Spontaneous adaptation of ion selectivity in a bacterial flagellar motor

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ABSTRACT

Motility provides a selective advantage to many bacterial species and is often
achieved by rotation of flagella that propel the cell towards more favourable
conditions. In most species, the rotation of the flagellum, driven by the Bacterial
Flagellar Motor (BFM), is powered by H^+ or Na^+ ion transit through the torque-
generating stator subunit of the motor complex. The ionic requirements for motility
appear to have adapted to environmental changes throughout history but the
molecular basis of this adaptation, and the constraints which govern the evolution of
the stator proteins are unknown. Here we use CRISPR-mediated genome
engineering to replace the native H^+-powered stator genes of *E. coli* with a
compatible sodium-powered stator set from *V. alginolyticus* and subsequently direct
the evolution of the stators to revert to H^+-powered motility. Evidence from whole
genome sequencing indicates both flagellar- and non-flagellar-associated genes that
are involved in longer-term adaptation to new power sources. Overall, transplanted
Na^+- powered stator genes can spontaneously incorporate novel mutations that allow
H^+-motility when environmental Na^+ is lacking.

INTRODUCTION

Bacterial motility via the flagellar motor represents one of the earliest forms of locomotion. This rotary motility imparts such significant selective advantage (Roszak and Colwell 1987, Fraebel, Mickalide et al. 2017) that resources are allocated to chemotaxis even in the absence of nutrient gradients (Gude, Pince et al. 2020, Ni, Colin et al. 2020). Furthermore, the evolutionary origins, and subsequent adaptation of the motor are of significant scientific and public interest (Pallen and Matzke 2006), since the BFM holds prominence as an ancient, large, molecular complex of high sophistication.

The torque that drives the BFM is supplied by motor-associated transmembrane protein-complexes known as stators. The stator complex, an asymmetric heteroheptamer (in *E. coli:* $MotA_5MotA_2$) most likely acts itself as a miniature rotating nanomachine coupling ion transit to rotation (Deme, Johnson et al. 2020, Santiveri, Roa-Eguiara et al. 2020). The stators are essential for motility, as they drive rotation, and are accessible for studies in experimental evolution due to their unambiguous role in connecting a specific environmental cue (presence of the coupling ion) to an easily discernible phenotype (cell swimming). Furthermore, the stators have been subject to protein engineering approaches for many years, in particular the synthesis of chimeric stator constructs that enable the motor of *E. coli*, natively proton-driven, to be powered by sodium ion flow (Asai, Yakushi et al. 2003).The majority of stators are proton driven, but many that are sodium-driven can be found in nature, and this divergence is presumed to have occurred in the distant past (Takekawa, Isumi et al. 2019, Islam, Lin et al. 2020, Lai, Ridone et al. 2020). Past reports have argued that H^+-coupled motility diverged from Na^+-coupled machinery in ancestral times (Takekawa, Nishiyama et al. 2015), but the molecular basis for this adaptation, and the evolutionary landscape that constrains stator adaptation remains unclear.

In order to simulate the effects of natural evolution on stator adaptation we designed an experiment where an *E. coli* strain, expressing only a sodium-powered stator, would be introduced to a non-lethal environment (soft agar swim plate) which lacked the power source for the stator (Na^+). Our hypothesis was that the population would undergo selection for upmotile variants, adapting its stators to function in the new environment.

We used genomic editing techniques (no-SCAR CRISPR/Cas9 (Reisch and Prather

2015) and λ-Red (Datsenko and Wanner 2000)) to replace the native *motA motB*

stator genes of the *E. coli* BFM with chimeric sodium-powered *pomA potB*

(henceforth *pots*) stator genes derived from *V. alginolyticus* (Asai, Yakushi et al.

2003). We transplanted the *pots* stator genes at the same location and orientation of

the native *motA motB* locus to preserve the native genomic context of the motile

RP437 *E. coli* strain. We then examined which genetic changes occurred during

growth on soft-agar in depleted sodium, that is, under selective pressure for proton-

driven motility. We performed our directed evolution experiments of our *pots E.coli*

strain in the absence of antibiotics to avoid additional, undesired selective pressures

(Baym, Lieberman et al. 2016).

RESULTS

Preparation and Directed Evolution of a Na$^+$ powered E.coli strain

The RP437 strain was edited to carry the chimeric *pomApotB* stator genes in place

of the native *E. coli motAmotB* genes (henceforth *motAB*; Fig. 1A) via the no-SCAR

Method (Reisch and Prather 2015) and traditional λ-Red recombineering respectively

(Supplementary Figs. 1-3). Following verification of successful editing by colony PCR

and Sanger Sequencing (Supplementary Fig. 2AB), a no-SCAR Pots clone was

selected and tested on swim plates (Fig. 1B). The edited strain was able to swim on

sodium-rich (85 mM NaCl) soft agar plates but not on potassium-rich sodium-poor

(67 mM KCl, ~8 mM [Na$^+$]) plates (Fig. 1B). This edited strain exhibited the same

swimming behaviour as the control stator-less strain with motility restored via an

inducible plasmid vector that could express the *Pots* construct (RP6894 Δ*motAB* +

pSHU1234).

We next challenged this *pots* strains to survive on K$^+$ based soft agar for prolonged

periods (Fig. 1C). Motile subpopulations arose spontaneously from inoculated

colonies within a few days. Cells from the edge of these motile flares were passaged

onto fresh swim agar for up to 5 passages at 3-4 days intervals (Supplementary Fig.

4). When multiple flares occurred in a single swim ring, each was individually

passaged (Fig. 1C), and could be recapitulated (Fig. 1D). Directed evolution

consistently generated swimming flares when *pots* clones were cultured on agar

containing yeast extract and tryptone (~8 mM [Na$^+$]), but not on minimal media (~

1mM total [Na$^+$]) or when the *pots* construct was expressed from a plasmid

(Supplementary Fig. 5). One *pots* strain generated using λ-Red methods (Datsenko

and Wanner 2000), which carried the native *V. alginolyticus pomA* promoter, also

successfully produced flares (Supplementary Fig. 6).

Lineages were selected for WGS after a preliminary screening for mutations in the

stator genes by Sanger-sequencing PCR amplicons spanning the genomic

pomApotB locus (Fig. 2A). Variant calling to the MG1655 reference genome was

used to compare single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) between members of the

same lineage. Our intended *pomApotB* edit was the only difference between the

RP437 and *Pots* genomes, indicating that neither no-SCAR nor λ-Red editing had

resulted in off-target edits (Fig. 2A). 153 SNPs were called as variants between our

experimental parent RP437 and the MG1655 reference which were shared across all

lineage members (Supplementary Table).

Lineages whose descendants could swim in reduced sodium had mutations at the

pots locus (L3.3-4-5: PotB G20V; L6.4-5: PomA L183F; L8.3-4-5: PotB G20W). In

contrast, lineages passaged only on 85 mM Na$^+$ agar (L1 & L2) accumulated

mutations not in stators but in the flagellar components. Lineages passaged on ~8

mM sodium-poor agar whose descendants could not swim (L4) had no mutations on

any flagellar genes.

To examine mutation reproducibility in the stators at higher throughput, we subjected

55 *pots* colonies to directed evolution in 8 mM [Na$^+$] agar. These yielded a total of 42

flares within the first 3 days of incubation, which were then passaged four more

times at 3-day intervals. At the end of this experiment we selected the 20 terminal

lineage members which produced the largest swim rings and Sanger-sequenced

them at the *pots* locus. For these we observed a total of 5 mutations in *pomA* (S25C,

D31N, P177A, P177Q and L183F) and one more new mutation in *potB* (L36Q).

Over the course of these experiments, we found that three stator residues underwent

mutation at the same site twice (PomA L183F (2x), PomA P177A & P177Q, PotB

G20V & G20W). WGS revealed that the *pitA* gene had mutated in three separate

lineages (L2.5, L3.5, L8.5) with one of the mutations occurring twice (PitA

W112*Stop).

To test for the capacity for reversion, we took sequenced lineages that swam in 8

mM [Na$^+$] agar (L3.3-4-5, L6.4-5, L8.3-4-5) and reintroduced them to an environment

with 85 mM [Na$^+$] (Supplementary Fig. 7A). After 10 rounds of daily passaging, no

reversion in the mutants that had enabled low-sodium swimming was observed, with

only a single additional mutation gained: a *potB* T21A mutation in the terminal

descendant of *potB* G20W *pitA* W112*stop (L8.5).

We further tested whether evolution could be more easily directed on minimal media

when starting from a more favourable vantage. We examined all stator mutants that

swam on 8 mM [Na^+] plates in conditions of further sodium scarcity (minimal media: 1

mM [Na^+]). Initially, only the strains with *potB* G20V and *pomA* P177Q mutations

could swim, and this capacity was maintained following five passages over 12 days.

Sanger sequencing revealed that the terminal descendant of p*otB* G20V *pitA* G432R

mutant (L3.5) gained a further mutation in *pomA* (M20L) (Supplementary Fig.7B). A

summary of all stator gene mutations obtained from all directed evolution

experiments is provided in Fig. 2D.

Finally, we characterized rotational phenotypes of the parent and evolved strains in

the presence and absence of sodium using a tethered cell assay (Fig. 2B,

Supplementary Fig. 8). The rotation speeds of single cells were measured under

sodium-free 67mM KCl or 85mM NaCl buffer conditions and also tested in presence

of 100 µM of the sodium-blocker phenamil (Atsumi, Sugiyama et al. 1990). The *potB*

G20V (L3.3) actively rotated in sodium-free buffers and in presence of 100 µM

Phenamil (Fig.2B) – indicating sodium-free rotation and a disrupted phenamil binding

site (Fig.2B). We confirmed the PotB G20V H^+-powered phenotype by introducing

the same point mutation (GGG to GTG) on our plasmid vector (pPots) and testing

motility in tethered cell assay when the protein was expressed in the stator-less

Δ*motAB* RP6894 (Fig.2C).

We mapped mutants to their homologous position on the recently published high-

resolution *B. subtilis* $MotA_5B_2$ structure (Deme, Johnson et al. 2020) (Fig. 2EF). All

stator mutations accumulated at sites proximal to or within the predicted ion-

transport pore, at the interface between the PotB transmembrane domain and the

third and fourth transmembrane domains of PomA (Fig. 2F).

DISCUSSION

In our experiments we observed repeated mutation around the pore of the stator

complex in response to ion-scarcity in the environment. We confirmed phenotypic

changes by measuring rotation in the absence of sodium and in the presence of the

sodium channel blocker phenamil. Our strains adapted quickly to drive rotation in a

sodium-poor environment within 2 weeks indicating that the stators are highly
adaptive.

Ni et al. observed that evolutionary adaptation of motility occurs via remodeling of
the checkpoint regulating flagellar gene expression (Ni, Ghosh et al. 2017). Their
experiments tracked adaptive changes in swim plates, matching our experiments,
however their only selection criteria were for improved swimming in an unhindered
swimming population. In agreement with our results (*fliM* A161V), they found *fliM*
*(*M67I and T192N*)* to be the amongst the first genes to mutate in the improved
swimmer population but they did not report any changes in *flgL* (ΔA57-Q58), nor,
significantly, did they see any mutations in any stator genes.

In contrast, our *E. coli pots* strain faced selective pressure from ion scarcity. Our
scenario is reminiscent of previous semi-solid agar experimental evolution studies on
the adaptation of antibiotic resistance and recapitulates similar results. In the MEGA
plate experiments of Baym et al., they similarly saw that the phosphate transporter
pitA was repeatedly mutated, often to a frameshifted or nonsense variant (Baym,
Lieberman et al. 2016). In similar experiment the isocitrate dehydrogenase *icd* was
also seen to mutate often (Fraebel, Mickalide et al. 2017).

Mutations in stators are known to affect ion usage and may confer dual-ion coupling
capacity. For example, the substate preference of the *B. alcalophilus* MotPS stator
(Na^+/K^+ and Rb^+) was changed with the single mutation M33L in MotS, causing the
loss of both K^+- and Rb^+-coupling motility in E. coli (Terahara, Sano et al. 2012).
Similarly a bi-functional *B. clausii* MotAB stator (Na^+/H^+) triple mutant (MotB V37L,
A40S and G42S) was selective only for sodium ions while the combination of
mutations G42S, Q43S and Q46A made MotB selective only for H^+ (Terahara,
Krulwich et al. 2008).

Except the previously reported variant *pomA* L183F (Sudo, Terashima et al. 2009),
none of the other mutations we report have been observed in previous studies
involving random mutagenesis in *motB* using ethylmethane sulfonate (Garza, Harris-
Haller et al. 1995), or by mutagenesis in the *pomA* gene by using hydroxylamine
(Kojima, Kuroda et al. 1999), or in *potB* using error-prone PCR (Ishida, Ito et al.
2019). Adaptation of plasmid-encoded chimeric stator genes (Nishino, Onoue et al.
2015) and wild-type stator genes (Takekawa, Nishiyama et al. 2015) has been
previously reported. One advantage of editing sodium stators onto the *E. coli*

genome is that we can direct the evolution of sodium-stators *in vivo* – something not possible in *Vibrio sp.* since the cells do not survive at low sodium. Conversely, it is difficult to direct evolution towards reversion because it is not possible, particularly in *E. coli*, to drastically reduce the proton concentration to incentivise the stators' use of sodium. Nevertheless, the fact that no revertants were observed agrees with previous work suggesting that requirements for Na^+ binding are more strict than for H^+ binding, and that mutations that convert a Na+ motor to an H+ are more accessible than the reverse (Hase, Fedorova et al. 2001, Mulkidjanian, Galperin et al. 2008).

We observed a convergence of mutations on the stator genes and even to the very same nucleotide (GA<u>G</u> (L) to GA<u>A</u> (F) in two separate *pom*A L183F lineages). That this was from a clonal population under identical environmental constraints suggests that adaptation of the stators is prioritized in changing environments. Mutation of pore-proximal residues into hydrophobic residues (eg. G20V) might hint at a mechanism for varying constrictions in the pore to alter the efficiency of ion binding.

Motility confers a fitness advantage that is worth significant energetic investment despite the high cost of synthesizing the flagellar machinery (Colin and Sourjik 2017, Ni, Colin et al. 2020). This advantage can only be seized if the correct ions are available for stator-conversion into torque. CRISPR/Cas9 has become a widespread method used for precise genomic edits, yet the reversion of such edits appears rapid and gene targeted. Here, ion scarcity supplied a strong selective pressure that allowed us to identify novel mutations correlated with altered ion-specificity. Our transplant of an unfit protein and the cells' rapid reversion of this edit demonstrates tight evolutionary regulation of the stator subunit in an ancient molecular complex.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Starting strains and plasmids.

E. coli strain RP437 was used as the parent strain for genomic editing experiments (Block, Blair et al. 1989). The pSHU1234 (hereby pPots) plasmid encoding *pomA* and *potB* (Ishida, Ito et al. 2019) was used as the template to generate the double stranded donor DNA. This was used to replace the *motA* and *motB* gene on the RP437 chromosome. Liquid cell culturing was done using LB broth (NaCl or KCl, Yeast Extract, Bacto Tryptone). Cells were cultured on agar plates composed of LB Broth and 1% Bacto Agar (BD, U.S.A.). Swim plate cultures were performed on the

same substrates adjusted for agar content (0.3% Bacto Agar). A list of primers and

PCR protocols used in this work is provided in Supplementary Fig. 9.

Editing E. coli with Cas9-assisted Recombineering.

This procedure was adapted from the *No-SCAR* method (Reisch and Prather 2015) .

The target strain to be edited (*E.coli* RP437) was sequentially transformed first with

the pKD-sgRNA-3'MotA (Sm$^+$) plasmid, encoding a sgRNA sequence directed at the

3' end of *motA*, and then with the pCas9cr4 (Cm$^+$) plasmid to yield a parent strain

harboring both plasmids. The overlap extension PCR technique (Higuchi, Krummel

et al. 1988) was employed to assemble linear double stranded DNA molecules

(dsDNA) using 3 starting dsDNA fragments. The resulting donor DNA was

electroporated in the plasmid-bearing host and the successfully edited clones were

selected via colony PCR and Sanger sequencing of the *motAB* locus.

Construction of Pots by λ-Red Recombineering

Chromosomal replacement from *motAB* to *pomApotB* was achieved by using a λ

Red recombination system, with plasmid pKD46 encoding the Red system and

positive selection for the recovery of swimming ability (Kinosita, Ishida et al. 2020).

Motile clones were selected by isolating motile flares on swim plates (Supplementary

Fig.4).

Tethered cell assay preparation and analysis

The tethered cell assay was performed as previously described (Nishiyama and

Kojima 2012). The tethered cells time lapse videos were recorded at 40x

magnification on a phase contrast microscope (Nikon). Time lapse videos were

collected using a camera (Chameleon3 CM3, Point Grey Research) recording 20s-

long videos at 20 frames per second. A custom LabView software (Ishida, Ito et al.

2019, Islam, Lin et al. 2020) was employed as previously reported to estimate

specific rotational parameters of the tethered cells such as rotation frequency

(speed), clockwise and counterclockwise bias and switching frequency. Statistical

analysis and visualization of the data was performed using Graph Pad Prism 8.

Single Nucleotide Polymorphism (SNP) analysis

Whole genome sequencing of 22 *E. coli* strains was performed using a MiSeq 2 x

150bp chip on an Illumina sequencing platform. Sequencing was carried out at the

Ramaciotti Centre for Genomics, Kensington and delivered as demultiplexed fastQ

files (Quality Control: >80% bases higher than Q30 at 2×150 bp). The SNP calling

and analysis was performed using Snippy (Seemann 2015, Bush, Foster et al.

2020). The short reads from sequencing were aligned to the MG1655 reference *E.*
coli genome (GenBank: U00096.2) and to a synthetic genome based on MG1655,
edited to contain the Pots stator sequences from pPots (*pomA*/*potB*) at the *motAB*
locus.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

263   PR and MABB designed experiments and executed experiments in strain editing,
264   molecular biology and microbiology. YS executed experiments in strain editing.
265   MABB executed bioinformatics surrounding variant calling. MB supervised the
266   design, execution and writing of the project. All authors contributed to writing and
267   revision of the manuscript.

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Figure 1. BFM stator editing and recapitulated directed evolution. A) Cartoon of
E. coli RP437, carrying a proton-powered stator set (m*otA motB*), undergoing an
homologous recombination-catalysed editing process to replace motAB with the

sodium-powered chimeric stator *pomA potB* ('pots') via a dsDNA donor. The chimeric
pots construct consists of PomA from V. alginolyticus (VA) and a spliced B subunit
made of Vibrio PomB amino acids M1-I50 fused in frame to E.coli (EC) MotB A59 -
R308 (now PotB A51 – R300). B) Soft agar swim plate assay to assess bacterial
motility. The strains indicated above were inoculated on 0.3% Agar prepared with
either NaCl LB (left) or KCl LB (right) media and incubated at 30°C for 24hrs. The
plates contain no antibiotics and 0.4% Arabinose to induce expression from pPots.
Strains: RP437 (WT, parent strain), Pots* (not-fully cured, carries plasmid pCas9cr4),
Pots (cured of all plasmid), ΔmotAB (E.coli RP6894) with or without pPots (pSHU1234,
Cm$^+$, encoding the PomA PotB construct under control of an inducible Arabinose
promoter). C) Directed evolution experiment plates. A single Pots colony was
inoculated on a K$^+$ soft agar plate and incubated at 30˚C until flares developed. The
edge of the flare was then transferred onto a fresh plate and allowed to spread radially
until at 4-day intervals. Yellow arrows indicate an improved swimmer subpopulation
being propagated. Grey arrows indicate other portions of the colony being propagated.
D) Full recapitulation of the evolved lineage shown in C. Lineage members were
inoculated on soft LB agar with or without sodium from glycerol stocks and incubated
24hr at 30°C. Parent strain RP437 is also included in the centre of the plate as control.
The phenotypic effect of stator replacement is highlighted by the white arrows.
Passages 1 to 5 of the directed evolution experiment are indicated in roman numerals
and each passage highlighted by yellow arrows. These passages correspond to: I =
Pots, II = L4.2, III = L5.3, IV = L6.4 and V = L6.5 in Fig. 2, respectively.

Figure 2. Whole genome sequencing (WGS) of evolved lineages and
phenotyping. A) Schematic of directed evolution experiments. The lineage members
in the diagram are color-coded based on their ability to swim on either a Na⁺ -based
substrate (red ellipse) or K⁺-based swim agar (blue diamond). All lineage members
labelled in blue retained their ability to swim on Na⁺-rich soft agar. Lineages passaged

on K⁺ agar are highlighted by a blue gradient bar, while lineages passed on Na⁺
agar are highlighted by a red gradient bar. All strains were locally Sanger sequenced
at the *pomApotB* locus, but 21 strains, indicated by black circles, underwent whole
genome sequencing (WGS). Lineage number and passage are indicated: ie L1.3
indicates the first lineage and the third passage of a motile flare from an initial
inoculation site. SNPs identified via variant calling relative to reference genome of
MG1655 are annotated next to each respective lineage member. Highlighted genes
other than *pomA* and *potB*: *pitA* (metal phosphate:H(⁺) symporter), *flgL* (flagellar hook-
filament junction protein 2), *fliM* (flagellar motor switch protein), *cdsA* (cardiolipin-
diglyceride synthase), *icd* (isocitrate dehydrogenase), *rrsG* (16S ribosomal RNA). B)
Single cell speed measurements using the tethered cell assay measured in Hz
(revolutions/s). Blue bar indicates speed in 67 mM KCl motility Buffer, red bar: 85 mM
NaCl motility Buffer; red patterned bar: 85 mM NaCL + 100 µM phenamil motility
buffer. Number of cells analysed per condition (from left to right): RP437: 27, 51, 25;
pots: n.a, 78, n.a; pots *potB* G20V 45, 36, 39 (n.a. indicates no visible rotating cell).
Error bars indicate S.E.M. C) Single cell speed measurements using the tethered cell
assay in RP6894 Δ*motAB* strain co-expressing *pomA* and *potB* G20V from pPots
plasmid. Blue bar indicates speed in 67 mM KCl motility buffer, red bar: 85 mM NaCl
motility buffer; red patterned bar: 85 mM NaCl + 100 µM phenamil motility buffer.
Number of cells analysed per condition (from left to right): (Δ*motAB* + pPots: n.a., 32,
n.a; Δ*motAB* + pPots *potB* G20V: 40, 63, 48). Error bars indicate S.E.M. D) Graphical
summary of stator gene mutations detected across all directed evolution experiments
and the growth conditions under which these mutations arose. LB indicates agar
containing Yeast extract and Tryptone. MM indicates agar in minimal media. Mutations
in a subsequent generation are underlined. E) View from the extracellular side of the
transmembrane portion of B. subtilis MotA₅B₂ stator complex (PDB: 6YSL). One
monomer of subunit A is coloured in white and the TM domains of the B subunits are
coloured in cyan. Mutant sites obtained in the directed evolution experiments are
labelled in magenta, the catalytic aspartate residue essential for function is highlighted
in red. The light blue circle indicates the predicted location of the ion transport pore
(inward conduction). F) side view of the area highlighted by the dashed box in E.
Homologous residue location derived from protein sequence alignments. Primary
mutation sites are indicated in black, while secondary mutation sites are underscored.
The arrow at the interface between (A)TM3-4 and (B)TM indicates the predicted
location of the ion transport pore.