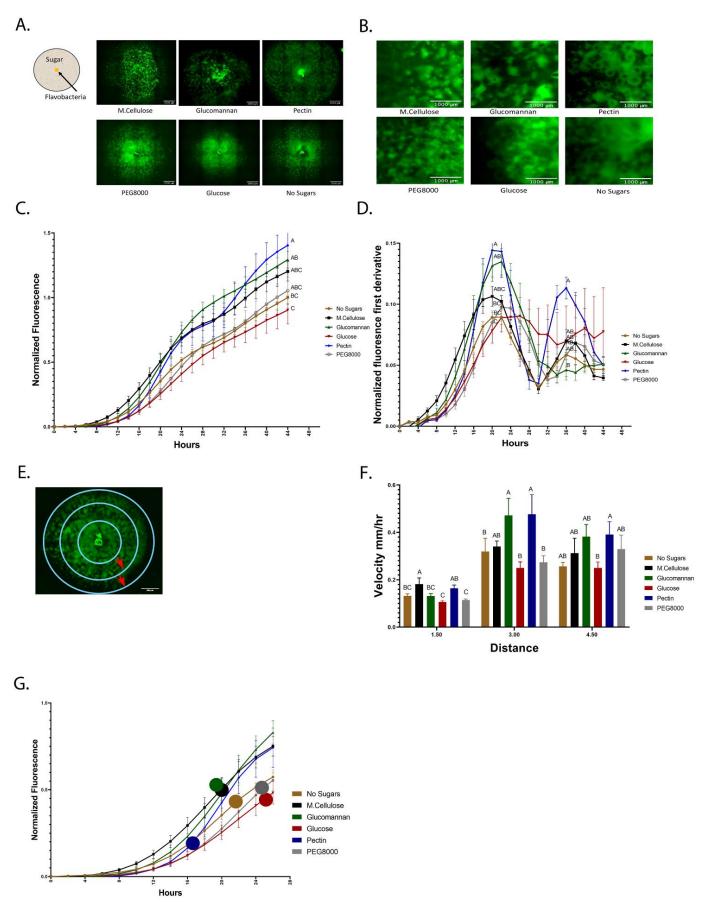
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Fig2 - Impact of pectin precursors (galacturonic acid and rhamnose) on proliferation of flavobacteria. Graphic description of *F. johnsoniae* colony area on PY2 agar amended with DDW, pectin galacturonic acid, rhamnose and galacturonic acid and rhamnose incubated at 30°C for 48 h (N=8). Statistics significance was calculated using ®JMP Pro14, and means was considered significant when p<0.05 by Tukey HSD. Error bars represents standard error.

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## 890 Fig3 - Temporal dynamics of flavobacterial proliferation on polysaccharides using

live imaging microscopy. (A) Morphology of GFP-labeled F. johnsoniae colonies on 891 PY2 agar amended with selected plant-derived poly- and mono- saccharides: 892 M.cellulose, glucomannan, pectin, glucose and PEG8000 and DDW (no sugar control). 893 Bacteria were inoculated in the center of PY2 agar coated with the indicated substances 894 (schematically described in the insert). Images show colony morphology after 32hr. (B) 895 Enlarged image of GFP-F. johnsoniae colony morphology after 16hr of growth on the 896 selected plant-derived poly- and mono- saccharides as indicated in (A). (C) Growth 897 898 rates of GFP-F. johnsoniae colonies on the selected plant-derived poly- and monosaccharides. Data was normalized as described in the materials and methods section. 899 Differences in the average colony fluorescence intensity after 44 hr was compared and 900 considered significant if p<0.05 by Tukey HSD (indicated by letters). Data includes 901 means and data from three biological replicates composed of three technical repeats in 902 each. (D) Temporal dynamics of GFP-F. johnsoniae growth rates. Growth was 903 compared at the peaks (20hr and 36hr) and considered significant if p<0.05 by Tukey 904 HSD. (E) Schematic diagram showing the three characterized regions of interest (ROI-905 1.5, 3 and 4.5 mm radii) used to evaluate of bacterial expansion rates. (F) Estimated 906 907 expansion rates of GFP-F. johnsoniae on the selected plant-derived poly- and monosaccharides. Velocity was estimated by expansion time in hours taken to cross known 908 909 ROIs as indicated in E. Differences between treatments were considered significant when p<0.05 by Student T test (G) Estimated expansion time relative to estimated 910 growth of GFP-F. johnsoniae on the selected plant-derived poly- and mono-911 saccharides. Colored circles mark time (h) for bacteria to cross the 4.5mm radius on 912 each substance as calculated in F. All error bars represents standard error. 913

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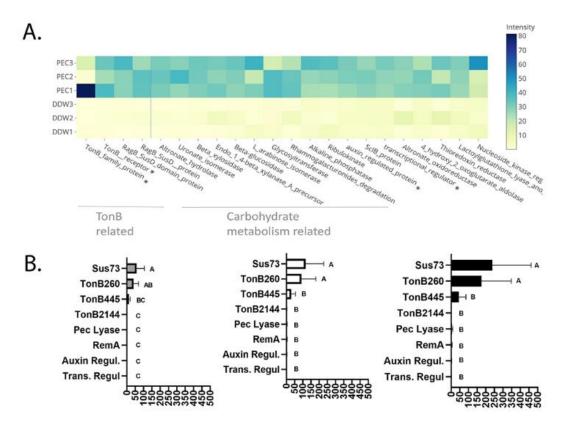


Fig4 - Pectin induced flavobacterial genes and proteins. (A) Differential expression 918 of the 25 most substantial pectin induced proteins based on proteomic analysis of F. 919 johnsoniae colonies grown on PY2 medium amended with pectin relative to colonies 920 grown on identical media amended without pectin (DDW). Heat map shows triplicates 921 for each treatment. All described proteins are statistically significant (p<0.05). The 922 asterisk (\*) marks proteins that were examined by qPCR. From left to right: TonB450, 923 TonB260, Auxin regulator, Transcriptional regulator (B) The mRNA expression level 924 of selected proteins Sus73 (SHH12854.1), TonB260 (WP\_012026229.1), TonB445 925 TonB2144 (WP 012026069.1), (WP 012022294.1), Auxin regulator 926 (WP\_012023111.1), Transcriptional regulator (WP\_012022876.1), Pectate lyase 927 (WP 012026072.1) and RemA (WP 012022896.1) shown to be induced in the 928 proteomic analysis described in (A), using quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR). Fold 929 changes in mRNA levels of the target genes were normalized against the 16SrRNA 930 gene (left), the Electron transfer Flavoprotein, alpha subunit (WP\_012023552.1) 931 (center), and the DNA gyrase subunit B (WP\_012024321.1)(right). Change in target 932 genes fold change RNA expression was calculated using the  $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$  method and 933 statistical significance (p<0.05) by Student T-test. Error bars represent standard errors 934 of six independent experiments based on two independent RNA extractions. 935