Regulation of late-acting operons by three transcription factors and a CRISPR-Cas component

during *Myxococcus xanthus* development

Shreya Saha and Lee Kroos*

Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI

48824, USA.

Running title: Complex regulation of sporulation genes during *M. xanthus* development

*For correspondence. E-mail kroos@msu.edu; Tel. (+1) 517 355 9726; Fax (+1) 517 353 9334.

Abstract

Starvation induces *Myxococcus xanthus* multicellular development. Rod-shaped cells move,

forming mounds. Within mounds, rods differentiate into round, stress-resistant spores. C-

signaling is proposed to activate FruA, which binds DNA cooperatively with MrpC to increase

transcription of many genes. We report that the regulation of late-acting operons involved in

spore metabolism (*fadIJ*) and coat biogenesis (*exoA-I*, *exoL-P*, *nfsA-H*) is more complex. These

operons appear to be negatively regulated by FruA prior to its activation, then positively

regulated by C-signal-activated FruA, based on transcript levels in mutants. Although MrpC is

required to produce FruA, loss of MrpC affected transcript levels differentially. Transcript

measurements also indicated that transcription factor Nla6 is a positive regulator of late-acting

operons, whereas the DevI component of a CRISPR-Cas system is a negative regulator. FruA

bound to all four promoter regions *in vitro*, but each promoter was unique in terms of whether

or not MrpC and/or Nla6 bound, and in terms of cooperative binding. Whereas FruA switches

from negative to positive regulation of all four operons temporally, MrpC and Nla6 appear to

exert operon-specific temporal regulation. We propose that complex, differential regulation of

late-acting operons ensures that spore resistance and surface characteristics meet

environmental demands.

Author Summary

Starving *Myxococcus xanthus* bacteria coordinate their movements to build multicellular

mounds on a solid surface. Within the mounds rod-shaped cells transform into round spores

that can survive starvation and other harsh conditions. Thousands of genes must be properly

regulated in response to many signals to complete this developmental process. We

investigated the regulation of genes whose products act near the end of the process to change

metabolism of the spore and protect its contents by depositing a polysaccharide coat on its

surface. We discovered that the regulation of these genes is unusually complex. It involves

three transcription factors that respond to different signals and bind to the promoter regions in

different combinations. This allows each promoter to be regulated uniquely. Combinatorial

regulation of this complexity is common in higher eukaryotes, but not in bacteria. In addition,

all the promoters are controlled by a CRISPR-Cas system. These systems typically defend

bacteria against viral infection. Our results suggest that *M. xanthus* evolved complex

eukaryotic-like combinatorial control of transcription and a link to a CRISPR-Cas system to

thwart viral intrusion while making spores suited suited to withstand starvation and

environmental insults.

Introduction

The Gram-negative soil bacterium *Myxococcus xanthus* provides an attractive model system to

study signal-induced gene regulation and bacterial community behavior (1). Upon nutrient

depletion, cells move on solid surfaces and form mounds, within which some of the rod-shaped

cells differentiate into round, stress-resistant spores. During this multicellular developmental

process of fruiting body formation, a majority of the population undergoes lysis, while some

cells remain outside of fruiting bodies as peripheral rods (2, 3).

A signal-responsive gene regulatory network governs the developmental process of *M.*

xanthus (4). Starvation triggers production of the intracellular secondary messenger molecules

(p)ppGpp (5, 6) and c-di-GMP (7), which lead to production of the extracellular A- and C-signals

(5, 8-10) and exopolysaccharide (7), respectively. The short-range C-signal appears to be a

proteolytic fragment of the CsgA protein (11-13) and/or diacylglycerols produced by cardiolipin

phospholipase activity of full-length CsgA (14), but the mechanisms of signal transduction

remain to be elucidated. C-signaling appears to posttranslationally activate the transcription

factor FruA (15, 16), but the mechanism is unknown. FruA is similar to response regulators of

two-component signal-transduction systems (17). Response regulators are typically activated

by phosphorylation by a histidine kinase (15). However, for several reasons, phosphorylation is

unlikely to be the mechanism by which FruA is activated in response to C-signaling (16, 18).

Transcription of the *fruA* gene is regulated by a cascade of starvation-responsive

transcription factors that includes MrpC (4, 19), which binds upstream of the *fruA* promoter and

stimulates transcription (20, 21). In addition to transcriptional control of the *mrpC* gene by

starvation (22), the level of MrpC protein is regulated by proteolysis, slowing the pace of

development under the normal conditions of starvation (23, 24) and halting development if

sufficient nutrients are added back before rods become committed to spore formation (25, 26).

In vitro, MrpC and FruA bind cooperatively to the promoter regions of many

developmentally-regulated genes (27). Mutational analyses of five such promoter regions

suggest that cooperative binding to a site just upstream of the promoter stimulates

transcription *in vivo*, whereas binding to nearby sites can increase or decrease transcription (18,

28-31). The different arrangements of binding sites with different affinities for MrpC and FruA

may explain the observed differences between genes in terms of their spatiotemporal patterns

of expression and their extent of dependence on C-signaling for expression (4, 32, 33). The

levels of MrpC, FruA, and CsgA normally rise in starving rods engaged in mound building (3), but

the addition of sufficient nutrients triggers rapid proteolysis of MrpC and prevents the normal

increase in transcripts for proteins involved in sporulation (25, 26). Combinatorial control of

gene expression by MrpC and FruA appears to ensure that only starving rods (in which MrpC

and FruA are synthesized and stably accumulate) aligned in mounds (which enhances short-

range C-signaling between rods, presumably activating FruA within them) commit to spore

formation (4, 18, 25, 33, 34).

Among the genes combinatorially controlled by MrpC and FruA (28), early studies showed

that mutations in the *dev* operon can cause severe defects in sporulation (35-38). The *dev*

operon includes eight genes comprising a CRISPR-Cas system that may protect developing *M.*

xanthus against phage infection (39). The first gene in the *dev* operon, *devI*, codes for a 40-

residue protein that strongly inhibits sporulation when overproduced (40), delays sporulation

by about 6 h when produced at the normal level (16, 41), and exerts weak positive

autoregulation on *dev* transcript accumulation (16). In contrast, in-frame deletions in three

genes of the *dev* operon (*devTRS*) increase accumulation of the *dev* transcript 10-fold during

development (16, 40, 41), indicating that DevTRS proteins exert strong negative autoregulation.

The negative autoregulation by DevTRS proteins is crucial in order to prevent DevI

overproduction from inhibiting sporulation (40, 41).

The products of several other operons act late during the developmental process, impacting

the metabolism of nascent spores and the biogenesis of their coat polysaccharide, but the

regulation of these operons is not fully understood. The putative *fadIJ* operon is normally

induced twofold in sporulating cells, but not in *csgA*, *fruA*, or *mrpC* mutants (42). Recently

published data support that *fadIJ* are co-transcribed as an operon (43). FadIJ are enzymes in a

fatty acid β-oxidation pathway that impacts spore structure and resistance properties (42). The

nfsA-H operon is up-regulated in spores formed during the starvation-induced developmental

process and in spores induced artificially by glycerol addition (44). The starvation-induced up-

regulation fails in a *csgA* mutant, is diminished in a *devRS* mutant, and, unusually, is greater in a

fruA mutant, suggesting negative regulation by FruA (44). The NfsA-H proteins form a complex

involved in biogenesis of the coat polysaccharide to generate compact and rigid stress-resistant

spores (45-47). The *exoA-I* operon (45) is normally induced late in development, but not in *csgA*

or *devRS* mutants (48). Transcription depends on binding of FruA (49) and Nla6 (50) to the

exoA-I promoter region. Interestingly, Nla6 is part of a cascade of enhancer-binding proteins

that responds to starvation early in development (19) and leads to production of MrpC and

FruA (4). Nla6 also binds to the promoter region of the predicted *MXAN_3259–MXAN_3263*

operon and appears to directly regulate transcription (50). Recently published data support

that the five genes are co-transcribed as an operon (43), which was renamed the *exoL-P* operon

based on functional studies (51). The ExoA-I and ExoL-P proteins are involved in the synthesis,

export, and modification of the spore coat polysaccharide (45, 46, 51).

Here, we report systematic investigation of the late-acting *fadIJ*, *nfsA-H*, *exoA-I*, and *exoL-P*

operons with respect to the phenotypes of mutants and the regulation of gene expression. We

found that *exo* mutants exhibit stronger defects in sporulation than an *nfs* mutant, whereas an

fad mutant exhibited very little difference from a "wild-type" (WT) strain under our conditions.

Cooperative binding of MrpC and FruA appears to stimulate transcription of *fadIJ*, but

regulation of *fadIJ* as well as *nfsA-H*, *exoA-I*, and *exoL-P* involves additional complexities, with

FruA acting negatively prior to its activation and then C-signal-activated FruA acting positively

later in development. Binding of MrpC appears to stimulate transcription of *nfsA-H* and *exoL-P*,

albeit with some notable differences, and MrpC appears to indirectly decrease the *exoA*

transcript level. Nla6 is a positive regulator of the late-acting operons early in development and

binds cooperatively with FruA to the *nfsA-H*, *exoL-P*, and *exoA-I* promoter regions, and also

binds cooperatively with MrpC to the *nfsA-H* promoter region. The DevI CRISPR-Cas component

is a negative regulator of the late-acting operons. We conclude that three transcription factors

and a CRISPR-Cas component regulate the late-acting operons and we propose that complex,

differential regulation of genes involved in spore metabolism and coat biogenesis produces

spores suited to withstand environmental insults.

Results

Mutations in *exo* genes impair sporulation more strongly than deletion of the *nfs* operon

In previous work, we established methods to systematically analyze *M. xanthus* development

under submerged culture conditions (16). Submerged culture involves growing cells in nutrient

medium followed by sedimentation, resuspension in starvation buffer, and incubation in a

plastic container. Cells attach to the container bottom and develop under a layer of buffer.

Here, we examined the developmental time course of *exo*, *nfs*, and *fad* mutants microscopically

and by harvesting samples for cellular and molecular analyses.

We compared submerged culture development of mutants with that of WT laboratory

strain DK1622 (52) from which the mutant strains were derived. Specifically, we examined the

effects of an insertion in *fadI* (42), a deletion of the entire *nfsA-H* operon (44), an insertion in

exoC (45, 48), and an insertion in *exoL* (50, 51). As expected (16), the WT strain formed mounds

by 18 h poststarvation (PS) and the mounds began to darken by 30 h (Fig. 1). Darkening

typically correlates with spore formation. The *fadI* mutant was indistinguishable from the WT

strain. The *nfsA-H* mutant was delayed by about 3 h in mound formation and appeared to be

delayed and reduced in mound darkening. The *exoC* and *exoL* mutants formed normal-looking

mounds by 18 h, but subsequent mound darkening was reduced compared to the WT strain,

suggesting sporulation defects.

To quantify changes at the cellular level, we harvested samples from submerged culture and

either treated the samples with glutaraldehyde to fix cells or left the samples untreated (16).

Using the untreated samples, we quantified "sonication-resistant spores" microscopically and

"mature spores" that were heat- and sonication-resistant and capable of germination and

colony formation on nutrient agar. We used the fixed samples to quantify "sonication-sensitive

cells" microscopically (i.e., the total number of cells observed in the fixed sample minus the

number of sonication-resistant spores observed in the corresponding untreated sample). The

vast majority of sonication-sensitive cells were rod-shaped, but we also observed a small

percentage of "transitioning cells" (TCs) intermediate in morphology between rods and spores

(33) in some of the fixed samples.

As expected (16), we first observed sonication-resistant spores at 27 h PS in samples of the

WT strain, and the spores rose from ~0.2% (as a percentage of the number of rod-shaped cells

present at T_0, the time starvation initiated development) to ~2% at 48 h (Fig. 2). The *fadI*

mutant formed more spores than the WT strain. Consistent with the observed mound

darkening defects (Fig. 1), the *nfsA-H* mutant formed less spores than the WT strain, and the

exoC and *exoL* mutants did not form spores (at a detection limit of 0.05% of the T_0 cell number)

(Fig. 2 and Table S1). Neither did the *exoC* and *exoL* mutants form mature spores at 72 h (at a

detection limit of 0.00001% of the T_0 cell number), while the *nfsA-H* mutant made ~15% as

many mature spores as the WT strain, and the *fadI* mutant made a similar number of mature

spores as the WT strain (Table S1).

The WT strain exhibited a decline of sonication-sensitive cells during development similar to

that reported previously (16), with only ~30% of the T_0 cell number remaining at 18 h PS and

only ~6% remaining at 48 h (Fig. S1A). It was also reported previously that the decrease in cell

number correlates with a decrease in the total protein concentration of developing cultures,

which was suggested to reflect lysis of the majority of cells early during development under

submerged culture conditions (25). The mutants showed similar decreases in cell number as

the WT strain (Fig. S1A). As noted above, we observed a small percentage of TCs in some of the

fixed samples. For the WT strain, ~3% of the T_0 cell number were TCs at 24 h (Fig. S1B), when

sonication-sensitive cells were ~20% of the T_0 cell number (Fig. S1A). Thus, TCs comprised 15%

of the total population at 24 h, before sonication-resistant spores were observed (Fig. 2), in

agreement with *in situ* observations using confocal microscopy (33). The percentage of TCs

decreased at later times (Fig. S1B), presumably as TCs became sonication-resistant spores (Fig.

2). The *fadI* mutant showed about half as many TCs as the WT strain at most time points (Fig.

S1B), perhaps due to the *fadI* mutant forming more sonication-resistant spores (Fig. 2). The *exo*

and *nfs* mutants exhibited less TCs at 24 h (~0.4-0.7% of the T_0 cell number), but in each case

the percentage rose to at least 1% later (Fig. S1B), suggesting that these mutants begin to

change shape, but are impaired in their ability to make spores.

We conclude that the *exoC* and *exoL* mutants exhibited stronger defects in sporulation than

the *nfsA-H* mutant, whereas the *fadI* mutant exhibited very little difference from the WT strain

under our conditions.

Transcript levels from the late-acting operons are very low in the absence of C-signaling

We used methods established previously (16) to measure transcript levels from the late-acting

operons of the WT strain and a *csgA* insertion mutant at 18-30 h PS, the period leading up to

and including the time that many cells commit to spore formation and sonication-resistant

spores begin to be observed (25) (Fig. 2). As expected for the WT strain (26), transcript levels

rose during development (Fig. 3). As noted previously (41), the *exoA* transcript level varied

greatly between biological replicates (Fig. 3A), which we do not understand. The *exoL*

transcript level likewise varied greatly (Fig. 3B). The *nfsA* (Fig. 3C) and *fadI* (Fig. 3D) transcript

levels varied less and on average increased only ~fourfold, much less than the *exoA* (~24-fold)

and *exoL* (~70-fold) transcript levels.

For the *csgA* mutant, which is unable to produce C-signal, the transcript levels did not

increase during development (Fig. 3, asterisks indicate $p < 0.05$ in Student's two-tailed *t*-tests

comparing the mutant to the WT strain at each time point). Asterisks are absent above the

exoA and *exoL* transcript levels of the *csgA* mutant because the statistical test yielded $p > 0.05$

due to the large variation between biological replicates of the WT strain. Nevertheless, the

exoA and *exoL* transcript levels of the *csgA* mutant were low for all replicates at each time

point. We conclude that transcript levels from the late-acting operons are very low in the

absence of C-signaling. In agreement, reporter activity from fusions to *exoC* (48), *nfsA* (44), and

fadI (42) was very low for *csgA* mutants relative to WT strains during development.

The low transcript levels could be due to decreased synthesis and/or increased degradation

in the *csgA* mutant compared with the WT strain. To measure the transcript degradation rates,

we added rifampicin to inhibit transcription at 30 h PS and determined the transcript levels at

intervals thereafter. The transcript degradation rates did not differ significantly between the

csgA mutant and the WT strain (Fig. 4), suggesting that decreased synthesis primarily accounts

for the low transcript levels in the absence of C-signaling.

Considerable evidence supports a model in which C-signaling activates FruA

posttranslationally in order to increase transcription of genes during *M. xanthus* development

(15, 16). We showed previously that the FruA level of a *csgA* mutant is about twofold lower

than that of the WT strain at 18-30 h PS (16). Boosting the FruA level in the *csgA* mutant to the

WT level using a vanillate-inducible promoter (P*~van~*) fused to *fruA* did not increase the transcript

levels of five genes or operons (*dev*, *fmgA*, *fmgBC*, *fmgD*, and *fmgE*) known to be under

combinatorial control of FruA and MrpC. Neither did boosting the level of FruA D59E (with a

phosphomimetic substitution in its receiver domain) using a P$_{van}$-*fruA D59E* fusion.

We tested whether boosting the level of FruA or its D59E variant in the *csgA* mutant

increases the transcript levels of the late-acting operons. The transcript levels remained low in

all cases (Fig. S2), suggesting that neither a low level of FruA nor a lack of D59 phosphorylation

causes the transcript levels to remain low in the *csgA* mutant. Rather, these results are

consistent with evidence suggesting that C-signaling regulates FruA activity by a mechanism

other than phosphorylation of its receiver domain (16, 18).

Prior to FruA activation by C-signaling, unactivated FruA negatively regulates the late-acting

operons

If C-signaling activates FruA and the activated FruA increases transcription of the late-acting

operons, then transcript levels are expected to be low in a *fruA* insertion mutant, as observed

for the *dev* operon (16). Instead, the *exoA*, *exoL*, and *nfsA* transcript levels of the *fruA* mutant

were greater than those of the WT strain at 18 h PS (Fig. 3), suggesting that FruA is a negative

regulator of the late-acting operons early in development. The *exoA* and *exoL* transcript levels

of the *fruA* mutant also exceeded those of the WT strain at 21 and 24 h. In contrast, the *fadI*

transcript level of the *fruA* mutant was less than that of the WT strain (Fig. 3D), consistent with

a model in which C-signaling activates FruA and the activated FruA increases *fadI* transcription.

Activated FruA may also increase *nfsA* transcription at 27 and 30 h, since the *nfsA* transcript

level of the *fruA* mutant was less than that of the WT strain at those times (Fig. 3C). The

average *exoA* transcript level of the *fruA* mutant was less than that of the WT strain at 30 h, but

this difference was due to one biological replicate of the WT strain with a much greater

transcript level than the other three replicates (Fig. 3A), so the evidence that activated FruA

increases *exoA* transcription at 30 h is weak. The average *exoL* transcript level of the *fruA*

mutant exceeded that of the WT strain at 27 and 30 h (Fig. 3B), providing no evidence that

activated FruA is necessary to increase *exoL* transcription.

Comparison of the *fruA* and *csgA* mutants suggests that FruA which has not been activated

by C-signaling (i.e., unactivated FruA) negatively regulates all four of the late-acting operons

early in development. The average transcript levels of the *fruA* mutant were greater than those

of the *csgA* mutant (except for the very low *fadI* transcript levels in both mutants at 27 and 30 h

PS) (Fig. 3). We also infer that negative regulation by unactivated FruA early in development of

the WT strain accounts for its relatively low *exoA* (Fig. 3A) and *exoL* (Fig. 3B) transcript levels at

18-24 h, and its low *nfsA* transcript level at 18 h (Fig. 3C), as compared with the *fruA* mutant.

The *fadI* transcript level of the WT strain was comparable to that of the *fruA* mutant at 18 h

(Fig. 3D), suggesting that positive regulation by activated FruA counteracts negative regulation

by unactivated FruA already by 18 h in this case.

Taken together, the effects of mutations in *fruA* and *csgA* on transcript levels suggest that

regulation of the late-acting operons during the period leading up to and including commitment

to spore formation depends on negative regulation by unactivated FruA, which in at least some

cases switches to positive regulation by C-signal-activated FruA.

The *exoA*, *exoL*, and *nfsA* transcript levels of *mrpC* and *fruA* mutants differ

MrpC appears to directly stimulate transcription from the *fruA* promoter (20). In agreement,

FruA was not detected in an *mrpC* in-frame deletion mutant at 18-30 h PS (16). Hence, the

mrpC mutant lacks both MrpC and FruA. To compare the loss of both transcription factors with

the loss of only FruA in terms of regulating the late-acting operons, we measured the transcript

levels of the *mrpC* mutant in parallel with those of the *fruA* mutant and the WT strain.

Strikingly, the *exoA*, *exoL*, and *nfsA* transcript levels of the *mrpC* and *fruA* mutants differed,

and in each case the pattern of effects was unique. The average *exoA* transcript level of the

mrpC mutant was greater than that of both the WT strain and the *fruA* mutant at all times (Fig.

5A, asterisks above error bars indicate $p < 0.05$ in Student's two-tailed *t*-tests comparing the

mutant to the WT strain at the same time point and asterisks above brackets likewise compare

the mutants). The comparison of mutants suggests that MrpC negatively regulates the *exoA*

transcript level independently of FruA (i.e., loss of both transcription factors increased the *exoA*

transcript level more than loss of only FruA). The *exoL* transcript level of the *mrpC* mutant

exceeded that of the WT strain at 18 and 24 h PS, and on average exceeded that of the *fruA*

mutant at 18 h, but on average was less than that of the *fruA* mutant at 24 and 30 h (Fig. 5B).

In this case, comparison of the mutants suggests that MrpC negatively regulates the transcript

level independently of FruA early in development, but that MrpC can positively regulate the

transcript level independently of FruA later in development. The *nfsA* and *fadI* transcript levels

of the WT strain increased at 30 h, but not those of the *mrpC* and *fruA* mutants (Fig. 5C and 5D),

nor of the *csgA* mutant (Fig. 3C and 3D), suggesting that C-signal-activated FruA positively

regulates the *nfsA* and *fadI* transcript levels late in development. However, earlier in

development at 18 h, the *nfsA* transcript level of the *fruA* mutant was greater than that of the

WT strain and the *mrpC* mutant (Fig. 5C), suggesting that MrpC positively regulates the

transcript level in the absence of FruA. In contrast, the *fadI* transcript level of both mutants

was less than that of the WT strain at 18 h (Fig. 5D), suggesting that both transcription factors

are required to positively regulate the transcript level. We conclude that each of the late-acting

operons is uniquely regulated by MrpC and FruA.

To determine whether the absence of MrpC and FruA in the *mrpC* mutant affects the

transcript degradation rates, we added rifampicin to inhibit transcription at 18 h PS and

determined the transcript levels at intervals thereafter. We chose 18 h for this analysis since

the *exoA* (Fig. 5A) and *exoL* (Fig. 5C) transcript levels were elevated in the *mrpC* mutant relative

to the WT strain at that time. The transcript degradation rates did not differ significantly

between the *mrpC* mutant and the WT strain (Fig. S3), suggesting that increased synthesis

(rather than decreased degradation) primarily accounts for the elevated *exoA* and *exoL*

transcript levels in the absence of MrpC and FruA.

FruA can positively regulate *exoA*, *exoL*, and *nfsA* in the absence of MrpC

To examine the effects of FruA in the absence of MrpC, we used the P*van*-*fruA* fusion mentioned

previously (16) (Fig. S2) to produce FruA in the *mrpC* mutant. The inducer (vanillate) was added

during growth and at 0 h PS. At 6 h, the FruA level of the *mrpC* P*van*-*fruA* mutant was about

threefold greater than that of the WT strain, but their FruA level was similar at 12 and 18 h (Fig.

S4A). Interestingly, the *mrpC* P*van*-*fruA* mutant formed immature mounds by 12 h (Fig. S5),

although subsequent mound darkening was reduced compared to the WT strain (Fig. S6) and

spores were not detected (Table S1). Nevertheless, mound formation suggests that C-signaling

is activating FruA to some extent, since a complete block, as in *mrpC*, *fruA*, and *csgA* mutants,

results in no mound formation (16) (Fig. S5).

To determine the effects of FruA on regulation of the late-acting operons in the absence of

MrpC, we measured the transcript levels of the *mrpC* P$_{van}$-*fruA* mutant in parallel with those of

the *mrpC* and *fruA* mutants and the WT strain early in development. The *exoA* (Fig. 6A) and

exoL (Fig. 6B) transcript levels of the *mrpC* P$_{van}$-*fruA* mutant exceeded those of the WT strain at

6-18 h PS, and on average exceeded those of the *mrpC* and *fruA* mutants, except the *exoL*

transcript level of the *mrpC* mutant was similar to that of the *mrpC* P$_{van}$-*fruA* mutant at 18 h.

We conclude that FruA can positively regulate the *exoA* and *exoL* transcript levels in the

absence of MrpC. This regulation may involve C-signal-activated FruA since the *mrpC* P$_{van}$-*fruA*

mutant formed immature mounds (Fig. S5 and S6), whereas *mrpC*, *fruA*, and *csgA* mutants fail

to form mounds (16) (Fig. S5). The *nfsA* transcript level of the *mrpC* P$_{van}$-*fruA* strain exceeded

that of the WT strain at 6 h and the *mrpC* mutant at 6-12 h (Fig. 6C), also indicative of positive

regulation by FruA (perhaps activated FruA) in the absence of MrpC. On the other hand, the

fadI transcript level of the *mrpC* P$_{van}$-*fruA* strain was less than that of the WT strain (Fig. 6D), as

observed for the *mrpC*, *fruA*, and *csgA* mutants (Fig. 3D, 5D, and 6D), supporting that positive

regulation requires both MrpC and activated FruA.

Nla6 positively regulates the transcript levels of the late-acting operons

The Nla6 transcription factor appears to be a direct regulator of the *exoA-I* and *exoL-P* operons

since a protein with the *E. coli* maltose-binding protein (MBP) fused to the Nla6 DNA-binding

domain (DBD) bound to promoter region DNA fragments (50). A comparison of the *exoA* and

exoL transcript levels of a WT strain and an *nla6* insertion mutant suggested that Nla6 positively

regulates both during the first 8 h PS, and negatively regulates both at 24 h (50). We

constructed a new *nla6* insertion mutant and compared it with the one characterized

previously (50, 53). The new mutant is tetracycline-resistant (Tc^r) and the one described

previously is kanamycin-resistant (Km^r). Both mutants formed immature mounds by 12 h, but

failed to progress to more mature mounds with distinct, round edges by 18 h (Fig. S5). Later

during development, the Km^r *nla6* mutant mounds matured somewhat at 24-30 h, but failed to

darken by 36-48 h (Fig. S6). The Tc^r *nla6* mutant mounds did not mature until 36 h and also

failed to darken by 48 h. Spores were not detected for either mutant (Table S1).

The two *nla6* mutants were indistinguishable in terms of the molecular markers we tested.

Since our results showed that FruA and MrpC impact transcript levels of the late-acting operons

at 18 h PS (Fig. 3 and 5) and in some cases earlier during development (Fig. 6), we measured the

levels of FruA, MrpC, and transcripts from the late-acting operons for the *nla6* mutants in

parallel with the WT strain early in development. The FruA and MrpC protein levels of the *nla6*

mutants were similar to those of the WT strain at 6-18 h (Fig. S4). The *exoA*, *nfsA*, and *fadI*

transcript levels of the WT strain increased at 18 h, but those of the *nla6* mutants failed to

increase (Fig. 7), suggesting that Nla6 positively regulates the *exoA-I*, *nfsA-H*, and *fadIJ* operons.

The *exoL* transcript level of the WT strain did not increase at 18 h, but on average that of the

nla6 mutants was less, suggesting that Nla6 also positively regulates the *exoL-P* operon.

Because the *exoA*, *exoL*, and *nfsA* transcript levels of the *mrpC* and/or *fruA* mutants exceeded

those of the WT strain early in development (Fig. 3, 5, and 6), we tried to construct *mrpC nla6*

and *fruA nla6* double mutants, but our efforts were unsuccessful, so we were unable to

determine whether positive regulation by Nla6 could account for the elevated transcript levels

in the *mrpC* and *fruA* mutants relative to the WT strain (see Discussion).

Binding of the Nla6 DNA-binding domain, MrpC, and FruA differs at the promoter region of

each of the late-acting operons

As a possible indication of direct regulation by Nla6, MrpC, and FruA, we tested for binding to a

DNA fragment upstream of the predicted start codon of the first gene in each of the late-acting

operons. Figure S7 shows features of each promoter region fragment based on previous work.

FruA and MrpC were shown to bind cooperatively to the *dev* promoter region fragment (28).

The FruA DBD was shown to bind to at least three sites in the *exoA-I* promoter region fragment

(49) and MBP-Nla6 DBD was also shown to bind, presumably *via* interaction with DNA

sequences similar to a half-site consensus sequence (50). MBP-Nla6 DBD was also shown to

bind to the *exoL-P* promoter region fragment (50). ChIP-seq analysis suggested that MrpC is

bound at a site upstream of *nfsA-H* at 18 h PS (27). Here, we used electrophoretic mobility shift

assays (EMSAs) to test for binding of purified MBP-Nla6 DBD, MrpC, and FruA separately, and in

combination because MrpC and FruA were shown previously to bind cooperatively to the *dev*,

fmgA, *fmgBC*, *fmgD*, and *fmgE* promoter regions (18, 28-31).

As expected (28), MrpC and FruA bound individually to the *dev* promoter region fragment

and the combination of MrpC and FruA exhibited greater binding (Fig. 8), suggestive of

cooperative binding. MrpC and FruA DBD also appeared to bind cooperatively (Fig. S8),

indicating the N-terminal domain of FruA was not required. Binding of MBP-Nla6 DBD was not

detected at 4 μM (Fig. 8), consistent with previous reports (19, 50), but binding was detected at

16 μM and increased at higher concentrations (Fig. S8).

The *fadIJ* promoter region fragment yielded results that were in some ways similar to those

for the *dev* fragment. MrpC and FruA bound individually to the *fadIJ* fragment, and the

combination of MrpC and FruA appeared to bind cooperatively, but with much less cooperative

binding than to the *dev* fragment (Fig. 8). The order of MrpC and FruA addition did not affect

cooperative binding to either fragment (Fig. 8 and S8). However, MrpC and FruA DBD did not

bind cooperatively to the *fadIJ* fragment, indicating a requirement for the FruA N-terminal

domain, in contrast to the *dev* fragment (Fig. S8). On the other hand, for both fragments, MBP-

Nla6 DBD binding was not detected at 4 μM and at that concentration did not affect binding of

MrpC or FruA (Fig. 8), but MBP-Nla6 DBD binding was detected at 16 μM and increased at

higher concentrations (Fig. S8). The apparent cooperative binding of MrpC and FruA to the

fadIJ fragment, together with our measurements of the *fadI* transcript level, support a similar

mechanism of developmental regulation of the *fadIJ* operon as proposed for the *dev* operon

(16, 28), the *fmg* genes (18, 29-31), and likely many other genes (27), in which C-signaling

activates FruA to bind DNA cooperatively with MrpC and increase transcription.

MBP-Nla6 DBD at 2 μM bound to the *exoA-I* promoter region fragment (Fig. 8), as expected

(50). FruA also bound (Fig. 8), as expected based on FruA DBD binding observed previously

(49). Strikingly, MBP-Nla6 DBD and FruA appeared to bind cooperatively and the order of

addition made no difference (Fig. 8 and S8). FruA DBD exhibited very little cooperative binding

with MBP-Nla6 DBD (Fig. S8), suggesting the N-terminal domain of FruA plays an important role.

Although MrpC appeared to negatively regulate the *exoA* transcript level independently of FruA

(Fig. 5A), binding of MrpC was not detected at 4 μM (Fig. 8) or at concentrations ranging up to

20 μM (Fig. 8S), and MrpC did not affect MBP-Nla6 DBD or FruA binding (Fig. 8). Taken

together, our results suggest that MrpC regulates *exoA* indirectly both independently of FruA

(Fig. 5A) and because MrpC is required for synthesis of FruA (16, 49), which together with Nla6

appears to directly regulate *exoA-I*.

We discovered that FruA binds to the *exoL-P* promoter region fragment (Fig. 8). Binding of

MBP-Nla6 DBD was not detected at 4 μM in the experiment shown in Figure 8, but was

detected at 4 μM in two other experiments (Fig. S8). Interestingly, MBP-Nla6 DBD and FruA

appeared to bind cooperatively and the order of addition made no difference, similar to our

results for the *exoA-I* promoter region fragment (Fig. 8 and S8). Both fragments also yielded

similar results in other experiments; FruA DBD exhibited very little cooperative binding with

MBP-Nla6 DBD (Fig. S8) and MrpC did not affect MBP-Nla6 DBD or FruA binding (Fig. 8).

However, the two fragments differed in terms of MrpC binding, which was not detected for the

exoA-I promoter region fragment at MrpC concentrations ranging up to 20 μM (Fig. 8S). In

contrast, for the *exoL-P* promoter region fragment, although binding of MrpC was not detected

at 4 μM in the experiment shown in Figure 8D, binding was detected at 4 μM and increased at

higher concentrations in another experiment (Fig. S8). Therefore, MrpC, as well as FruA and

Nla6, appear to directly regulate *exoL-P*, differentiating its regulation from that of *exoA-I* (see

Discussion).

We found that MBP-Nla6 DBD, MrpC, and FruA could each bind individually to the *nfsA-H*

promoter region fragment (Fig. 8). In combination with MBP-Nla6 DBD at 4 μM, individual

binding of MrpC was not detected and the intensity of the shifted complex increased at the

lagging edge (Fig. 8), suggestive of cooperative binding. In agreement, MBP-Nla6 DBD at 2 μM

appeared to bind cooperatively with MrpC, and the order of addition made little or no

difference (Fig. S8). We note that the large size of MBP-Nla6 DBD and the DNA fragment likely

explain the small difference in migration of the putative MBP-Nla6 DBD/MrpC/DNA complex

compared to the MBP-Nla6 DBD/DNA complex. Like MrpC, FruA appeared to bind

cooperatively with MBP-Nla6 DBD (Fig. 8 and S8). In the mixtures with MBP-Nla6 DBD,

individual binding of FruA was detected, suggestive of less cooperativity than in the case of

MrpC. FruA DBD did not appear to bind cooperatively MBP-Nla6 DBD, and FruA did not appear

to bind cooperatively with MrpC (Fig. S8). We conclude that MBP-Nla6 DBD, MrpC, and FruA

appear to directly regulate *nfsA-H* and we note that the apparent cooperative binding of MBP-

Nla6 DBD and MrpC to the *nfsA-H* promoter region fragment distinguishes it from the *exoA-I*

and *exoL-P* fragments we tested.

DevI negatively regulates the transcript levels of the late-acting operons

Reporter activity from fusions to *exoC* (48) and *nfsA* (44) was reduced in a *devRS* insertion

mutant compared with a WT strain during development. The *exoA* transcript level was also

reduced in a *devS* in-frame deletion mutant compared with a WT strain during development

(41). To further investigate the effects of mutations in components of the *dev* CRISPR-Cas

system on regulation of the late-acting operons, we measured transcript levels in *devI* and *devS*

in-frame deletion mutants. Sporulation occurs about 6 h earlier than normal in the *devI* mutant

(16, 41), suggesting that DevI delays sporulation of the WT strain. Sporulation is severely

impaired in the *devS* mutant (16, 39) due to loss of negative autoregulation of *dev* transcription

and resulting overproduction of DevI, which strongly inhibits sporulation (40).

We found that the *exoA*, *exoL*, *nfsA*, and *fadI* transcript levels remain low in the *devS*

mutant at 18-30 h PS (Fig. 9). We infer that DevI overproduction in the *devS* mutant inhibits

accumulation of transcripts from the late-acting operons. Although Student's two-tailed *t*-tests

rarely yielded $p < 0.05$ comparing transcript levels in the *devS* mutant with the WT strain at the

corresponding time PS, this was due to the large variation between biological replicates of the

WT strain. We emphasize that transcript levels were low in all biological replicates of the *devS*

mutant at all times PS.

The average transcript level was greater in the *devI* mutant than the WT strain, except the

nfsA transcript levels were equal at 30 h PS (Fig. 9). These results are consistent with the notion

that DevI inhibits accumulation of transcripts from the late-acting operons. Here again,

Student's two-tailed *t*-tests rarely yielded $p < 0.05$, but in this case there was large variation

between biological replicates of both the *devI* mutant and the WT strain. Even so, taken

together, the measurements of transcript levels in the *devI* and *devS* mutants support that DevI

is a negative regulator of the late-acting operons.

Discussion

Our results reveal complex regulation of genes involved in spore metabolism and spore coat

biogenesis during *M. xanthus* development (Fig. 10). Prior to its activation by C-signaling, FruA

appears to negatively regulate transcription of the late-acting *fadIJ*, *nfsA-H*, *exoA-I*, and *exoL-P*

operons (red line with barred end), then C-signal-activated FruA (designated FruA*) appears to

positively regulate transcription of these operons during spore formation (green arrow).

However, each operon is unique in terms of the strength of negative and positive regulation by

FruA. Moreover, MrpC differentially regulates each operon, exerting negative and/or positive

effects independently of FruA/FruA* or cooperatively. The negative effect of MrpC on *exoA-I*

appears to be indirect since binding to the promoter region *in vitro* was not detected (dashed

red line with barred end), but the effects of MrpC on the other three operons may be direct

since MrpC binds to their promoter regions (red line with barred end to *exoL-P* early, green

arrow to *nfsA-H* early, and green arrows to *exoL-P* and *fadIJ* late). FruA binds to all four

promoter regions. Unusually for bacterial genes, a third transcription factor, Nla6, also binds to

the promoter regions. Interestingly, Nla6 bound cooperatively with FruA and with MrpC to the

nfsA-H promoter region, but Nla6 bound cooperatively only with FruA to the *exoA-I* and *exoL-P*

promoter regions. Nla6 appears to positively regulate all four operons early in development

(green arrows). The positive effect of Nla6 on *fadIJ* may be indirect (dashed green arrow) since

binding to the promoter region required a high concentration of Nla6. DevI negatively

regulates transcript levels from all four operons (dashed red line with barred end), providing

new insight into the regulation of *M. xanthus* development by a CRISPR-Cas system. We

conclude that three transcription factors and a CRISPR-Cas component regulate the late-acting

operons and we propose this ensures that spore resistance and surface characteristics meet

environmental demands.

New insights into the functions of the late-acting operons

Our results show that mutations in *exoC*, *nfsA-H*, and *exoL* do not prevent the initial cellular

shape change associated with sporulation (Fig. S1B), but do impact the formation of sonication-

resistant spores beginning at 27 h PS (Fig. 2). Previously, these mutants were examined for

starvation-induced spore formation at 120 h (45, 50, 51). Our findings indicate a much earlier

role of the ExoA-I, NfsA-H, and ExoL-P proteins during starvation-induced sporulation than

established previously. Glutaraldehyde fixation of cells followed by brief sonication allowed us

to visualize and enumerate cells that appeared to be transitioning from rods to spores in

samples of the starved mutants (Fig. S1B). These TCs likely resemble cells of *exo* and *nfs*

mutants that fail to complete morphogenesis upon chemical induction of sporulation in liquid

culture (45, 46, 51).

The WT strain may exhibit a higher percentage of TCs than the *fadI* mutant (Fig. S1B)

because the mutant makes more sonication-resistant spores (Fig. 2). The *fadI* insertion mutant

presumably has a reduced rate of fatty acid β-oxidation, as appeared to be the case for a *fadIJ*

(*MXAN5372-MXAN5371*) deletion mutant (42), so perhaps altered metabolism enhanced

formation of sonication-resistant spores by the *fadI* mutant at 27-48 h (Fig. 2), albeit not

mature spores at 72 h (Table S1).

The *nfsA-H* mutant made about twofold less sonication-resistant spores than the WT strain,

whereas the *exoC* and *exoL* mutants made less than the detection limit (Fig. 2). For these three

mutants, the lower percentage of TCs as compared with the WT strain at 24 and 27 h (Fig. S1B)

may reflect reduced ability to initiate and/or maintain the cellular shape change associated with

sporulation. Upon chemical induction of sporulation, *exoC*, *nfsA-H*, and *exoL* mutants appeared

to initiate the transition from rods to spores, but then revert into rods or form branched rods,

ovoid-shaped cells, or large spheres (45, 46, 51). Given the evidence that Exo and Nfs proteins

function in spore coat polysaccharide export (45, 46, 51, 54) and assembly (45-47), respectively,

our results suggest that defective spore coat biogenesis of the *exoC*, *nfsA-H*, and *exoL* mutants

reduces their ability to maintain cellular shape change as early as 24 h (Fig. S1B) and blocks or

reduces their ability to form sonication-resistant spores by 27 h (Fig. 2) and mature spores by

72 h (Table S1) (Fig. 10).

The milder sporulation defect of the *nfsA-H* mutant compared with the *exoC* and *exoL*

mutants (Fig. 2, Table S1) is consistent with previous reports (45, 50, 51). The *exoC* mutant fails

to export spore coat polysaccharide, whereas the *nfsA-H* mutant appears to export it, but fails

to assemble it properly, producing an amorphous, unstructured spore coat that nevertheless

appears to provide some heat- and sonication-resistance (45). The Nfs machinery shortens the

polysaccharide chains, decreases their surface abundance, and with the help of the AglQRS

motor assembles the compact, rigid, fully stress-resistant coat of mature spores (46, 47).

Unactivated FruA negatively regulates transcription of the late-acting operons early in

development

Our measurements of transcript levels in a *fruA* mutant indicate that FruA negatively regulates

the late-acting operons. The *fruA* mutation elevated the average *exoA*, *exoL*, and *nfsA*

transcript levels 17-, 57-, and 4-fold, respectively, relative to the WT strain at 18 h PS (Fig. 3).

The *fruA* mutation did not elevate the average *fadI* transcript level compared to the WT strain,

but the *fadI* transcript level was 8-fold greater in the *fruA* mutant than in the *csgA* mutant (p =

0.002 in a Student's two-tailed *t*-test). Since FruA* appears to be present by 18 h in the WT

strain (16), positive regulation by FruA* likely counteracts negative regulation by unactivated

FruA. However, in the *csgA* mutant, only unactivated FruA is present, resulting in a very low

fadI transcript level, as well as very low transcript levels from the other late-acting operons (Fig.

3). Neither *mrpC* nor *csgA* mutations altered the degradation rates of transcripts from the late-

acting operons (Fig. 4 and S3). Therefore, since unactivated FruA is absent from the *mrpC*

mutant and present in the *csgA* mutant (16), we conclude that unactivated FruA regulates the

synthesis rather than the degradation of transcripts from the late-acting operons at 18 h, which

we consider early in development since mounds (Fig. 1) but not spores have formed (Fig. 2).

This negative regulation of transcription by unactivated FruA is summarized in Figure 10 by a

red line with barred end that extends from FruA toward a gray box including all four late-acting

operons.

Our results agree qualitatively with two prior reports of negative regulation by FruA early in

development. Expression of a reporter fused to the *nfsA-H* promoter region was elevated 2-

fold in a *fruA* mutant compared with a WT strain at 12-18 h PS (44). We observed that the

average *nfsA* transcript level was consistently elevated at least 4-fold in a *fruA* mutant

compared with a WT strain at 18 h (Fig. 3C, 5C, and 6C), but elevated in only one of three

replicates at 12 h (Fig. 6C). The difference in the strength of regulation between the studies

may be due to differences in the strains and/or the methods. The difference between

replicates at 12 h in our study reflects experimental variation in the timing of induction of *nfsA-*

H transcription.

While our work was in progress, transcriptomic analysis of a *fruA* mutant compared with a

WT strain identified > 1000 genes that were negatively regulated by FruA at one or more time

points during the first 24 h of development (55). The transcript levels of all genes in the late-

acting operons were elevated in a *fruA* mutant relative to a WT strain at 12 h (Table S2). In our

study, the transcript levels were not elevated in the *fruA* mutant relative to the WT strain at 12

h (Fig. 6), except the one replicate for *nfsA* mentioned above (Fig. 6C). The strength of

regulation also differed between the studies (compare Fig. 3 and Table S2). Interestingly, the

fold increase in transcript levels varied greatly for different genes in the *exoA-I* and *exoL-P*

operons (Table S2), perhaps reflecting differential regulation. We measured transcript levels of

the first gene in each operon, but even focusing on the results for the first gene in each operon

reveals large differences between the studies in the strength of regulation (i.e., 25-, 11-, and

15-fold differences for *exoA*, *exoL*, and *nfsA*, respectively, between the 12-h values in Table S2

and the 18-h values mentioned above for Fig. 3). In support of our conclusion that regulation of

fadIJ switches from negative by unactivated FruA to positive by FruA*, *fadIJ* transcript levels

were elevated 2-fold in a *fruA* mutant compared with a WT at 12 h, but elevated 4-fold in the

WT strain compared with the *fruA* mutant at 24 h (Table S2). Importantly, we note that *exoA-I*,

exoL-P, and *nfsA-H* transcript levels decline sharply in the *fruA* mutant relative to the WT strain

between 12 and 24 h, which may be a signature for late-acting genes in the data of McLoon *et*

al. (55).

MrpC and Nla6 contribute to differential regulation of the late-acting operons

The switch from negative regulation of *fadIJ* transcription by unactivated FruA to positive

regulation by FruA* requires MrpC (Fig. 10) since the *fadI* transcript level did not increase in the

mrpC mutant (Fig. 5D and 6D) or the *mrpC* mutant engineered to express FruA from a vanillate-

inducible promoter (Fig. 6D). MrpC and FruA bound individually and with weak cooperativity to

the *fadIJ* promoter region *in vitro* (Fig. 8 and S8). Cooperative binding of MrpC and FruA *in vitro*

has been correlated with positive regulation *in vivo* for *dev* (28) and *fmg* (16, 18, 29-31) genes,

leading to a model in which MrpC and FruA* bind cooperatively upstream of the promoter and

increase transcription. Positive regulation of *fadIJ* transcription appears to fit this model since

expression from a *fadI* reporter fusion was twofold lower in *mrpC*, *fruA*, and *csgA* mutants than

in a WT strain at 18 and 24 h PS (42), and matches to the consensus sequences for MrpC and

FruA binding are present upstream of the promoter (Fig. S9). In particular, the matches to the

consensus sequences for MrpC and FruA binding centered at -96 and -69.5, respectively, are

well-positioned to explain cooperative binding of MrpC and FruA* that could increase

transcription. Bullock *et al.* did not observe elevated expression in a *fruA* mutant relative to the

other strains (i.e., evidence for negative regulation by unactivated FruA), perhaps due to

differences in the strains and/or the methods. The negative regulation of *fadIJ* by unactivated

FruA that both we and McLoon *et al.* observed (as explained above) distinguishes the regulation

of *fadIJ* transcription from that of *dev* (Fig. 10) and *fmg* genes since neither reporter fusion

expression nor transcript levels of *dev* (15, 16, 55, 56) and *fmg* (29, 30, 55, 57, 58) genes are

elevated in *fruA* mutants (Table S3). Perhaps unactivated FruA binds to the putative site

centered at -69.5 and/or other putative FruA-binding sites upstream of the *fadIJ* promoter (Fig.

S9), preventing a low level of transcription that can occur in the absence of FruA (Fig. 3D, 5D,

and 6D) (55) (Table S2) but not in the absence of MrpC (Fig. 5D and 6D).

Regulation of the *nfsA-H* operon by MrpC was unique among the late-acting operons since

the *nfsA* transcript level was much greater in the *fruA* mutant than in the WT strain or the *mrpC*

mutant at 18 h PS (Fig. 5C and 6C). Since the MrpC level in the *fruA* mutant is similar to that in

the WT strain (16) and both MrpC and FruA bind independently (without cooperativity) to the

nfsA-H promoter region (Fig. 8 and S8), we infer that MrpC can directly increase *nfsA-H*

transcription but that unactivated FruA directly opposes an increase early in development (Fig.

10). Later (e.g., at 27 and 30 h), FruA* appears to be required to increase *nfsA-H* transcription

(Fig. 3C) and can do so without MrpC (Fig. 6C, note the *y*-axis scale is different than in Fig. 3C)

(Fig. 10). The best match to the consensus sequence for MrpC binding is centered at -29 in the

nfsA-H promoter region (Fig. S9), consistent with the location of an MrpC-binding site identified

by ChIP-seq analysis (27) (Fig. S7). The best match to the consensus sequence for FruA binding

is centered at -82.5. Binding of MrpC and FruA to sites centered at -29 and -82.5, respectively,

may explain the lack of cooperative binding *in vitro* (Fig. 8 and S8), but how unactivated FruA

bound to the upstream site would oppose an increase in transcription caused by MrpC bound

to the downstream site early in development is unclear (Fig. 10). We note that upstream of the

putative FruA-binding site centered at -82.5 there are several overlapping sequences that

match the FruA and MrpC consensus sequences except at one or two positions, respectively

(Fig. S9). If those putative MrpC-binding sites increase transcription directly or indirectly (e.g.,

by aiding recruitment of MrpC to the site centered at -29), then binding of unactivated FruA to

overlapping sites could oppose an increase in transcription early in development (Fig. 10).

Alternatively, unactivated FruA bound to any of three putative upstream sites may oppose an

increase in transcription mediated by Nla6. MBP-Nla6 DBD bound cooperatively with FruA to

the *nfsA-H* promoter region (Fig. 8 and S8), and a sequence matching the Nla6 half-site

consensus sequence (50) except at one position is centered at -100.5 (Fig. S9) and may be

involved in the cooperative binding. Testing these hypotheses and elucidating how FruA*

increases transcription later in development will require much more work. MBP-Nla6 DBD also

bound cooperatively with MrpC to the *nfsA-H* promoter region (Fig. 8 and S8), and a putative

Nla6 half-site centered at -42.5 appears to be well-positioned for cooperative binding, but it is

unclear whether this affects transcription.

Regulation of the *exoA-I* and *exoL-P* operons by MrpC was different from that of the *nfsA-H*

and *fadIJ* operons since the average *exoA* and *exoL* transcript levels were greater in the *mrpC*

mutant than in the WT strain or the *fruA* mutant at 18 h PS (Fig. 5AB and 6AB). These results

suggest that MrpC contributes to negative regulation of the *exoA-I* and *exoL-P* operons both

independently of FruA and because MrpC is required for synthesis of unactivated FruA (16, 49),

which negatively regulates the operons early in development (Fig. 10).

Negative regulation of *exoA-I* by MrpC independently of FruA appears to be indirect (dashed

red line with barred end in Fig. 10) since binding of MrpC to the promoter region *in vitro* was

not detected (Fig. S8). Negative regulation of *exoA-I* by unactivated FruA early in development

may involve overlapping FruA- and Nla6-binding half-sites (Fig. S7 and S9). The FruA-binding

site depicted as centered at -75.5 in Figure S7 based on DNase I footprinting (49), encompasses

two matches to the FruA consensus binding sequence, and the match centered at -83 overlaps

a putative Nla6-binding half-site centered at -88.5 (Fig. S9). A putative FruA-binding site

centered at -42 overlaps two putative Nla6-binding half-sites. FruA and MBP-Nla6 DBD bound

cooperatively to the *exoA-I* promoter region (Fig. 8 and S8). We propose that unactivated FruA

interferes with transcriptional activation by Nla6 early in development. The very low *exoA*

transcript level in a *csgA* mutant (Fig. 3A) despite a similar transcript degradation rate as the

WT strain (Fig. 4AE), and our finding that FruA expression increases the transcript level in the

absence of MrpC (Fig. 6A), suggest that FruA* increases *exoA-I* transcription later in

development (Fig. 10). In contrast, Nla6 negatively regulates the *exoA* transcript level twofold

at 24 h PS (50) (Fig. 10). Perhaps the concentration of Nla6 decreases during development

and/or C-signal-dependent formation of FruA* increases its binding to DNA or changes its

cooperative binding with Nla6, allowing FruA* to activate *exoA-I* transcription.

Negative regulation of *exoL-P* by MrpC independently of FruA may involve overlap of an

MrpC-binding site with an Nla6-binding half-site. The best match to the consensus sequence

for MrpC binding is centered at -99 and partially overlaps a putative Nla6-binding half-site

centered at -89.5 (Fig. S7 and S9). Both MrpC and MBP-Nla6 DBD bound weakly to the *exoL-P*

promoter region and the two proteins did not bind cooperatively (Fig. 8 and 8S). In this case,

MrpC may compete with Nla6 for binding and thus interfere with transcriptional activation by

Nla6 early in development (Fig. 10). In contrast, negative regulation by unactivated FruA may

involve cooperative binding with Nla6, as proposed for *exoI-A* and possibly *nfsA-H* transcription,

since FruA and MBP-Nla6 DBD bound cooperatively to the *exoL-P* promoter region (Fig. 8 and

S8). Putative Nla6-binding half-sites centered at -115.5 and -46.5 are adjacent to putative FruA-

binding sites centered at -130 and -62, respectively (Fig. S7 and S9), which may allow

cooperative binding that interferes with transcriptional activation by Nla6 early in development

(Fig. 10). For similar reasons as mentioned above for the *exoA* transcript, our results for the

exoL transcript (Fig. 3B, 4BE, and 6B) suggest that FruA* increases *exoL-P* transcription later in

development, and previous work showed that Nla6 negatively regulates the *exoL* transcript

level twofold at 24 h PS (50) (Fig. 10). Therefore, similar mechanisms may allow FruA* to

activate *exoL-P* and *exoA-I* transcription. A striking difference between regulation of *exoL-P* and

exoA-I late in development is that MrpC positively regulates the *exoL-P* transcript level

independently of FruA (Fig. 5AB and 10). Consistent with MrpC acting independently of FruA,

the two proteins did not appear to bind cooperatively to the *exoL-P* promoter region (Fig. 8),

perhaps because the distance between putative binding sites is too great (Fig. S9).

To summarize, null mutations in *mrpC* and *fruA* uniquely affect the transcript levels from

each of the late-acting operons. The observed differential regulation may be explained in part

by the positions and affinities of binding sites for MrpC, FruA, and Nla6 in each promoter

region. Cooperative binding also appears to be involved, exerting positive or negative effects.

The C-signal-dependent switch from negative regulation by unactivated FruA early in

development to positive regulation by FruA* later also plays an important role. This process, as

well as potential changes in the levels and activities of MrpC and Nla6, will require further

investigation in order to better understand the differential regulation of each late-acting

operon.

DevI is a negative regulator of the late-acting operons

Our results confirm and extend the role of DevI as a negative regulator of late-acting operons

during development. Previous studies implicated DevRS proteins in positive regulation of *exoA-*

I (48) and *nfsA-H* (44). Subsequently, DevTRS proteins were shown to negatively autoregulate

the *dev* operon, which codes for DevI, a 40-residue protein that strongly inhibits sporulation

when overproduced (40) and delays sporulation by about 6 h when produced at the normal

level (16, 41). As expected, the *exoA* transcript level was very low in a *devS* null mutant (41).

We confirmed that result and also showed that the *exoL*, *nfsA*, and *fadI* transcript levels are

very low in the *devS* mutant at 18-30 h PS (Fig. 9). We also found that transcript levels from the

late-acting operons were slightly greater on average in a *devI* null mutant than in the WT strain,

supporting our conclusion that DevI is a negative regulator of the late-acting operons late in

development (Fig. 10). However, the mechanism of negative regulation by DevI is unknown.

The *devS* mutant failed to undergo normal cellular shape change as determined by light

microscopic observation (41), presumably because DevI overproduction inhibits cellular shape

change (Fig. 10). This could be a cumulative effect of failure to express the late-acting operons,

given that mutations in the individual operons did not prevent cellular shape change (Fig. S1B).

Alternatively, one or more other genes subject to negative regulation by DevI overproduction

may account for the failure of the *devS* mutant to undergo normal cellular shape change. The

method devised in this work to quantify TCs after glutaraldehyde fixation and brief sonication,

and the recently reported *in situ* confocal microscopy approaches (33), would provide more

sensitive measures of cellular shape change by the *devS* mutant than the light microscopy

method (41).

Combinatorial control of genes involved in spore formation

Eukaryotic-like signaling and gene regulation has been known in *M. xanthus* for decades (59,

60). More recently, combinatorial control, a common theme in eukaryotic gene regulatory

networks (61), emerged from studies of *M. xanthus* gene regulation (4). Combinatorial control

allows signal integration by utilizing two or more signal-responsive transcription factors to

directly regulate the same gene. During *M. xanthus* development, the cascade of enhancer-

binding proteins (EBPs) that includes Nla6 has several instances of combinatorial control by two

EBPs (4, 19, 62). MrpC and FruA appear to combinatorially control the *dev* operon (16, 28), the

fmg genes (18, 29-31), and likely many other genes (27) by binding cooperatively to the

promoter regions. MrpC and FruA also bind cooperatively to the promoter region of the *fadIJ*

operon (Fig. 8 and S8) involved in spore fatty acid metabolism (42). Combinatorial control by

cooperative binding of MrpC and FruA may ensure that only starving rods aligned in mounds

commit to spore formation (4, 18, 25, 33, 34).

Importantly, combinatorial control of the *nfsA-H*, *exoA-I*, and *exoL-P* operons involved in

spore coat biogenesis does not appear to involve cooperative binding of MrpC and FruA (Fig. 8

and S8). Rather, MBP-Nla6 DBD bound cooperatively with FruA to all three promoter regions

and with MrpC only to the *nfsA-H* promoter region. Based on our current understanding of the

signaling and gene regulatory network, Nla6 indirectly responds to starvation and cell density-

dependent A-signaling early in development (4, 19). It is unclear whether Nla6 responds to

other signals later in development. A high cell density near the radial center of early nascent

fruiting bodies correlates with a high spore proportion later (33), so perhaps A-signaling plays a

role in early spatial patterning of subsequent sporulation *via* Nla6-mediated positive regulation

(Fig. 10). Alternatively or in addition, negative regulation by Nla6 of *exoA-I* and *exoL-P* later in

development may prevent premature synthesis, export, and modification of the spore coat

polysaccharide. Combinatorial control of *exoL-P* also appears to involve MrpC binding

separately (i.e., without cooperativity) (Fig. 8) and regulating negatively early in development

and positively later (Fig. 10).

We propose that combinatorial control of the late-acting operons by signal-responsive

transcription factors allows proper temporal and spatial expression of genes involved in spore

metabolism and coat biogenesis in order to produce spores that are densely packed in fruiting

bodies and suited to withstand environmental insults. Several transcription factors likewise

positively and negatively fine-tune the expression of hundreds of genes during *Bacillus subtilis*

endospore formation (63-65), ensuring that the resulting spores are endowed with resistance

and surface properties tailored for their environment (66-68). In *M. xanthus*, the Dev proteins

of a CRISPR-Cas system provide yet another layer of regulation of the late-acting operons (Fig. 9

and 10), and one signal to which this system responds may be bacteriophage infection (39).

In summary, our investigation uncovered complex regulation of genes involved in spore

metabolism and spore coat biogenesis by three transcription factors and a CRISPR-Cas

component during *M. xanthus* development. Further elucidating the signals to which Nla6,

MrpC, and FruA respond, understanding how these transcription factors interact at promoter

regions with many potential binding sites (Fig. S9), and elucidating how DevI inhibits the cellular

shape change associated with sporulation, are important goals for the future.

Material and Methods

Bacterial strains, plasmids and primers

The strains, plasmids and primers used in this study are listed in Table S4.

M. xanthus strain MSS2 with P$_{van}$-*fruA* integrated ectopically was constructed by

electroporating (69) pSS10 into strain DK1622, selecting transformants on CTT agar (1%

Casitone, 10 mM Tris-HCl [pH 8.0], 1 mM KH_2PO_4-K_2HPO_4, 8 mM $MgSO_4$ [final pH 7.6] solidified

with 1.5% agar) containing 15 μg/mL tetracycline (70), and verification by colony PCR using

primers pMR3691 MCS G-F and pMR3691 MCS G-R.

M. xanthus strain MSS10 with a plasmid insertion mutation in *nla6* was constructed by

electroporating pSS11 into strain DK1622, selecting transformants on CTT agar containing

tetracycline (15 μg/mL), and verification by colony PCR using primers PMR3487 Rev, Nla6 Fwd4,

and Nla6 Fwd5. To construct pSS11, primers Nla6 Fwd and Nla6 Rev were used to generate a

PCR product using chromosomal DNA from *M. xanthus* strain DK1622 as a template. The

product was combined with DNA amplified from pMR3487 using primers PMR3487G Fwd and

PMR3487G Rev primers, and a Gibson assembly reaction was used to enzymatically join the

overlapping DNA fragments (71). The reaction mixture was transformed into *E. coli* strain

DH5α, transformants were selected at 37°C on Luria-Bertani (LB) (72) 1.5% agar containing 15

μg/mL tetracycline, and the cloned DNA sequence was verified using primers 3487 seq Fwd1,

3487 seq Fwd2, 3487 seq Fwd3, 3487 seq Fwd4, and 3487 seq Fwd5.

To provide a DNA template for amplification of the *nfsA-H* promoter region, pSS14 was

constructed as follows. Primers Nfs -290G and Nfs +83G were used to generate a PCR product

using chromosomal DNA from *M. xanthus* strain DK1622 as a template. The product was

combined with DNA amplified from pMR3487, the overlapping DNA fragments were joined

using a Gibson assembly reaction, the reaction mixture was transformed into *E. coli* strain

DH5α, transformants were selected, and the cloned DNA sequence was verified as described

above for pSS11.

To express MBP-Nla6 DBD for purification, primers Nla DBD For and Nla DBD Rev were used

to generate a PCR product using *nla6* DNA as a template. The PCR product was digest with *Sbf*I

and ligated to *Xmn*I-*Sbf*I-digested pMAL-c5x (NEB), resulting in pMAL-c5x/MBP-ΔCNla6 DBD,

which lacked a CG bp at the beginning of the Nla6 DBD-encoding segment. The missing CG bp

was added by performing site-directed mutagenesis using the QuikChange strategy (Stratagene)

with primers MBP-Nla6 add C fwd and MBP-Nla6 add C rev, resulting in pMAL-c5x/MBP-Nla6

DBD, and the DNA sequence was verified using primer mbp fwd colpcr.

***Growth and development of* M. xanthus**

Strains of *M. xanthus* were grown at 32°C in CTTYE liquid medium (CTT medium with 0.2% yeast

extract) with shaking at 350 rpm. CTT agar was used for growth on solid medium and was

supplemented with 40 µg/mL of kanamycin sulfate or 15 µg/mL of tetracycline as required.

Fruiting body development under submerged culture conditions was performed using MC7 (10

mM morpholinepropanesulfonic acid [MOPS; pH 7.0], 1 mM CaCl$_2$) as the starvation buffer as

described previously (25). Briefly, cells in the mid-exponential phase of growth were collected

by centrifugation, the supernatant was removed, and the cells were resuspended in MC7 buffer

at a density of approximately 1,000 Klett units. A 96-µL sample (designated T_0) was removed

and 4 µL of glutaraldehyde was added from a 50% stock solution to achieve a 2% final

concentration. The sample was stored at 4°C for at least 24 h in order to fix the cells for later

quantification of total cells as described below. For each developmental sample, 1.5 mL of the

1,000-Klett-unit cell suspension plus 10.5 mL of MC7 buffer was added to an 8.5-cm-diameter

plastic petri plate. Upon incubation at 32°C, cells adhere to the bottom of the plate and

undergo development. At the indicated times, developing populations were photographed

using a Leica Wild M8 microscope equipped with an Olympus E-620 digital camera.

Sample collection

At the indicated times PS, the MC7 buffer overlay was replaced with 5 mL of fresh MC7 buffer

or 5 mL of MC7 buffer containing 50 μg/mL of rifampicin to inhibit transcription for

measurement of transcript degradation rates. Developing cells were scraped from the bottom

of the plates, the entire contents were collected in a 15-mL centrifuge tube, and samples were

mixed thoroughly as described previously (16). A 96-μL sample was removed, glutaraldehyde

was added, and the sample was stored as described above for the T_0 sample, fixing the cells for

quantification of total cells as described below. A 400 μL sample was removed and stored at -

20°C for measurement of sonication-resistant spores as described below. For the experiments

shown in Figures 7 and S4, a 100 μl sample was removed and added to an equal volume of 2×

sample buffer (0.125 M Tris-HCl [pH 6.8], 20% glycerol, 4% sodium dodecyl sulfate [SDS], 0.2%

bromophenol blue, 0.2 M dithiothreitol), boiled for 5 min, and stored at -20°C for immunoblot

analysis. Immediately after collecting the samples just described, the rest of the 1,000-Klett-

unit cell suspension was mixed with 0.5 mL of RNase stop solution (5% phenol [pH < 7] in

ethanol), followed by rapid cooling in liquid nitrogen until almost frozen, centrifugation at 8,700

× *g* for 10 min at 4°C, removal of the supernatant, freezing of the cell pellet in liquid nitrogen,

and storage at -80°C until RNA extraction.

Quantification of total cells, transitioning cells, and sonication-resistant spores

The total number of cells, including rods, elliptical TCs, and round spores, was determined using

the glutaraldehyde-fixed samples collected as described above. Each sample was thawed and

mixed by vortexing and pipetting, diluted with MC7 buffer, sonicated for 10 s, and then all cells

were counted microscopically as described previously (16), except noting the number of cells

that were elliptical or round. The number of sonication-resistant spores in the 400-μL samples

collected as described above was quantified as described previously (25). These samples were

not glutaraldehyde-fixed and were sonicated for 10 s intervals three times with cooling on ice in

between, leaving only round spores (i.e., neither rods nor elliptical TCs were observed). The

total cell number minus the number of sonication-resistant spores was designated the number

of sonication-sensitive cells (consisting primarily of rods and a small percentage of TCs) and was

expressed as a percentage of the total cell number in the corresponding T_0 sample (consisting

only of rods). The number of cells that were elliptical or round in the glutaraldehyde-fixed

sample minus the number of sonication-resistant spores in the corresponding sample that was

not glutaraldehyde-fixed, was designated the number of TCs and was also expressed as a

percentage of the total cell number in the corresponding T_0 sample.

RNA extraction and analysis

RNA was extracted using the hot-phenol method, followed by digestion with DNase I (Roche) as

described previously (23). The RNA (1 μg) was then subjected to cDNA synthesis using

Superscript III reverse transcriptase (InVitrogen) and random primers (Promega), as instructed

by the manufacturers. In parallel, RNA (1 μg) was subjected to cDNA synthesis reaction

conditions without Superscript III reverse transcriptase, as a control. One μl of cDNA at the

appropriate dilution (as determined empirically) and 20 pmol of each primer were subjected to

qPCR in a 25 μl reaction using 2× reaction buffer as described previously (16). qPCR was done

in quadruplicate for each cDNA using a LightCycler® 480 System (Roche). In parallel, a standard

curve was generated for each pair of qPCR primers using genomic DNA (gDNA) from *M. xanthus*

WT strain DK1622 and gene expression was quantified using the relative standard curve

method (user bulletin 2; Applied Biosystems). 16S rRNA was used as the internal standard for

each sample. The primers used for RT-qPCR analysis of 16S rRNA (73) and the late-acting

operons (26) have been described previously.

Relative transcript levels for mutants are the average of three biological replicates after

each replicate was normalized to the transcript level observed for one replicate of the WT

strain at the earliest time point (i.e., either 6 or 18 h PS) in the same experiment (16).

Transcript levels for the WT strain at other times PS were likewise normalized to that observed

for the WT strain at the earliest time point in the same experiment. For the WT strain at the

earliest time point, the transcript levels of at least three biological replicates from different

experiments were normalized to their average, which was set as 1.

To measure transcript degradation rates, samples were collected immediately after addition

of rifampicin (designated t_0) and 8 and 16 min later for RNA extraction and analysis as described

above. For each biological replicate the transcript levels after 8 and 16 min were normalized to

the transcript level at t_0, which was set as 1, and the natural log of the resulting values was

plotted versus minutes after rifampicin treatment (16). The slope of a linear fit of the data was

used to compute the mRNA half-life.

Expression and purification of proteins

To express His-tagged proteins, *E. coli* strain BL21(DE3) was transformed with pET11a/FruA-

DBD-H$_8$, pET11km/FruA-H$_6$, or pPH158 (for H$_6$-MrpC) and transformants were selected on LB

1.5% agar containing 50 μg/mL ampicillin or kanamycin sulfate. In each case, a single colony

was used to inoculate 10 mL of LB supplemented with antibiotic, followed by overnight

incubation at 37°C with shaking. Five mL of overnight culture was used to inoculate 500 mL of

the same medium, followed by continued shaking at 37°C until the culture reached 60-80 Klett

units. IPTG (1 mM final concentration) was added to induce synthesis of the recombinant

protein. After 2 h, cells were harvested as reported previously (57) and stored at -80°C.

To purify His-tagged proteins, a modification of a protocol described previously (74) was

used. Each cell pellet was resuspended in 35 mL of lysis buffer (50 mM Na-phosphate buffer pH

8.0, 500 mM NaCl, 14 mM β-mercaptoethanol, protease inhibitors [1 Roche Mini EDTA-free

tablet/10 mL]). Cells were disrupted by sonication (4 times for 1 min with intermittent cooling

on ice). After centrifugation at 18,000 × *g* for 10 min at 4°C, the supernatant was mixed with 5

mL of lysis buffer containing 10% w/v Triton X-100, 1 mL of 1 M imidazole (pH 8.0), enough lysis

buffer for 50 mL total, and finally 0.5 mL of Ni-NTA agarose (Qiagen) that had been washed 3

times with lysis buffer containing 20 mM imidazole. The mixture was rotated for 1 h at 4°C.

The Ni-NTA agarose was collected by centrifugation at 700 × *g* for 3 min at 4°C and washed 4

times with 50 mL of lysis buffer containing 20 mM imidazole, 0.5% w/v Triton X-100, and 25%

w/v glycerol. The Ni-NTA agarose was rotated for 30 min at 4°C with 10 mL of elution buffer

(50 mM Na-phosphate buffer pH 8.0, 500 mM NaCl, 1.4 mM β-mercaptoethanol, protease

inhibitors [1 Roche Mini EDTA-free tablet], 250 mM imidazole, 0.5% w/v Triton X-100, 25% w/v

glycerol). Eluates were dialyzed twice at 4°C against 1 L of storage buffer (10 mM Tris-HCL pH

8.0, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 10% w/v glycerol) and aliquots were stored at -

80°C. The protein concentration was determined using a Bradford (75) assay kit (Bio-Rad).

To express MBP-Nla6 DBD, *E. coli* strain BL21(DE3) was transformed with pMAL-c5x/MBP-

Nla6 DBD and transformants were selected on LB 1.5% agar containing 100 μg/mL ampicillin.

Five colonies were used to inoculate 80 mL of LB supplemented with antibiotic and 0.2%

dextrose, followed by incubation at 37°C with shaking at 350 rpm until the culture reached 60

Klett units. IPTG (0.3 mM final concentration) was added to induce synthesis of the

recombinant protein. After 2 h, cells were harvested, the cell pellet was resuspended in 10 mL

of column buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 200 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, protease inhibitors [1

Roche Mini EDTA-free tablet], 10 mM β-mercaptoethanol), and the cell suspension was stored

at -20°C.

MBP-Nla6 DBD was purified according to instructions in the pMAL^{TM} Protein Fusion &

Purification System manual (NEB). Briefly, the cell pellet was thawed and cells were disrupted

by sonication (8 times for 15 s with intermittent cooling on ice). After centrifugation at 18,000

× g for 20 min at 4°C, the supernatant was loaded onto a 1 mL amylose gravity-flow column,

which had been prewashed with 5 mL of column buffer. The loaded column was washed with

12 mL of column buffer, then eluted with 2.5 mL of column buffer supplemented with 10 mM

maltose, collecting fractions of 4 drops each (approximately 200 μL). Fractions were subjected

to SDS-PAGE with Coomassie Blue staining. Fractions 4-9, with maximal purified MBP-Nla6

DBD, were pooled, dialyzed as described above, and aliquots were stored at -80°C. The protein

concentration was determined by measuring the absorbance at 280 nm and using the

calculated extinction coefficient of MBP-Nla6 DBD (1.32 [mg/mL]$^{-1}$cm^{-1}).

Electrophoretic mobility shift assays

^{32}P-labelled DNA fragments were generated by PCR using primers labelled with [γ-^{32}P]ATP using

T4 polynucleotide kinase (NEB) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The templates for

PCR were either plasmid DNA or gDNA from *M. xanthus* WT strain DK1622. The primers and

templates were as follows: primers LK1298 and LK1331 with template pPV391 for *dev*, primers

exoA-I -171 fwd and *exoA-I* -1 rev with template gDNA for *exoA-I*, primers *fadIJ* -214 fwd and

fadIJ -5 rev with template gDNA for *fadIJ*, primers *exoL-P* -217 fwd and *exoL-P* +56 rev with

template gDNA for *exoL-P*, and primers *nfsA-H* -166 fwd and *nfsA-H* +35 with template pSS14

for *nfsA-H.* The labeled DNA fragments were purified by electrophoresis on 15%

polyacrylamide gels, followed by visualization using autoradiography, excision, and overnight

elution by soaking in TE buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 1 mM EDTA) as described previously

(57).

Binding reactions (10 μL) were performed as reported previously (57), except the reaction

mixtures were incubated at 37°C for 10 min prior to loading on 8% polyacrylamide gels. To

determine whether the order of protein addition was important, one protein was added to the

reaction mixture during an initial 10 min incubation at 37°C, followed by addition of a second

protein and another 10 min incubation at 37°C, prior to loading on 8% polyacrylamide gels.

Gels were dried and exposed to X-ray film for autoradiography as described (57).

Acknowledgments

We thank Monique Floer for advice about high-throughput qPCR and for use of the LightCycler®

480 System. We thank Anthony Garza, Lawrence Shimkets, Ramya Rajagopalan, Wenyuan Shi,

Sumiko Inouye, Montserrat Elias-Arnanz, and Penelope Higgs for sharing strains. We thank

Muqing Ma and Anthony Garza for constructing pMAL-c5x/MBP-ΔCNla6 DBD. This work was

supported by the National Science Foundation (awards MCB-1411272 and IOS-1951025) and by

salary support for L.K. from Michigan State University AgBioResearch.

Author contributions

Conception or design of the study: LK, SS

Acquisition of the data: SS, LK

Analysis or interpretation of the data: SS, LK

Writing of the manuscript: LK, SS

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1127 **Supporting information captions**

1128 **Table S1 Cell and spore numbers**

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1130 **Table S2 Fold change in transcript levels in a *fruA* mutant relative to a WT strain for genes in**
1131 **late-acting operons based on McLoon *et al.* 2021**

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1133 **Table S3 Fold decrease in transcript levels in a *fruA* mutant relative to a WT strain for *dev* and**
1134 ***fmg* genes based on McLoon *et al.* 2021**

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1136   **Table S4 Strains, plasmids and primers**

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1138   **Figure S1. Sonication-sensitive cells during *M. xanthus* development*.***

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1140   **Figure S2. Transcript levels during *M. xanthus* development.**

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1142   **Figure S3. Transcript stability.**

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1144   **Figure S4. Protein levels during *M. xanthus* development.**

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1146   **Figure S5. Early development of *M. xanthus* strains.**

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1148   **Figure S6. Late development of *M. xanthus* strains.**

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1150   **Figure S7. Features of promoter region DNA fragments used in DNA-binding assays.**

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1152   **Figure S8. Binding of the Nla6 DBD, MrpC, FruA, and the FruA DBD to the promoter regions of**
1153   **the late-acting operons.**

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1155   **Figure S9. DNA sequences in the promoter regions of late-acting operons match consensus**
1156   **sequences for binding of MrpC, FruA, and Nla6.**

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Figure 1. Development of *M. xanthus* strains. The WT strain and its indicated mutant derivatives were subjected to starvation under submerged culture condition and microscopic images were obtained at the indicated times PS. The WT strain and all the mutants except *nfsA-H* formed compact mounds by 18 h (an arrow points to one in each panel). The *nfsA-H* mutant formed compact mounds by 21 h. Mounds of the WT strain began to darken by 30 h. Mounds of the *nfsA-H*, *exoC*, and *exoL* mutants darkened by 30 h but remained slightly less dark than mounds of the WT strain and the *fadI* mutant by 48 h. Bar, 100 μm. Similar results were observed in at least three biological replicates.

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Figure 2. Sonication-resistant spores during *M. xanthus* development. The WT strain and its
indicated mutant derivatives were subjected to starvation under submerged culture conditions.
Samples were collected at the indicated times PS for quantification of sonication-resistant
spores. Values are expressed as a percentage of the number of rod-shaped cells present at the
time starvation initiated development (T_0) (Table S1). Bars show the average of three biological
replicates and error bars indicate one standard deviation.
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Figure 3. Transcript levels during *M. xanthus* development. The WT strain and its indicated
mutant derivatives were subjected to starvation under submerged culture conditions. Samples
were collected at the indicated times PS for measurement of the *exoA* (A), *exoL* (B), *nfsA* (C),
and *fadI* (D) transcript levels by RT-qPCR. Graphs show the data points and the average of at
least three biological replicates, relative to the WT strain at 18 h PS, and error bars indicate one
standard deviation. Asterisks indicate a difference ($p < 0.05$ in Student's two-tailed *t*-tests)
from the WT strain at the corresponding time PS.

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Figure 4. Transcript stability. The WT strain and the *csgA* mutant were subjected to starvation
under submerged culture conditions for 30 h. The overlay was replaced with fresh starvation
buffer containing rifampicin (50 µg/mL) and samples were collected immediately (t_0) and at the
indicated times (t_x) for measurement of the *exoA* (A), *exoL* (B), *nfsA* (C), and *fadI* (D) transcript
levels by RT-qPCR. Transcript levels at t_x were normalized to that at t_0 for each of three
biological replicates and used to determine the transcript half-life for each replicate. The graph
shows the average ln(t_x/t_0) and one standard deviation for the three biological replicates of the
WT strain (black dashed line) and the *csgA* mutant (gray solid line). The average half-life and
one standard deviation, as well as the *p* value from a Student's two-tailed *t*-test, are reported in
(E).
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Figure 5. Transcript levels in *mrpC* and *fruA* mutants. The WT strain and its indicated mutant
derivatives were subjected to starvation under submerged culture conditions. Samples were
collected at the indicated times PS for measurement of *exoA* (A), *exoL* (B), *nfsA* (C), and *fadI* (D)
transcript levels by RT-qPCR. Graphs show the data points and the average of at least three
biological replicates, relative to the WT strain at 18 h PS, and error bars indicate one standard
deviation. Asterisks above error bars indicate a difference ($p < 0.05$ in Student's two-tailed *t*-
tests) from the WT strain at the corresponding time PS and asterisks above brackets indicate a
difference between the mutants.

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Figure 6. Transcript levels early during *M. xanthus* development. The WT strain and its
indicated mutant derivatives were subjected to starvation under submerged culture conditions.
Samples were collected at the indicated times PS for measurement of *exoA* (A), *exoL* (B), *nfsA*
(C), and *fadI* (D) transcript levels by RT-qPCR. Graphs show the data points and the average of
at least three biological replicates, relative to the WT strain at 6 h PS, and error bars indicate
one standard deviation. Asterisks above error bars indicate a difference ($p < 0.05$ in Student's
two-tailed *t*-tests) from the WT strain at the corresponding time PS and asterisks above
brackets indicate a difference between the mutants.
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Figure 7. Transcript levels in *nla6* mutants early during *M. xanthus* development. The WT
strain and its *nla6* mutant derivatives were subjected to starvation under submerged culture
conditions. Samples were collected at the indicated times PS for measurement of *exoA* (A),
exoL (B), *nfsA* (C), and *fadI* (D) transcript levels by RT-qPCR. Graphs show the data points and
the average of at least three biological replicates, relative to the WT strain at 6 h PS, and error
bars indicate one standard deviation. Asterisks indicate a difference ($p < 0.05$ in Student's two-
tailed *t*-tests) from the WT strain at the corresponding time PS and the asterisk above the
bracket indicates a difference between the mutants.
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Figure 8. Binding of the Nla6 DBD, MrpC, and FruA to the promoter regions of the late-acting operons. EMSAs were performed with ^{32}P-labeled DNA fragments (2 nM) of the *dev* (-114 to -19), *exoA-I* (-171 to -1), *fadIJ* (-214 to -5), *exoL-P* (-217 to +56), and *nfsA-H* (-166 to +35) promoter regions, and MBP-Nla6 DBD, His$_6$-MrpC, and FruA-His$_6$ at the μM concentrations indicated by numbers above each autoradiographic image. A white number on a black background indicates a protein that was added to the DNA-binding reaction 10 min later than the other protein. Shifted complexes produced by MBP-Nla6 DBD alone (gray arrowheads), His$_6$-MrpC alone (black arrowheads), FruA-His$_6$ alone (white arrowheads), or binding of two proteins (arrows) are indicated. Lanes are numbered below images.

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Figure 9. Transcript levels in *devI* and *devS* mutants during *M. xanthus* development. The WT
strain and its *devI* and *devS* mutant derivatives were subjected to starvation under submerged
culture conditions. Samples were collected at the indicated times PS for measurement of *exoA*
(A), *exoL* (B), *nfsA* (C), and *fadI* (D) transcript levels by RT-qPCR. Graphs show the data points
and the average of at least three biological replicates, relative to the WT strain at 18 h PS, and
error bars indicate one standard deviation. Asterisks indicate a significant difference ($p < 0.05$
in Student's two-tailed *t*-tests) from the WT strain at the corresponding time PS.
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Figure 10. Model for regulation of late-acting operons during *M. xanthus* development. In
response to starvation, phosphorylated Nla6 (Nla6-P) positively regulates all four late-acting
operons directly (solid green arrows) or indirectly (dashed green arrow) early in development
(upper gray area reflecting transcript measurements from 6-24 h PS). Nla6-P also positively
regulates MrpC *via* Nla28-P (19) and MrpB-P (76). MrpC negatively regulates *exoA-I* indirectly
(dashed red line with barred end) and *exoL-P* directly (solid red line with barred end), and
positively regulates the *nfsA-H* operon directly, early in development. Nutrients (25, 26) and
Esp signaling (23, 24) can negatively regulate MrpC *via* proteolysis, and MrpC negatively
autoregulates by competing with MrpB-P for binding to the *mrpC* promoter region (22). MrpC
positively regulates C-signaling (77) and *fruA* transcription (20), leading to production of
unactivated FruA, which negatively regulates the late-acting operons early in development. C-
signaling activates FruA to FruA* by an unknown mechanism (15, 16). FruA* positively
regulates mound formation (17), which enhances C-signaling (34, 78, 79), forming a positive
feedback loop. FruA* also positively regulates the *dev* operon (28, 56) and the late-acting
operons late in development (lower gray area reflecting transcript measurements at 27 and 30
h). Dev TRS proteins negatively autoregulate, decreasing DevI (40, 41), which negatively
regulates the late-acting operons and cellular shape change. MrpC positively regulates *dev*,
exoL-P, and *fadIJ*, while Nla6-P negatively regulates *exoA-I* and *exoL-P* late in development.
Under our submerged culture conditions, mounds form by 18 h (Fig. 1 and S5) and fruiting
bodies with many spores form by 36 h (Fig. 2).
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