Graphical Abstract

eTOC

AAA+ proteases, such as Lon and ClpXP, select distinct targets for degradation to maintain proteostasis. Mahmoud et al. show that ATP hydrolysis can tune substrate specificity of ClpX, allowing ClpX to degrade Lon-restricted substrates under limiting ATP conditions or in the presence of a ClpX mutant.

Highlights

- A Walker B mutation of the AAA+ protease ClpX alters substrate specificity

- ClpX mutant degrades new substrates but degrades canonical substrates less well

- Decreasing ATP levels enhances ClpXP mediated degradation of some classes of substrates

- ATP-induced changes in conformational states accompany alterations in ClpX specificity

12 **ATP hydrolysis tunes specificity of a AAA+ protease**
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Summary

In bacteria, AAA+ proteases such as Lon and ClpXP degrade substrates with exquisite specificity. These machines capture the energy of ATP hydrolysis to power unfolding and degradation of target substrates. Here, we show that a mutation in the ATP binding site of ClpX shifts protease specificity to promote degradation of normally Lon-restricted substrates. However, this ClpX mutant is worse at degrading ClpXP targets, suggesting an optimal balance in substrate preference for a given protease that is surprisingly easy to alter. *In vitro*, wildtype ClpXP also degrades Lon-restricted substrates more readily when ATP levels are reduced, similar to the shifted specificity of mutant ClpXP, which has altered ATP hydrolysis kinetics. Based on these results, we suggest that rates of ATP hydrolysis not only power substrate unfolding and degradation, but also tune protease specificity. We consider various models for this effect based on emerging structures of AAA+ machines showing conformationally distinct states.

Introduction

Energy-dependent protein degradation regulates normal growth and stress responses in all cells. In bacteria, regulated proteolysis is carried out by several energy-dependent AAA+ (ATPases associated with cellular activities) proteases which include Lon, ClpXP, ClpAP, HslUV, FtsH (Gur et al., 2011; Mahmoud and Chien, 2018). These proteases share a similar general architecture containing an unfoldase domain and a non-specific peptidase (Sauer and Baker, 2011). The two domains can be encoded on a single polypeptide, such as in the case of Lon and FtsH, or they can be encoded by separate proteins, an ATPase, such as ClpX, and a peptidase, such as ClpP (Baker and Sauer, 2012; Langklotz et al., 2012; Lee and Suzuki, 2008). Using the power of ATP hydrolysis, the unfoldase recognizes, unfolds, and translocates substrates into the sequestered peptidase chamber to be degraded. Because they are critical for maintaining proteostasis, loss of these proteases results in defects in growth, cell-cycle progression, stress responses, and pathogenesis (Breidenstein et al., 2012; Howard-Flanders et al., 1964; Jenal and Fuchs, 1998; Rogers et al., 2016).

Despite the similarities in both architecture and mechanism, these proteases generally have distinct niches of substrate preference. For example, in *Caulobacter crescentus*, Lon is the principal protease for degradation of the replication initiator DnaA (Jonas et al., 2013), the methyltransferase CcrM (Wright et al., 1996), and the transcriptional regulator SciP (Gora et al., 2013). By contrast, the ClpXP protease degrades cell-cycle factors like CtrA and TacA during cell-cycle progression through an adaptor hierarchy (Joshi et al., 2015). Lon is also responsible for misfolded protein degradation (Goldberg, 1972; Gur and Sauer, 2008; Jonas et al., 2013). However, while a handful of target substrates for these AAA+ proteases have been identified, it remains unclear how proteases are able to discriminate among protein targets and recognize distinct substrates for irreversible degradation.

In this work, we find that a variant of ClpX (*clpX**) can compensate for the absence of the Lon protease*.* Expression of *clpX** suppresses defects in motility, growth, filamentation, and sensitivity to stress normally seen in a Δ*lon* strain. In addition to this phenotypic rescue, degradation of normal Lon substrates is restored *in vivo* and *in vitro* by ClpX*P*.* This increased ability to degrade noncanonical substrates comes at the cost of reduced degradation of ClpXP-specific substrates, resulting in fitness defects in otherwise wildtype strains expressing the *clpX** allele. Further mechanistic characterization shows that ClpX* has reduced catalytic efficiency for ATP hydrolysis, suggesting a connection between ATP utilization and substrate specificity. Consistent with this, limiting ATP for wildtype ClpXP shifts substrate preferences similar to that of ClpX*P. Limited proteolysis, differential scanning fluorimetry (DSF), and hydrogen-deuterium exchange mass spectrometry (HDX-MS) show that the ClpX unfoldase adopts distinct conformations under these ATP limiting or saturating conditions. Taken together, our work demonstrates that ATP-dependent dynamics between conformational states are important for substrate recognition by AAA+ unfoldases.

Results
A suppressor screen identifies a *clpX* mutant which rescues *Δlon*

We reasoned that a suppressor screen would allow us to identify Lon-related

interactions and used a transposon library to identify mutations that restore motility to a

Δlon strain. We isolated a high motility mutant with a transposon insertion in

CCNA_00264; however, transduction experiments revealed that this transposon alone

was not able to rescue motility (Figure S1A). Sequencing the genome of the suppressor

strain showed a point mutation in *clpX*, which resulted in a single amino acid change

from glycine 178 to alanine (*clpX**). This glycine is highly conserved among ClpX

homologs and immediately adjacent to the Walker B motif (Figure S1C). By generating

the *clpX** allele in a *Δlon* background, we found that *clpX** on its own partially restores

motility (Figure 1A).

We were intrigued that a single mutation in *clpX* could restore motility to cells lacking

Lon and chose to further characterize this strain. Cells lacking Lon show growth defects

that exhibit as an extended lag phase and reduced cell mass accumulation in stationary

phase (Figure 1A). The *clpX** allele rescues the mass accumulation defect, but not the

extended lag (Figure 1A). *Δlon* strains also have significant morphological deficiencies

including elongated cell length and longer stalks, external polar organelles characteristic

of *Caulobacter*. We found that the *clpX** mutant restored the cell length of Δ*lon* strains to

near wildtype levels (Figure 1B, 1C). However, stalks remained elongated in the *Δlon*

clpX* strain (Figure 1B, 1C).

We next wondered if, in addition to suppression of *Δlon* morphological and growth

defects, sensitivity to certain stressors would be suppressed by this *clpX** allele. One of

the originally described phenotypes for *E. coli lon* mutants is DNA damage sensitivity

(Mizusawa and Gottesman, 1983; Witkin, 1946) and *Caulobacter* Δ*lon* strains are also

highly sensitive to various DNA damaging agents (Zeinert et al., 2018), including

mitomycin C (MMC) (Figure 1C). We found that Δ*lon clpX** was 100-fold more resistant

to MMC than *Δlon* alone (Figure 1C).

As mentioned previously, Lon is the major protease responsible for the degradation of

the replication initiator DnaA and *Δlon* strains accumulate excess chromosome content

(Jonas et al., 2013; Wright et al., 1996). Like the morphological abnormalities, over-

replication is suppressed in the Δ*lon clpX** strain which shows similar chromosome

content as wildtype cells (Figure 1D, S1D). To determine if this rescue extended to a

systems-level correction, we compared RNA-seq profiles of wildtype, Δ*lon* and Δ*lon*

clpX* strains. As expected, many genes (435) are differentially expressed upon loss of

Lon (Figure 1E, Supplementary File 1), while the Δ*lon clpX** strain shows fewer

differences (119) with only 85 genes overlapping between these sets. Finally, we

assayed the overall physiological consequence of ClpX* using competitive fitness in

mixed cultures. We grew cultures of Δ*lon* or the Δ*lon clpX** strain together with Δ*lon*

strains constitutively expressing the Venus fluorescent protein (Persat et al., 2014). We

found that Δ*lon clpX** cells were more fit than Δ*lon* cells (Figure S1E)*.* Our interpretation

is that expression of *clpX** in a Δ*lon* background largely shifts the phenotypes and

transcriptional landscape to more wildtype profiles.

ClpX* restores degradation of Lon substrates *in vivo*

Because cells lacking Lon would accumulate normally degraded substrates, we

hypothesized that the rescue we observed in the *Δlon clpX** strain was likely due to

lower levels of Lon substrates, such as DnaA, CcrM, and SciP (Figure 2A) (Wright et al.,

1996; Gora et al., 2013; Jonas et al., 2013). As expected, in unsynchronized cells,

DnaA and CcrM levels are higher in the Δ*lon* strain than in wildtype (Figure 2B).

Similarly, SciP levels are higher in Δ*lon* swarmer cells in comparison to wildtype (Figure

2D). Interestingly, levels of DnaA and SciP are restored to wildtype levels in the Δ*lon*

clpX* strain; however, CcrM remained at higher levels (Figure 2B). The reduced levels

of DnaA likely explain the rescue of replication defects and enrichment analysis of the

RNA-seq results shows that the SciP-controlled regulon and cell-cycle gene expression

are largely restored in the Δ*lon clpX** strain (Figure S2). We reasoned that expression

of *clpX** rescues normal growth and critical stress responses in a Δ*lon* strain through

restoring wildtype levels of key proteins.

Next, we explored the mechanism by which a mutation in ClpX restores steady state

levels of DnaA and SciP. Because DnaA and SciP are controlled by proteolysis, we

suspected that protein turnover may be affected. As expected, DnaA is largely

stabilized in Δ*lon* strains (Figure 2C; Jonas, et al. 2013); however, we found that DnaA

degradation was restored in the Δ*lon clpX* strain*, with a half-life similar to that of

wildtype (Figure 2D). SciP protein dynamics and cell-cycle phase specific levels were

also restored in Δ*lon clpX** cells (Figure 2D). By contrast, CcrM degradation was still

solely dependent on Lon, even when *clpX** was present, in both unsynchronized cells

(Figure 2C) and during cell-cycle progression (Figure S2D).

We considered that changes in protein turnover could be either due to a gain-of-function

in the *clpX** mutant or by indirect cellular effects associated with a loss-of-function in

clpX. To test this, we created a merodiploid Δ*lon* strain expressing a second copy of

clpX or *clpX** under control of the native promoter along with a normal chromosomal

copy of *clpX*. We reasoned that if the effect was direct, then expression of *clpX** would

be sufficient to restore DnaA degradation. If the effect was indirect, then DnaA would

remain stable. Consistent with a gain-of-function phenotype for the *clpX** allele, we

found that DnaA turnover increased upon expression of *clpX** but not wildtype *clpX*

(Figure 2E). Similarly, the phenotypic rescue we observed in the Δ*lon clpX** strain was

also due to a gain-of-function activity as the merodiploid strain expressing *clpX**

suppressed Δ*lon* defects, such as growth, motility, and genotoxic stress tolerance

(Figure S2E-G)*.* Because ClpXP is a AAA+ protease, we hypothesized that ClpX*P (the

protease complex of the variant ClpX* with wildtype ClpP) was now able to recognize

and degrade substrates normally degraded by Lon.

ClpX*P directly degrades Lon substrates *in vitro*

As a direct test of our hypothesis, we purified the ClpX* variant and reconstituted

degradation *in vitro*. Upon initial characterization of purified ClpX*, we found that it

formed an active ATPase, but hydrolyzed ATP three times faster than wildtype (Figure

S3A). Consistent with the fact that Lon is the principal protease for DnaA degradation

(Jonas et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2016), we found that wildtype ClpXP poorly degraded

DnaA *in vitro* (Figure 3A). However, purified ClpX*P could degrade DnaA four-fold

faster than ClpXP (Figure 3A). Similarly, SciP was degraded three-fold faster by ClpX*P

in comparison to ClpXP (Figure 3A). Finally, as predicted from our *in vivo* results, CcrM

was not degraded by either ClpX*P or ClpXP (Figure 3A, Figure S3B), but was well

degraded by Lon (Figure S3B). Thus, ClpX* appears to have an expanded substrate

profile which includes some Lon substrates, but others, such as CcrM, remain exclusive

to Lon.

Lon recognizes exposed hydrophobic amino acids (Gur and Sauer, 2008) and is best

known as a quality control protease that eliminates mis/unfolded proteins (Goff et al.,

1984). Given its altered specificity, we considered if ClpX* could now recognize these

substrates. Casein is commonly used as an *in vitro* model substrate for mis/unfolded

proteins. Lon robustly degrades fluorescently labeled casein, whereas wildtype ClpXP

poorly degrades this substrate (Figure 3B). Intriguingly, ClpX*P degrades FITC-casein

more than twice as fast as ClpXP (Figure 3B, Figure S3C). Similar to casein, ClpX*P

degrades another unfolded Lon substrate, a chemically denatured domain of titin tagged

with the hydrophobic sequence β20 (Gur and Sauer, 2008), better than wildtype ClpXP

(Figure S3D).

Because cells lacking Lon are sensitive to proteotoxic stresses that create misfolded

proteins and because ClpX*P is better at degrading mis/unfolded substrates than

wildtype ClpXP, we wondered if the Δ*lon clpX** strain would be more resistant to

stressors that induce cellular protein misfolding. Indeed, the presence of the *clpX** allele

protected Δ*lon* cells from hypersensitivity to the proteotoxic amino acid L-canavanine

(Figure 3B). We conclude that ClpX* has an altered substrate preference, which

includes DnaA, SciP, and unfolded proteins, whose degradation are normally governed

by the Lon protease.

ClpX*P is deficient in degradation of native ClpXP substrates

Mutations in ClpX that improve recognition of some substrates can have negative

consequences on others (Farrell et al., 2007). GFP-ssrA is a well-characterized ClpXP

substrate that is directly bound by the pore loops of ClpX (Fei et al., 2020; Gottesman et

al., 1998). We purified GFP fused to the *Caulobacter* ssrA tag (Chien, et al. 2007),

determined degradation rates by ClpX*P and ClpXP, and fit these rates to the

Michaelis-Menten equation. We found that ClpX*P degrades GFP-ssrA more poorly

than wildtype ClpXP, principally lowering the turnover rate (Figure 4A, Figure S4A),

suggesting that either ClpX* fails to irreversibly initiate degradation via the ssrA tag as

readily or is unable to translocate the reporter protein as well as wildtype ClpX.

CtrA is a master regulator in *Caulobacter* that inhibits replication initiation and regulates

the transcription of many cell-cycle genes (Laub et al., 2002; Wortinger et al., 2000). *In*

vivo, CtrA is degraded during the G1-S transition by ClpXP through the use of an

adaptor hierarchy (Domian et al., 1999; Jenal and Fuchs, 1998; Joshi et al., 2015; Quon

et al., 1996); however, *in vitro* CtrA can also be directly recognized by ClpXP as its C-

terminus resembles the ssrA tag (Chien et al., 2007). Consistent with a reduced ability

to recognize ClpXP substrates, ClpX*P degrades isolated CtrA more poorly than

wildtype (Figure 4B) and also shows reduced degradation of a CtrA-derived GFP

reporter (Smith et al., 2014) in the presence of the full adaptor hierarchy (Figure S4B).

We conclude that ClpX*P overall has a diminished ability to recognize and degrade

native substrates normally degraded by ClpXP.

Deficiencies of ClpX* revealed when Lon is present

The prior *in vitro* data suggests that rather than just expanding specificity, this mutation

has allowed ClpX*P to degrade Lon-dependent substrates better but at the cost of

degrading ClpXP-dependent ones. If this is true, while *clpX** is beneficial in a *Δlon*

background, we reasoned that it may be detrimental to *lon*^{+} cells.

To test this hypothesis, we generated an otherwise wildtype strain with *clpX** as its sole

copy. We first examined ssrA tag turnover in this strain by using an ssrA derivative that

relies on the SspB adaptor for degradation (eGFP-ssrA(DAS)) (Chowdhury et al., 2010)

so that degradation would be sufficiently slowed to be visualized by western blotting.

Consistent with our *in vitro* experiments, we observed stabilization and dramatically

higher levels of eGFP-ssrA (DAS) in the *clpX** strain in comparison to wildtype (Figure

4C). We observed reduced CtrA degradation in the *clpX** strain, consistent with our *in*

vitro observations (Figure 4C). Finally, DnaA degradation is accelerated in the *clpX**

strains compared to wildtype – consistent with our findings that both Lon and ClpX*P

are able to degrade DnaA (Figures 4C).

To assess the overall impact of ClpX* on wildtype cells, we performed competition

assays as described previously using a wildtype strain constitutively expressing the

Venus fluorescent protein (Persat et al., 2014). We found that while nonfluorescent

wildtype cells could slightly outcompete the constitutive Venus expressing cells, the

clpX* strain showed a substantial competitive disadvantage (Figure 4D). We also tested

for stress tolerances and found that *clpX** strains fail to survive genotoxic stress as

robustly as wildtype (Figure 4E). Our conclusion is that reduced fitness of the wildtype

clpX* strain is likely due to reduced degradation of normal ClpXP substrates (such as

CtrA) and prolific degradation of normal Lon substrates (such as DnaA) that together

reduce overall fitness. Collectively, this supports our understanding that AAA+

proteases have been optimized for specific priorities in a cell – expansion of their

substrate profile, as seen with *clpX*,* can compensate for loss of other proteases, but at

the cost of their ability to recognize their normal substrates.

Limiting ATP alters wildtype ClpXP substrate specificity

To understand how this mutation in ClpX leads to enhanced degradation of certain

substrates, we further characterized the ATPase activity of ClpX*. While ClpX*

hydrolyzes ATP three-fold faster than wildtype ClpX at saturating ATP concentrations

(Figure S4A), Michaelis-Menten experiments showed that the K_M increases by 5-6 fold

and the k_{cat} for ATP hydrolysis increases by approximately 3 fold (Figure 5A). While K_M

does depend on k_{cat}, the magnitude of K_M increase given the change in k_{cat} suggests

that there may also be deficiencies in nucleotide binding of ClpX*. To test this, we used

ATP to compete off mant-ADP, a fluorescent ADP analog and we observed at least a

three-fold increase in the IC_{50} for ClpX*, suggesting that it binds ATP worse than

wildtype ClpX (Figure S5A). To make sure that the observed difference in the IC_{50}

between ClpX and ClpX* was due to changes in nucleotide binding and not because of

the hydrolysis of ATP in the assay, we also competed mant-ADP using ATPγS and

assayed changes using fluorescence polarization. Consistent with the ATP titration

described above, we calculated a higher IC_{50} for ATPγS for ClpX* (Figure S5B).

As seen previously, degradation of GFP-ssrA by ClpXP is precipitously lost below a

minimum threshold of ATP (Martin et al., 2008), with the ClpX*P threshold being higher

than that of wildtype, consistent with the higher K_M for ATP described above (Figure

S5C). For ClpX*P, casein degradation reduced monotonically as ATP concentration

was lowered (Figure 5B). In striking contrast, we found that for wildtype ClpXP, casein

degradation was increased at intermediate nucleotide concentrations compared to

saturating ATP (Figure 5B). Kinetic analysis shows that at these lower ATP

concentrations ClpXP degrades casein with a lower K_M and a similar V_{max} compared to

saturating ATP conditions (Figure 5C). Since $K_M = K_D + k_{cat}/k_{on}$, the lower K_M suggests

that, at a minimum, casein must bind better to ClpX at these concentrations.

These results suggest that ClpX specificity depends on ATP concentration and rates of

hydrolysis, with lower levels of ATP facilitating ClpX recognition of some substrates

better than at saturating ATP concentrations. Similar to casein, we saw this same

dependence *in vitro* with the Lon substrates DnaA and SciP (Figure 5D and S5D). To

test this effect *in vivo*, we monitored degradation of DnaA during starvation, which

should decrease cellular ATP levels, using a Δ*lon* Δ*clpA* strain to eliminate any non-

ClpX dependent degradation (Liu et al., 2016). We verified that glucose starvation

results in DnaA degradation in wildtype cells (Gorbatyuk and Marczynski, 2005; Figure

5E) and showed that starving Δ*lon* Δ*clpA* also markedly increased DnaA degradation

(Figure 5E). During this starvation there was also a drop in bulk ATP levels (Figure

S5E), though we note that the magnitude of the drop is less than the changes we

observe *in vitro* that alter ClpX specificity. We conclude that ClpX preference depends

on ATP binding or hydrolysis, with its specificity expanded under limiting ATP

conditions.

We considered if conformational changes in ClpX might explain the altered specificity of

wildtype ClpX at low ATP or the changes associated with ClpX*. Using limited

proteolysis to probe conformational differences we found that ClpX at low ATP was

more protease accessible than at high ATP (Figure 6A). Similarly, protease accessibility

of ClpX* at high ATP resembled the wildtype ClpX at low ATP (Figure 6A). Using

differential scanning fluorimetry (DSF), we found that ClpX* was destabilized in

comparison to wildtype ClpX at high ATP (Figure 6B). As expected, limiting ATP for

wildtype ClpX also resulted in less thermal stability (Figure 6B) as ATP binding is known

to be needed for ClpX oligomerization (Hersch *et al.*, 2005). Taken together, these

results suggest that under high ATP concentrations, the mutant ClpX* adopts a set of

conformational states that is overall less stable that wildtype.

To gain more clarity on what structural features might be different in these states, we

performed hydrogen-deuterium exchange coupled with mass spectrometry (HDX-MS) to

determine specific regions of ClpX and ClpX* that differ in dynamics. We compared

ClpX and ClpX* in high ATP conditions (4 mM) and found that ClpX* peptides generally

showed faster exchange than the equivalent peptides from wildtype ClpX (Figure 6C,

S6B-C). One of these peptides (residues 186-200) was the most deprotected in ClpX*

compared to ClpX and is buried in the pore of the closed substrate-bound structure of

ClpX (Protein Data Bank ID: 6PO1) (Figure 6C, Figure S6C). Speculation on these

results is discussed below.

Discussion

Because proteolysis is irreversible, degradation of substrates must be carefully

monitored to avoid toxic consequences. In bacteria, different energy dependent

proteases have distinct substrate preferences that allows them to collectively regulate

proteome dynamics. However, how these energy-dependent proteases choose their

target substrates from a pool of cellular proteins remains poorly understood. Certain

determinants that dictate specificity include degrons, or degradation tags, such as the

ssrA tag which marks proteins for degradation by ClpXP or ClpAP (Keiler, 2015; Keiler

et al., 1996). Specificity can be augmented through adaptor proteins that help deliver

substrates to proteases. For example, degradation of CtrA in *Caulobacter* is restricted to

the ClpXP protease via a highly regulated series of adaptors (Joshi et al., 2015).

In this work, we identified a mutant allele of *clpX* (*clpX**) that compensates for the loss
of Lon through expanding ClpXP substrate specificity (Figure 6D). The variant ClpX*P
protease complements the growth, motility, replication status, and morphology defects
of a Δ*lon* strain (Figure 1A-1C) by restoring levels and degradation of the Lon substrates
DnaA and SciP (Figure 2), which we confirm with biochemical experiments (Figure 3).
Interestingly, ClpX*P has an improved ability to degrade unfolded protein substrates, a
feature that likely explains the increased proteotoxic tolerance of Δ*lon clpX** strains
(Figure 3). Finally, this *clpX* variant is deficient in proteolysis of normal ClpXP
substrates, such as CtrA and ssrA-tagged proteins, suggesting a shift in substrate
preference rather than just an expansion (Figure 4, 6D). Mechanistic enzymology
revealed that ClpX* requires ~5-fold more ATP for saturation of ATP hydrolysis (Figure
5A), leading us to explore the role of ATP levels in controlling specificity. Surprisingly,
our *in vitro* studies found that wildtype ClpXP is better at degrading unfolded proteins,
DnaA, and SciP in ATP limiting conditions, but worse at degrading ssrA-tagged
proteins, similar to the behavior of ClpX*P even in saturating ATP conditions (Figure 5B,
5D, 6D, S5D). *In vivo*, DnaA degradation by wildtype ClpXP is accelerated (Figure 5E)
in starvation conditions that also deplete ATP. We speculate that the features which
alter ClpX* specificity even in high ATP conditions may also underlie the same change
in specificity seen with wildtype ClpX under low ATP conditions.

How does altered ATP levels or altered ability to use ATP change ClpX substrate
recognition? One model builds on emerging cryo-EM structures which have revealed
shared features of substrate-bound AAA+ complexes, namely a shallow right-handed
ring with pore loops gripping the substrate and at least 4 ATP-bound protomers (Fei et
al., 2020; Gates et al., 2017; Lopez et al., 2020; Ripstein et al., 2020; Shin et al., 2020).
Substrate-free forms of these machines show more open, often left-handed, spiral
structures (Shin et al., 2020; Yokom et al., 2016). Our limited proteolysis experiments,
which show faster chymotrypsin cleavage kinetics for ClpX* and wildtype ClpX at low
ATP, suggest that they adopt distinct conformations from wildtype ClpX at saturating

ATP (Figure 6A). Using HDX-MS, we find regions of ClpX* that show faster exchange

than wildtype ClpX at saturating ATP (Figure 6C, Figure S6A).

One possible model that arrives from these results is that ClpX normally samples

an 'open' state and a 'closed' state dependent on ATP levels. The 'closed' state is the

right-handed structure found in previous ClpXP structures (Fei et al., 2020; Ripstein et

al., 2020), while the 'open' state would be more similar to the left-handed spiral

structures found in substrate-free complexes (Shin et al., 2020; Yokom et al., 2016).

We modeled this open state for ClpX by aligning six ClpX monomers with the AAA

domains of substrate-free Lon from *Yersinia pestis* (Protein Data Bank ID: 6V11; Shin et

al., 2020). The peptide corresponding to residues 186-200 was no longer buried in this

modeled structure, consistent with a model where ClpX* can more readily adopt an

open state (Figure S6D). In this case, limiting ATP or appropriate mutations can shift the

open/closed balance toward the open state, which allows ClpX to better capture certain

substrates, such as unfolded proteins, that may not have as strict sequence

requirements for recognition (Figure S6E). However, degrons such as the ssrA tag

which bind selectively to the closed conformation (Hersch et al., 2005) would be poorly

recognized in these conditions (Figure S6E).

Alternatively, the changes in substrate specificity for ClpX* in saturating ATP

conditions and wildtype ClpX under low ATP conditions could be due to entirely distinct

mechanisms. For example, under low ATP concentrations, the ClpX oligomer is likely

unstable. As evidence of this, our DSF experiments show additional destabilization of

ClpX in low ATP conditions compared to either ClpX* and ClpX at saturating ATP

(Figure 6B). Similarly, using HDX-MS, we observed that ClpX in low ATP conditions

shows faster exchange across the entire sequence of ClpX in comparison to ClpX at

high ATP (Figure S6A). The destabilization of the ClpX hexamer could be underlying the

decreased GFP-ssrA degradation observed upon limiting ATP. However, this model

does not explain why ClpX under limited ATP conditions degrades FITC-Casein, DnaA,

and SciP better than at saturating ATP. Another possibility could be that ATP directly

competes with these substrates for degradation. In this case, intermediate nucleotide

concentrations provide enough ATP to power degradation and to also relieve inhibition,

allowing ClpX to degrade these substrates. However, to date, there is no evidence that

nucleotides directly compete with protein substrates for ClpX.

Prior work has shown that limiting nucleotide leads to loss of substrate

degradation by ClpXP (Martin et al., 2008), as would make sense for an ATP-fueled

unfoldase. We note that these studies exclusively used ssrA-tagged substrates, which

require an ATP-bound ('closed') form of ClpX for recognition (Martin et al., 2008). Thus,

the equivalent effects we are seeing here for casein, DnaA, and SciP would not have

been previously observed, which highlights the importance of using a range of

substrates in understanding activity. In our current work, we speculate that different

states of ClpX, favored by either limiting ATP or mutation, can result in meaningful

biological consequences. Intriguingly, similar conclusions were drawn for the

chaperonin GroEL, where mutants with a shifted specificity that improves folding of one

class of clients at the expense of others also resulted in an altered ATPase cycle

attributed to changes in conformational lifetimes (Wang et al., 2002). Overall, it seems

that exclusive substrate profiles for AAA+ systems are not hard-wired but can be altered

not only by mutations but also through modulation of ATP hydrolysis, demonstrating a

plasticity in these machines that yield flexibility in maintaining cellular proteostasis.

Limitations of the study

While our final model that ATP affects the dynamics of open/closed states of ClpX

oligomers satisfies our biochemical and cellular results, we acknowledge that there are

limitations in the experimental support of our model. One of the major concerns is that

ClpX oligomerization is ATP dependent, therefore under reduced ATP conditions the

partial dissociation of ClpX into inactive monomers is a confounding factor in our

interpretation of the results. A second concern is that although we favor a model where

ClpX* at saturating ATP mimics wildtype ClpX under limiting ATP in terms of the

mechanisms leading to shifted substrate specificity, it is possible that ClpX* has shifted

substrate preference for a reason completely different than why wildtype ClpX under

limiting ATP conditions has a similar shifted specificity. Because we have not directly

measured ATP stoichiometry, we also cannot say for certain whether ClpX or ClpX*

differ in nucleotide occupancy at saturating ATP concentrations. Finally, although open

apo-state spirals and closed substrate-bound rings have been found for several AAA+

family members (as described above), these have yet to be directly seen for ClpX.

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B.A.; Writing, S.A.M and P.C.; Funding Acquisition, P.C. Supervision, P.C.

Declaration of Interests: The authors declare no competing interests
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456 **Main Text Figure Legends**
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Figure 1: *clpX* mutant suppresses *Δlon* phenotypes**
A. Growth curves of *wild type* (*wt*), *Δlon, and Δlon clpX** cells grown in PYE. Biological
triplicate experiments are shown. Error bars represent 95% confidence interval. Inset
shows motility assays as measured by growth in 0.3% PYE agar.
B. Representative phase-contrast microscopy images of *wt, Δlon, and Δlon clpX** cells
grown in PYE during exponential phase. Quantification of cell length and stalk length for
three biological replicates of n=100 cells.
C. Serial dilution assays comparing colony formation of strains in PYE and PYE
supplemented with mitomycin C. Spots are plated 10-fold dilutions of exponentially
growing cells from left to right.
D. Flow cytometry profiles showing chromosome content of indicated strains after three-
hour treatment with rifampicin. Cells were stained with SYTOX Green to measure DNA
content. The fluorescent intensities corresponding to one chromosome (1) and two

chromosomes (2) are indicated. Experiment was performed two times. Representative
data from one of the biological replicates is shown here.
E. Venn diagram summarizing the number of differentially expressed genes with an
FDR cutoff < 0.01 from RNA seq performed with stationary phase cells. Venn diagram
created by BioVenn (Hulsen, de Vlieg and Alkema, 2008).
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477 See also Figure S1 and Supplementary File 1.
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Figure 2: *clpX** mutant restores levels of Lon substrates through degradation
A. Lon degrades DnaA, SciP, and CcrM in *C. crescentus* (Wright *et al.*, 1996; Gora *et*
al., 2013; Jonas *et al.*, 2013).
B. Western blot showing DnaA and CcrM levels in *wt, Δlon, and Δlon clpX** cells.
Lysates from an equal number of exponential phase cells were probed with anti-DnaA
or anti-CcrM antibody. ClpP was used as a loading control. A representative image and
quantifications of triplicate experiments are shown. Line represents the mean.
C. Antibiotic shutoff assays to monitor DnaA and CcrM stabilities in wt*, Δlon, and Δlon*
clpX* cells. Chloramphenicol was added to stop synthesis and lysates from samples at
the indicated time points were used for western blot analysis. Quantifications of triplicate
experiments with substrate shown relative to ClpP control levels are shown to the right.
Error bars represent SD.
D. Western blot showing SciP levels in synchronized populations of wt, *Δlon, and Δlon*
clpX* cells. Swarmer cells were isolated using a density gradient and an equal number
of cells were released into fresh PYE medium. Samples were withdrawn at the indicated
time points and probed with anti-SciP.
E. DnaA stability is measured in Δ*lon* strains expressing an extra copy of wildtype *clpX*
or *clpX**. Experiment was performed four times. Representative data from one of the
biological replicates is shown here. Quantifications of experiments shown to the right.
Error bars represent SD.
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501 See also Figure S2.
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Figure 3: ClpX*P degrades some Lon substrates faster than ClpXP *in vitro*.
A. *In vitro* degradation of DnaA, SciP, or CcrM. Assays were performed with 0.1 μM
$ClpX_6$ or $ClpX_6^*$, and 0.2 μM $ClpP_{14}$. Substrate concentrations were 1 μM DnaA, 5 μM
SciP, 0.5 μM CcrM. Quantification of triplicate experiments shown. Error bars represent
SD.
B. *In vitro* fluorescence degradation assay of FITC-casein in the presence of ClpXP or
ClpX*P or Lon. Degradation assays were performed with 10μg/mL FITC-Casein, 0.1 μM
$ClpX_6$ or $ClpX_6^*$ and 0.2 μM $ClpP_{14}$ or 0.1 μM Lon_6. Serial dilution assays comparing
colony formation of strains in PYE and PYE supplemented with L-canavanine. Spots are
plated 10-fold dilutions of exponentially growing cells from left to right.
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515 See also Figure S3.
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Figure 4: ClpX* mutant is deficient in degradation of native ClpXP substrates
A. Michaelis-Menten plot showing the rate of degradation as a function of GFP-ssrA
concentration by ClpXP and ClpX*P. Inset displays kinetic parameters. Assays were
performed with 0.1 µM $ClpX_6$ or $ClpX*_6$, 0.2 µM $ClpP_{14}$, ATP regeneration system, and
the indicated concentrations of GFP-ssrA. Data was fitted to Michaelis-Menten
equation. Triplicate experiments are shown.
B. *In vitro* degradation assay of His-CtrA in the presence of ClpXP or ClpX*P.
Degradation assays were performed with 3 µM His-CtrA, 0.1 µM $ClpX_6$ or $ClpX*_6$, 0.2
µM $ClpP_{14}$, and ATP regeneration system. Quantification of duplicate experiments is
shown below. Error bars represent SD.
C. *In vivo* degradation assay showing eGFP-ssrA (DAS), DnaA, and CtrA stability in *wt*
and *clpX** cells. The plasmid encoded M2FLAG-eGFP-ssrA (DAS) construct was
induced with the addition of 0.2% xylose. Chloramphenicol was used to inhibit protein
synthesis. Samples were withdrawn at the indicated time points and quenched in SDS
lysis buffer. Lysate from an equal number of cells was used for western blot analysis
and probed with anti-M2, or anti-CtrA, and anti-DnaA antibody. Quantification of
triplicate experiments is shown below. Error bars represent SD.
D. Competition assay with wildtype cells harboring xylX::Plac-venus (constitutive venus
expression) and nonfluorescent wt or *clpX** strains. exponential phase cells were mixed
1:1, diluted, and allowed to outgrow for 12 doublings. Quantification of triplicate
experiments is shown below. Error bars represent SD.
E. Serial dilution assays comparing colony formation of *wt* and *clpX** cells in PYE and
PYE supplemented with MMC. Spots are plated 10-fold dilutions of exponentially
growing cells from left to right.
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543 See also Figure S4.
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Figure 5: Limiting ATP alters wildtype ClpXP substrate specificity

A. Michaelis-Menten plot showing the rate of ClpX/ClpX* catalyzed ATP hydrolysis as a
function of ATP concentration. Inset displays kinetic parameters. Assays were
performed with 0.1 µM $ClpX_6$ or $ClpX*_6$, in the presence and absence of 0.2 µM $ClpP_{14}$.
Data was fitted to Michaelis-Menten equation. Triplicate experiments are shown.
B. FITC-Casein degradation by ClpXP or ClpX*P as a function of ATP concentration.
Assays were performed with 0.1 µM $ClpX_6$ or $ClpX*_6$, 0.2 µM $ClpP_{14}$, ATP regeneration
system, and 50 µg/mL FITC-Casein. Rates were normalized to highest concentration of
ATP. Non-normalized rates shown in the inset.
C. Michaelis-Menten plot showing the rate of degradation as a function of FITC-Casein
concentration by ClpXP under low and saturating ATP conditions. Inset displays kinetic
parameters. Assays were performed with 0.1 µM $ClpX_6$, 0.2 µM $ClpP_{14}$, and ATP
regeneration system. Data was fitted to Michaelis-Menten equation. Triplicate
experiments are shown.

D. *In vitro* degradation of DnaA by ClpXP under low and saturating ATP conditions. Assays were performed with 0.1 µM $ClpX_6$, and 0.2 µM $ClpP_{14}$ and 0.5 µM DnaA. Quantification of triplicate experiments.

E. Antibiotic shutoff assays to monitor DnaA under ATP limiting conditions in *wt* and *Δlon ΔclpA* strains. Chloramphenicol was added to stop synthesis and lysates from samples at the indicated time points were used for western blot analysis. Quantifications of triplicate experiments shown to the right. Error bars represent SD.

See also Figure S5.

Figure 6: ClpX adopts distinct ATP-dependent conformational states
A. Limited proteolysis assay to probe conformational states. ClpX was incubated with Chymotrypsin with either 12 µM ATP or 4 mM ATP in the presence of ClpP and ATP regeneration system at 25 °C for the indicated time points. ClpX* was incubated with Chymotrypsin at 4 mM ATP in the presence of ClpP and ATP regeneration system at 25 °C for the indicated time points. ClpX was detected using anti-ClpX antibodies.
B. Stability of ClpX* with 4 mM ATP, ClpX with 4 mM ATP, and ClpX with 12 µM ATP as measured by differential scanning fluorimetry. Triplicate experiments shown.
C. Woods plot comparing deuterium uptake for wildtype ClpX vs ClpX* at 4 mM ATP after 60 minutes. Each bar on Woods plot represents a single peptide with peptide length corresponding to the bar length. Red bars indicate a deprotected (more deuterium uptake) region, blue represents a protected region, and gray bars are not significantly different. Woods plots were created with Deuteros (Lau et al. 2021) using the peptide significance test (p-value <0.01). Residues 186-200 are highlighted in red for the equivalent residues in the substrate-bound *E. coli* ClpX structure (Protein Data Bank ID: 6PO1) using PYMOL (Schrodinger).
D. In a wildtype cell, AAA+ proteases Lon and ClpXP promote normal growth by degrading distinct substrates. ClpX*P can compensate for the absence of the Lon protease by tuning ClpX substrate specificity to better degrade Lon-restricted substrates (such as DnaA, SciP, and misfolded proteins) but this comes at the cost of native ClpXP substrates (such as ssrA-tagged proteins and CtrA). In ATP-limited conditions, wildtype ClpXP can undergo a similar switch in substrate specificity to ClpX*P, gaining the ability to better degrade DnaA, SciP, and misfolded proteins than the wildtype enzyme at saturating ATP.

See also Figure S6.

STAR Methods

RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

Lead Contact

- Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Peter Chien (pchien@umass.edu).

Materials Availability

- All unique/stable reagents generated in this study are available from the Lead Contact without restriction.

Data and Code Availability

- RNAseq data are available in the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO): GSE166765 (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE166765)
- This paper does not report original code.
- Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this paper is available from the lead contact upon request.

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

Bacterial strains

Bacterial strains used in this study are listed in the key resources table. *Caulobacter crescentus* strains were grown in PYE medium (2g/L peptone, 1g/L yeast extract, 1 mM $MgSO_4$, and 0.5 mM $CaCl_2$) at 30°C and supplemented with antibiotics at the following concentrations: kanamycin (25 µg/ml), spectinomycin (100 µg/ml), and oxytetracycline (2 µg/ml). After initial selection steps for strain construction (excluding plasmids), antibiotics were excluded for all assays.

Escherichia coli strains were grown in LB (10g/L NaCl, 10g/L tryptone, 5g/L yeast extract) and supplemented with antibiotics at the following concentrations: ampicillin (100 ug/ml), oxytetracycline (15 µg/ml), spectinomycin (50 µg/ml), kanamycin (50

µg/ml), gentamycin (20 µg/ml). For solid medium, 1.5% agar was used regardless of

bacterial species. For all strains, optical density was measured at 600 nm.

For induction purposes, the 477 plasmids were induced with xylose (0.2%) and

repressed with glucose (0.2%). For protein expression, 0.4 mM IPTG was used for

induction.

METHOD DETAILS

Cloning and strain constructions

All *Caulobacter* strains were derived from CPC176, an isolate of NA1000. To generate

the *Δlon clpX** strain, a two-step recombination protocol with a sucrose counter

selection was utilized (Skerker et al., 2005). The vector pNPTS138 was digested with

HindIII and EcoRI. A PCR product of the *clpX** sequence was amplified from the original

motility suppressor and Gibson assembly was then used to generate pNPTS138_clpX*.

Following transformation with pNPTS138_clpX* into NA1000 or *Δlon*, primary selection

was on PYE supplemented with kanamycin. Primary colonies were grown overnight

without selection and overnight cultures were played on PYE agar supplemented with

3% w/v sucrose. To validate allelic swap, strains were tested for sensitivity to

kanamycin. *Δlon clpX** was also screened by motility and sequencing of the *clpX* locus

validated candidate clones.

ClpX or *clpX** merodiploid strains were generated by Gibson assembly of PCR product

and double digested plasmids of pMCS-2. The plasmids were then electroporated into

Δlon and selected onto kanamycin plates. Strains were validated by anti-ClpX westerns.

eGFP-ssrA(DAS) induction strains were generated by electroporating eGFP-ssrA(DAS)

477 plasmid into wildtype and wildtype *clpX** and selecting on spectinomycin. Strains

were validated by anti-M2 westerns.

Motility suppressor screen

Transposon libraries were generated for *Δlon*. Two-liter PYE cultures were grown to mid

exponential phase, pelleted, and washed with 10% glycerol. Competent cells were

electroporated with Ez-Tn5 <Kan-2> transposome (Lucigen, Madison, WI). Cells

recovered for 90 minutes at 30 °C and then played on PYE plates supplemented with

kanamycin. Libraries were grown for 7 days. Colonies were then scraped from the

surface, combined, and resuspended to form a homogenous solution of PYE + 20%

glycerol.

The Tn library was thawed out and diluted into a flask containing two-liter 0.3% agar.

The cell agar mixture was plated and grown at 30 °C for 3 to 5 days. Candidates that

appeared motile were validated by inoculating single colonies into motility agar on the

same plate as NA1000 as a positive control and *Δlon* as a negative control and

incubating plates for 2-3 days at 30 °C.

Motility assay

A single colony was inoculated into PYE with 0.3% agar using a sterile pipette tip and

left to incubate at 30°C for 2 to 3 days.

Whole genome sequencing

Genomic DNA was extracted using the MasterPure Complete DNA and RNA

purification kit (Epicenter Biotechnologies, Madison, WI). A Qubit Fluorometer

(ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) was utilized to assess DNA concentration.

Illumina libraries were generated from the extracted genomic DNA using the NexteraXT

(Illumina, San Diego, CA) protocol. Libraries were multiplexed and sequenced at the

University of Massachusetts Amherst Genomics Core Facility on the NextSeq 500

(Illumina). Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) were detected using breseq

(Deatherage and Barrick, 2014).

RNA sequencing

RNA was extracted from stationary phase cells. Libraries were generated from the

extracted RNA using the NEB Next RNA Library Prep kits (NEB, Ipswich, MA). Libraries

were sequenced at the University of Massachusetts Genomics Core Facility on the

NextSeq 500 with single end 75 base reads.

Plating viability and drug sensitivity

All *Caulobacter* strains were grown overnight in liquid PYE media. After overnight

growth, cells were back diluted to OD600 0.1 and outgrown to mid-exponential phase

before being normalized to OD_{600} 0.1 and 10-fold serially diluted on to media. For

experiments using mitomycin C (Sigma, St. Louis, MO) and L-canavanine (Sigma),

drugs were prepared at a stock concentration of 400 µg/ml mitomycin C, and 100 mg/ml

L-canavanine and filter sterilized. PYE agar was cooled before the drugs were added

and plates were left to air dry prior to serial dilution plating. All plates were incubated at

30℃ for 2-3 days and imaged with a Syngene G:Box.

In vivo **assays**

The stability of proteins *in vivo* was determined by inhibiting protein synthesis upon

addition of 30 µg/ml chloramphenicol to cells in exponential phase. At each time point,

1ml of culture was removed and centrifuged at 15,000 rpm for 2 minutes. The

supernatant was removed and pellets were flash frozen in liquid nitrogen. Pellets were

thawed, resuspended in 2x SDS dye, and normalized to the OD_{600} of the lowest sample.

Samples were boiled for 10 minutes and centrifuged for 10 minutes at 15,000 rpm.

Extracts were run on 10% Bis-Tris gels for 1 hour at room temperature at 150 V. Gels

were then transferred to nitrocellulose membranes for 1 hour at room temperature at

20V. Membranes were blocked with 3% milk in Tris-based saline with 0.05% Tween-20

(TBST) for 1 hour. Membranes were probed with primary antibody in 3% milk in TBST

at 4°C overnight with following dilution factors: 1:5000 dilution of DnaA, 1:5000 SciP,

1:5000 CcrM, 1:5000 ClpP, 1:2500 Lon, and 1:2000 M2. Membranes were washed with

1x TBST for 5 minutes three times and then probed with Licor secondary antibody with

1:10,000 dilution in 1x TBST at room temperature for 1 hour.

To synchronize *Caulobacter* strains, cells were grown to an OD600 of 0.3-0.5 in PYE

and swarmer cells were isolated using Percoll density centrifugation. Cells were

released into PYE.

Flow cytometry was used to measure DNA content in rifampicin-treated cells as

previously described (Chen et al., 2009). Cells were treated with rifampicin for three

hours prior to fixing in 70% ethanol.

Carbon starvation

Cells were grown in M2G media (6.1 mM Na_2HPO_4, 3.9 mM KH_2PO_4, 9.3 mM NH_4Cl,

0.5 mM $MgSO_4$, 0.5 mM CaCl2, 10 µM $FeSO_4$ (EDTA chelate), 0.2% glucose). Cells

were then washed twice in cold M2G media (+glucose samples) or in M2 media (-

glucose samples) and resuspended in pre-warmed M2G or M2 media.

Growth competition assay

Overnight cultures of CPC798 were mixed with either *NA1000* or *clpX** at a 1:1 ratio.

For competition assays with *Δlon* strains, overnight cultures of CPC807 were mixed with

either *Δlon* or *Δlon clpX** at a 1:1 ratio. Mixed strains were diluted into fresh PYE and

allowed to outgrow for 12 doublings overnight. The initial populations were verified by

phase contrast and fluorescent microscopy. Final ratios were normalized to their starting

ratios. Data was plotted using GraphPad Prism.

Microscopy

Phase contrast images of logarithmically growing cells were taken by Zeiss AXIO Scope

A1. Cells were mounted on 1% PYE agar pads and imaged using a 100X objective.

Representative images of the same scale were cropped to display morphological

defects.

Protein purification and modification

Untagged Lon, untagged ClpX and ClpX*, and his-tagged ClpP were purified as

previously described (Chien et al., 2007b; Goldberg et al., 1994; Gur and Sauer, 2008b;

Levchenko et al., 2000). Titin-I27-β20 was purified as previously described (Gur and

Sauer, 2008b; Kenniston et al., 2003) and labeled with Fluorescein-5-maleimide

(Thermo Scientific) under guanidine hydrochloride denaturation. The modified protein

was buffer exchanged into H-buffer (20 mM Hepes pH 7.5, 100 mM KCl, 10 mM MgCl2,

10% glycerol) and stored at 4°C. The concentration of fluorescein-modified Titin-I27-β20

was determined using the Bradford assay (Thermo Scientific). FITC-Casein (Type III,

Sigma) was prepared in water and stored at -20°C. His$_6$SciP and his$_6$CtrA were purified

as described in (Gora et al., 2013b). DnaA and CcrM were purified as his$_6$SUMO tagged

proteins, followed by tag cleavage as described (Jonas et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2016;

Wang et al., 2007). GFP-ssrA was purified as previously described (Yakhnin et al.,

1998). CtrA-RD+15 was purified as described (Smith et al., 2014b). Detailed purification

protocols are available upon request.

***In vitro* reconstitution assays**

Degradation assays were performed at 30°C and monitored using SDS-PAGE gels as

described previously (Bhat et al., 2013). The final concentrations used can be found in

the figure legends.

Limited proteolysis

To perform limited chymotrypsin digestion, 0.004 mg/mL chymotrypsin was added to

0.01 mg/mL ClpX or ClpX* in the presence of ClpP and ATP regeneration system and

incubated at 25°C in Hepes buffer (20 mM Hepes pH 7.5, 100 mM KCl, 10 mM MgCl2,

10% glycerol) for indicated time points. To quench the reactions, 5X SDS dye

supplemented with 5 mM Protease inhibitor phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF) was

added. The samples were run on a 10% Bis-Tris gel and transferred to nitrocellulose as

described above. Membranes were probed with primary antibody in 3% milk in TBST at

4°C overnight with following dilution factors: 1:5000 dilution of ClpX. Membranes were

washed with 1x TBST for 5 minutes three times and then probed with Licor secondary

antibody with 1:10,000 dilution in 1x TBST at room temperature for 1 hour. The protein

was visualized using Licor Odyssey CLx.

Binding of ADP to ClpX

625 nM mant-ADP was pre-incubated with 300 nM $ClpX_6/ClpX_6^*$ for 10 minutes.

Subsequently, ATPγS was added to compete off the mant-ADP at various

concentrations. Polarization measurements were read from 20 uL of these mixtures

after an additional 15-minute incubation using opaque black NBS 384-well plates

(Corning) and a SpectraMax M5 plate reader (Molecular Devices), with excitation and

emission wavelengths set at 357 and 445 nm, respectively.

Differential scanning fluorimetry

Differential scanning fluorimetry was carried out in a Biorad realtime PCR thermocycler.

6 µM monomer of ClpX or ClpX* in the presence of 4 mM ATP or 12 µM ATP was mixed

in a 1:1 ratio with 4X Sypro Orange in Hepes Buffer (20 mM Hepes pH 7.5, 100 mM

KCl, 10 mM $MgCl_2$). The resulting mixtures were incubated at room temperature for 30

mins to allow the Sypro Orange to coat the proteins before subjecting triplicate samples

to thermal unfolding from 25 °C to 95 °C. Melting temperatures were calculated by fitting

of a 5-parameter sigmoid curve using the JTSA software (P. Bond,

https://paulsbond.co.uk/jtsa).

Hydrogen-deuterium exchange mass spectrometry (HDX-MS)

Hydrogen-deuterium exchange experiments were carried out on a Synapt G2Si high-

definition mass spectrometer (Waters) using an automated HDX robotics platform

(Waters). Samples of 5.4 µM ClpX or ClpX* monomer were diluted 1:16 in D_2O buffer

containing 20 mM Hepes, 10 mM $MgCl_2$, 100 mM KCl, and 5% glycerol. D_2O and H_2O

buffers were supplemented with 4 mM ATP plus regeneration system (30 mM creatine

kinase and 0.5 mg/mL creatine phosphate) for the high ATP condition and 12 µM ATP

for the low ATP condition. Deuterium exchange was allowed to take place for 0, 10

seconds, 1 min, 10 minutes, and 60 min at 25 °C. The samples were subsequently

quenched by addition of cold quench buffer (233 mM Sodium Phosphate pH 2.5) and

run over an immobilized Waters ENZYMATE immobilized pepsin column (inner

diameter: 2.1 × 30 mm) at a flow rate of 0.15 mL/min at high pressure (~11,000 psi) for

peptide digestion. Blank runs were run in between each analysis to avoid peptide carry

over. Continuous lock-mass correction was performed using leu-enkephalin compound.

Peptides were ionized and separated by electrospray ionization for analysis at a mass

resolution of 50 to 2,000 *m/z* range. Peptides were identified with triplicate undeuterated

samples from each condition. Specific peptide regions were mapped onto the

corresponding residues in the *E. coli* cryo-EM structure (PDB ID: 6PO1) using PYMOL

(Version 2.5.0, Schrödinger). A model of ClpX in the potential open state was created

by aligning each ClpX monomer to each ATPase monomer of the *Y. pestis* substrate-

free cryo-EM structure (PDB ID: 6V11) by using the align function in PYMOL.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Graphs were generated in GraphPad Prism. Unless otherwise stated in the figure

legend, results represent the mean ± Standard Deviation (SD). Sample sizes are also

reported in the figure notes. Error bars for the growth curves shown in Figure 1A

represent the 95% confidence interval.

RNA sequencing data

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Reads were mapped to the *Caulobacter* genome using BWA (Li and Durbin, 2009) and

sorted with Samtools (Li et al., 2009).To obtain the number of reads per gene, *bedtools*

map (Quinlan and Hall, 2010) was used. Rstudio and EdgeR was used to identify

differentially expressed genes (R Core Team, 2019; Robinson et al., 2009).

Raw counts were normalized using the counts-per-million (CPM) method, and the

edgeR package in R was used to perform differential gene expression analysis, KEGG

pathway analysis, and FRY (Wu et al., 2010) gene set analysis. We filtered out any

gene that had less than 30 normalized counts across 3 or more samples. To test for

gene expression differences and identify differentially expressed genes across

experimental groups, we used the quasi-likelihood F-test. The over-representation

analysis for KEGG pathways done using the *kegga* function. FRY gene set analysis

done using the *fry* function. The CcrM, DnaA, and SciP regulons were obtained from

(Gonzalez et al., 2014; Hottes et al., 2005; Tan et al., 2010).

***In vivo* assays**

For western blots, proteins were visualized using Licor Odyssey CLx. Bands were

quantified using ImageJ (NIH) and degradation rates were plotted using Prism

(Graphpad).

For bulk measurements of intracellular ATP, the Bactiter-Glo microbial cell viability

assay kit (Promega) was used. Cells were mixed with an equal volume of BacTiter-Glo

reagent in 384-well microtiter plates and incubated for five minutes before luminescence

was measured.

For microscopy, MicrobeJ (Ducret et al., 2016) for ImageJ (Schneider et al., 2012) was

utilized to quantify cell lengths. Stalk lengths were quantified using ImageJ. Prism was

utilized for representations of cell and stalk length measurements.

***In vitro* assays**

Densitometry for degradation assays was performed with ImageJ and degradation rates

were plotted using Prism.

Degradation of FITC-Casein and FT-Titin-B20 was monitored as an increase in

fluorescence over time. GFP-CtrARD+15 degradation was observed as a loss of

fluorescence over time as described previously (Smith et al., 2014b).

ATP hydrolysis for ClpXP and ClpX*P was measured using a coupled kinase assay as

previously described (Burton et al., 2003).

For binding of ADP to ClpX, IC50s were calculated by fitting the polarization data using

GraphPad Prism to an inhibitor versus response – variable slope (four paramaters)

function in GraphPad Prism: $Y=Bottom + (Top-Bottom)/(1+(IC50/X)^{HillSlope})$ where

IC50 is the ATPγS concentration halfway between bottom and top.

For differential scanning fluorimetry, melting temperatures were calculated by fitting of a

5-parameter sigmoid curve using the JTSA software (P. Bond,

https://paulsbond.co.uk/jtsa).

HDX-MS data

HDX-MS experiments were performed in triplicate. Identification of peptides and

analysis of the uptake plots and charge states for each peptide were completed in

Protein Lynx Global Server and DynamX (v. 3.0, Waters). The following processing

paramaters were utilized: minimum peptide intensity of 1000, minimum peptide length of

5, maximum peptide length of 30, minimum MS/MS products of 2, minimum products

per amino acid of 0.25, minimum score of 5, and maximum MH+ error threshold of 15

p.p.m. Woods plots were generated by Deuteros (Lau et al., 2021) using the peptide

significance test (p-value <0.01). HDX data summary for each condition was exported

from Deuteros and can be found in Supplementary File 3. No correction was made for

back-exchange.

Descriptive titles for Supplemental Files

DataS1. This file contains the RNA sequencing experiments referred to in Main Figure 1.
DataS1.xlsx

DataS2. This file contains the Hydrogen Deuterium Exchange log for experiments shown in
Main Figure 6. DataS2.pdf

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

A.

min. after chymotrypsin addition

ClpX

4 mM ATP | 12 μM ATP

ClpX*

4 mM ATP

0 5 10 20 40 | 0 5 10 20 40 | 0 5 10 20 40

— 55 kDa
— 40 kDa
— 35 kDa
— 25 kDa

B.

	T_m (°C)
4 mM ATP	
● ClpX	55.1 ± 0.1
● ClpX*	50.2 ± 0.1
12 μM ATP	
● ClpX	43.5 ± 1.7

Residues 186-200

C.

ClpX vs ClpX* (4 mM ATP)

Deprotected: 9
Protected : 1
Non-significant: 107

D.

ClpX
ClpP

Lon

CtrA
ssrA
DnaA
SciP

Unfolded substrates

ClpX*

ClpX low ATP

Wildtype substrate specificity

Shifted substrate specificity