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 subunits 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 *Escherichia coli* with a
compatible sodium-powered stator set from *Vibrio 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[1,2] that resources are allocated to chemotaxis even in the absence of nutrient gradients[3,4]. Furthermore, the evolutionary origins, and subsequent adaptation of the motor are of significant scientific and public interest[5], 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[6,7]. 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[8]. 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[9-11]. Past reports have argued that H^+-coupled motility diverged from Na^+-coupled machinery in ancestral times[12], 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[13] and λ-Red[14]) 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*[8]. 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 [15].

RESULTS

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

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 (Fig. 1A) via the no-SCAR Method[13] and

traditional λ-Red recombineering respectively[14] (Supplementary Fig. 1&4). 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*motAmotB* + pSHU1234, hereby pPots).

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.

5). 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 via a plasmid

(Supplementary Fig. 6). One *pots* strain generated using λ-Red methods[14], which

carried the native *V. alginolyticus pomA* promoter, also successfully produced flares

(Supplementary Fig. 4).

Lineages were selected for whole-genome sequencing (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).

Several 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 (Supplementary Fig. 7). 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. 7C). 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[16]. 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 further

confirmed this phenotype was reversible in single cells by tracking rotation of

individual tethered cells as the buffers were sequentially exchanged (Supplementary

Fig. 9).

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).

Finally, we mapped mutants to their homologous position on the recently published

high-resolution *B. subtilis* MotA$_5$B$_2$ structure[17] (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 cell's surrounding environment. We

confirmed phenotypic changes by measuring rotation in the absence and 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.

Previous reports have shown that bacterial motility can adapt[18] and be rescued[19] via

remodelling of the flagellar regulatory network. Ni et al. observed that evolutionary

adaptation of motility occurs via remodeling of the checkpoint regulating flagellar

gene expression[18]. 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.

Flagellum-mediated motility also appears to be naturally robust to the loss of

regulatory factors, such as the enhancer-binding protein fleQ in *P. fluorescens*,

which function can be substituted by distantly related homologous proteins[19].

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[15]. In a

similar experiment, the isocitrate dehydrogenase *icd* was also seen to mutate often[1].

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[20]. 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^+ [21].

Except the previously reported variant *pomA* L183F[22], none of the other mutations

we report have been observed in previous studies involving random mutagenesis in

motB using ethylmethane sulfonate[23], or by mutagenesis in the *pomA* gene by using

hydroxylamine[24], or in *potB* using error-prone PCR[25]. Adaptation of plasmid-

encoded stator genes[12,26] has been previously reported. However, a distinct

advantage of editing stator genes directly on the *E. coli* genome is that we can direct

the evolution of sodium-stators *in vivo* and without antibiotics – something not

possible in wild-type *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 sodium

powered motor to a proton powered motor are more accessible than the reverse[27,28].

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). Since

this was from a clonal population under identical environmental constraints, it

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[4,29]. 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[30].

The pSHU1234 (pPots) plasmid encoding *pomA* and *potB*[25] 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).

Editing E. coli with Cas9-assisted Recombineering.

This procedure was adapted from the no-SCAR method[13] . 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[31] 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. A list of primers and PCR protocols used in this work is provided in

Supplementary Fig. 10.

Construction of Pots by λ-Red Recombineering

Chromosomal replacement from *motAmotB* 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[32]. Motile clones were selected

by isolating motile flares on swim plates (Supplementary Fig. 4A).

Tethered cell assay preparation and analysis

The tethered cell assay was performed as previously described[33]. 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 20 s-long videos at 20 frames per second.

Time lapse videos were collected using a camera (Chameleon3 CM3, Point

Grey Research) recording 20s-long videos at 20 frames per second. Single cell

tracking experiments were collected using a camera (DMK21AU618, Imaging

Source) recording 10s-long videos recorded at 60 frames per second. Custom

LabView software[10,25] 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. 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 2x

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[34,35]. 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

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

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Figure 1. BFM stator editing and recapitulated directed evolution. A) Schematic

of E. coli RP437, carrying a proton-powered stator set (*motA 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 DNA that encodes pomA from *V. alginolyticus* (VA) and a
spliced B subunit encoding for *Vibrio* p omB 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
24 hrs. 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), Δ*motAB* (*E.coli* RP6894) with or without pPots
(pSHU1234, Cm$^+$, encoding the pomApotB construct under arabinose induction). C)
Directed evolution experiment plates. A single Pots colony was innoculated 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 it was again
transferred 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 for 24 hrs 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.

389
390

Figure 2. Sequencing and phenotyping of evolved lineages. 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 passaged 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 Standard Deviation (S.D.). 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.D. 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* MotA$_5$B$_2$ 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.