Transcription Factors DksA and PsrA are synergistic contributors to *L. pneumophila* virulence in *Acathamoeba castellanii* protozoa

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Running Title: Regulatory synergy of DksA and PsrA in *L. pneumophila*

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Abstract

The environmental bacterium *Legionella pneumophila* is an intracellular parasite of free-living

freshwater protozoa, and an opportunistic human pathogen. The *L. pneumophila* biphasic

lifestyle depends on a complex regulatory network that is responsive to nutrient depletion cues to

enable the switch from the vegetative replicative form (RF) to the environmentally resilient

transmissive phase (TP) form. For a subset of TP-associated traits, RNA polymerase co-factor

DksA cooperates with stringent response alarmone ppGpp to influence gene expression. Here we

report that, through a dysfunctional DksA mutation (DksA1), a synergistic interplay was

discovered between DksA and transcription regulator PsrA that contributes to virulence in

Acanthamoeba castellanii protozoa. DksA could fully rescue an intracellular growth defect of a

dksA1 strain and vice versa, whereas PsrA overexpression could partially rescue the growth

defect of *dksA1* strain. Conversely, *in trans* DksA expression fully restored the growth defect of

a Δ*psrA* strain. Different phenotypes were observed *in vitro*; either DksA or DksA1 are required

for extended culturability of bacterial cells in depleted broth, and altered cell morphology along

with lack of pigmentation exhibited by the Δ*dksA* strain could only be rescued by DksA.

Comparative structural modeling predicts that the DksA1 mutation affects coordination of a

Mg^{2+} into the active site of RNAP compromising transcription efficiency. Thus, the largely

overlapping and additive phenotypes presented in this study has led us to propose that PsrA

assists DksA in the regulation of TP-associated traits. Additionally, *in vitro* evidence suggests

that the long chain fatty chain response, one of the cues leading to stringent response activation,

is mediated by PsrA together with DksA inferring a novel regulatory link to the stringent

response pathway.

Introduction

Legionella pneumophila, a Gram-negative gammaproteobacterium, is commonly found in piped water distribution systems where it is found as an intracellular parasite of free-living bacterivorous protozoa (Rowbowtham, 1986; Steinert *et al.,* 2002; Newton *et al.,* 2010). These environments are not only amenable to bacterial colonization and proliferation, but can also aerosolize *Legionella*-laden water droplets that can be inhaled by susceptible individuals, thereby facilitating bacterial infection of alveolar macrophages resulting in the atypical pneumonia Legionnaires' disease (Newton *et al.,* 2010; Oliva *et al.,* 2018; Mondino *et al.,* 2020).

L. pneumophila is well adapted for its intracellular lifestyle in protozoa, and these adaptations also enable human infection due to highly conserved eukaryotic cellular biology (Newton *et al.,* 2010; Mondino *et al.,* 2020). A core driver of infection is the Dot/Icm Type IV secretion system (T4SS); an apparatus that enables secretion of a diverse repertoire of $\geq$ 330 effectors into the host cytoplasm that together act to modify host cellular physiology upon uptake of the bacteria (Finsel and Hilbi, 2015; Burstein *et al*., 2016; Gomez-Valero *et al.,* 2019b). Such modifications include subversion of phagosome trafficking to prevent fusion of the bacteria-containing phagosome with lysosomes, and conversion of the phagosome into a replicative niche referred to as the *Legionella*-containing vacuole (LCV) (Tilney *et al.,* 2001; Kagan and Roy, 2002; Isberg *et al*., 2009). As infection progresses within a protozoan host cell, *L. pneumophila* exhibits a biphasic lifecycle, alternating between a vegetative replicative phase (RP) forms found primarily in the LCV, and transmissive phase (TP) forms that develop upon depletion of host-derived nutrients in anticipation of bacterial release to the environment. The physiology and ultrastructure of TP cells is optimized for environmental survival and resistance to stress, with expressed virulence factors enabling infection of a new host (Molofsky and Swanson, 2004;

Oliva *et al.,* 2018). In protozoa such as *Acanthamoeba castellanii*, TP cells were observed to be

pleomorphic and eventually matured into highly infectious cyst-like forms with thickened cell

walls, multiple membrane laminations and poly-β-hydroxybutyrate (PHB) granules (Faulkner *et*

al., 2002; Garduño *et al.,* 2002; Abdelhady and Garduño, 2013; Robertson *et al*., 2014).

Development of cyst-like forms has not been observed in human macrophages, likely explaining

the near-complete lack of human-to-human transmission (Abdelhady and Garduño, 2013).

The biphasic switch between RP and TP is controlled by a stringent response-based

regulatory network activated by accumulation of alarmone guanosine tetraphosphate (ppGpp),

which is synthesized by RelA and SpoT in response to nutritional deprivation. Synthase RelA

senses low amino acid concentrations (Zusman *et al.,* 2002), whereas bifunctional synthase and

hydrolase SpoT senses fatty acid flux via acyl carrier proteins (ACP) (Edwards *et al.,* 2009;

Dalebroux *et al.,* 2010b). Accumulated ppGpp is associated with activation of the LetA/LetS two

component system (TCS), which in turn induces transcription of non-coding RNAs (ncRNAs)

RsmY and RsmZ (Hammer *et al.*, 2002; Rasis and Segal, 2009; Sahr *et al.,* 2009; Nevo *et al.,*

2014). These ncRNAs target and sequester the RNA-binding protein CsrA, thus modulating

CsrA-mediated post-transcriptional regulation of transcripts associated with the transition to TP.

Such transcripts include those encoding Dot/Icm effectors and those linked to cellular

metabolism (Häuslein *et al.,* 2017*;* Sahr *et al*., 2017). Other TCS also play a pivotal role in

bacterial differentiation and are often required for virulence in host cells, such as CpxR/A

(Feldheim *et al.,* 2016; Tanner *et al.,* 2016); PmrA/B (Zusman *et al.,* 2007; Al-Khodor *et al.,*

2009) and quorum sensing via LqsS/T/R (Tiaden *et al.,* 2007; Tiaden *et al.,* 2008; Schell *et al.,*

2014; Personnic *et al.,* 2018). In addition, a subset of transcriptional regulators plays an

important role in TP induction. IHF assists LetA in the upregulation of RsmY and RsmZ, and is

required for full cyst-like form differentiation and virulence in *A. castellanii* (Morash *et al.*,

2009; Pitre *et al.*, 2013). OxyR regulates transcription of the operon encoding the CpxR/A TCS,

linking it to virulence in *A. castellanii* (Tanner *et al.,* 2017). Recently, the autorepressor PsrA

was found to be required for optimal intracellular growth and cyst-like form biogenesis in *A.*

castellanii (Graham *et al.*, 2021). While the genetic targets of PsrA have not yet been identified,

a potential linkage between PsrA and the core stringent response network has been described

with focus on fatty acid flux and an associated ACP (Graham *et al.,* 2021).

109   Accumulated ppGpp also directly affects transcriptomic changes associated with the

transition from RP to TP. For example, expression of stationary phase sigma factor RpoS is

increased (Dalebroux *et al.*, 2010b), which is required for the expression of TP traits and

intracellular growth in protozoa such as *A. castellanii* (Hales and Shuman, 1999; Bachman and

Swanson, 2001; Zusman *et al.,* 2002; Abu Zant *et al.,* 2006; Hovel-Miner *et al.,* 2009). While the

precise mechanism has not yet been ascertained in *L. pneumophila*, ppGpp influences expression

most likely by binding directly to RNA polymerase (RNAP), as has been described in *E. coli*

where ppGpp binds with equal affinity either to a site encompassed by the ω and β' subunits, or

at the interface between RNAP and secondary channel co-factor DksA. DksA features a pair of

conserved aspartate residues to enable ppGpp binding (Perederina *et al.,* 2004; Ross *et al.*, 2013;

Ross *et al.*, 2016; Myers *et al.*, 2020). The latter event results in a conformational change in both

ppGpp and DksA affecting the stability of the open complex generated by the RNAP

holoenzyme thereby altering the efficiency of transcription initiation (Chatterji *et al.*, 1998;

Lemke *et al.*, 2011; Gummesson *et al.,* 2013; Ross *et al.*, 2016; Molodtsov *et al.*, 2018). DksA

can act independently of ppGpp, compensate for its absence if overexpressed, or even act

antagonistically to ppGpp at different promoters (Magnussun *et al.,* 2007; Aberg *et al.,* 2008;

Potrykus and Cashel, 2008; Aberg *et al*., 2009). DksA exists in a dynamic equilibrium with

structural homologs GreA and GreB in *E. coli*, which compete with DksA for secondary channel

binding; if either GreA or GreB binds then DksA-independent ppGpp binding to RNAP still

occurs to influence expression (Vinella *et al.,* 2012).

L. pneumophila encodes both GreA and DksA orthologs, although *L. pneumophila* has

not been targeted for study. Like its *E. coli* ortholog, DksA acts independently of, or in

coordination with, ppGpp to regulate genes encoding TP traits (Dalebroux *et al.,* 2010b).

Previously, DksA was shown to be required in a ppGpp-dependent manner for TP

morphogenesis including TP-specific flagellar biosynthesis. Likewise, DksA and ppGpp are both

required for optimal intracellular growth in *A. castellanii*. Conversely, DksA, but not ppGpp, is

dispensable for intracellular growth in murine macrophages, indicating that ppGpp may act

independently of DksA in *L. pneumophila* (Dalebroux *et al.,* 2010b). Thus, the contributions of

ppGpp and DksA to the stringent response, are well characterized among the proteobacteria

though the mechanisms and targets may vary between them (Gourse *et al*., 2018).

In this study, we describe a functional relationship between DksA and PsrA in regulation

of virulence in protozoa, discovered fortuitously via a spontaneous secondary mutation within

dksA in a Δ*psrA* strain background. The *dksA1* mutation was an in-frame deletion of a 24-base

pair region that when expressed, produced a truncated but partially functional protein driving a

unique phenotype. Through a combination of investigative approaches, we show that PsrA and

DksA have distinct and overlapping biological roles in the regulation of TP. Incomplete

suppression of phenotypes suggests that PsrA acts in a more targeted manner than DksA, and

when interpreted alongside the unusual characteristics of the *dksA1* mutant, infers a high level of

regulatory complexity. Taken together, our findings illustrate a complex regulatory interaction

between these two proteins, that together act to drive transmissive phase in *L. pneumophila.*

Results

Spontaneous *dksA1* mutation in Δ*psrA* strain In a previous study, we deleted *psrA* from the parental *L. pneumophila* Lp02 strain (Graham et al., 2021). Throughout this process, we noted a propensity for some of the isogenic Δ*psrA* strains to acquire secondary mutations in *letS* or *dksA* as discovered through routine whole genome sequencing. One particular Δ*psrA* strain was found to contain an in-frame 24 bp deletion located partway through the *dksA* coding sequence, that resulted in the loss of eight amino acid residues after the 57th residue in the DksA polypeptide. The 57th codon was additionally altered from encoding leucine to phenylalanine. This allele was denoted as the *dksA1* mutation that is characterized in this study (Figure S1A, B).

As the truncation appeared in the coiled-coil (CC) domain of DksA, we investigated how the truncation could affect the fold of DksA1 using AlphaFold2 (Jumper *et al*., 2021; Skolnick *et al*., 2021). Both DksA and DksA1 were submitted to the colabfold2 server (AlphaFold2) with default settings and were modelled with a moderate-to-high degree of confidence (Figure S1C, D). The CC domain of DksA was well built as was the majority of the globular-head (GH) domain. Conversely, the eight-amino acid truncation in DksA1 resulted in a partial disruption of the tip of the CC domain with AlphaFold predicting a 'disordered' loop with moderate confidence (Figure S1D). The extent of the potential structural changes in the mis-formed tip of the CC domain in DksA1 can be observed when overlayed with a previously solved structure of a DksA:RNAP complex from *E. coli* (PDB ID: 5VSW) (Molodtsov *et al*., 2018). As shown in Figure 1A, all DksA variants align well, except for the altered CC-loop regions near helix α3 and the C-terminal region helix α5 not present in the DksA *E. coli* crystal structure. Importantly, the truncation did not delete key function residues shown to be needed for interaction of DksA with the RNAP allosteric (K104, L101, K100, R97) or with the RNAP active site (D80, D77) (Parshin *et al*., 2015; Molodtsov *et al*., 2018) (Figure 1B). Furthermore, all DksA variant structures can be

modeled into RNAP (Figure S2) slotting into the allosteric site (Figure 1C) and RNAP active site

(Figure 1D) without significant variation from the experimental DksA structure. However, while

the AlphaFold predictions for Lp02 DksA and DksA1 had a properly modeled ppGpp binding

site (Figure 1E), the twin-aspartate loop of the CC domain was significantly altered in DksA1

through the shift of D69 (D71 in DksA) by ~8.9Å (Figure 1F). These models therefore suggest

that while the functional residues are conserved from the truncation, DksA1 should be incapable

of coordinating the Mg^{2+} in the active site of RNAP. Conversely, the structural predictions show

that DksA1 is likely still able to bind RNAP. Specifically, DksA1 is predicted to still contact the

secondary binding site of ppGpp functionally as an allosteric inhibitor of RNAP through ppGpp

mediated recruitment.

PsrA partially rescues the growth defect of the *dksA1*, but not Δ*dksA*, strain in *A. castellanii*

Given the previously described regulatory roles of DksA and PsrA (Dalebroux *et al.,* 2010b;

Graham *et al.,* 2021), the discovery of the Δ*psrA dksA1* mutant strain, and in turn the

backtracked ancestral *dksA1* mutant strain, presented a fortuitous opportunity to investigate

potential genetic links between the two regulatory factors in the established protozoan infection

model *A. castellanii*. To test our hypothesis, we electroporated the *in trans psrA* expression

vector (originally referred to as pComp in Graham *et al*., [2021] henceforth renamed to pComp-

psrA in this study), or empty control vector pThy, into the mutant strains. Intracellular growth

kinetics were conducted on *dksA1* pThy, Δ*psrA* pThy, *dksA1* Δ*psrA* pThy, and *dksA1* pComp-

psrA strains, along with virulent Lp02 pThy and avirulent Δ*dotA* pThy strains as controls, at

25ºC over 168 h as previously described (Tanner *et al.,* 2016; Graham *et al*., 2021) (Figure 2A).

The profiles of Lp02 pThy and Δ*dotA* pThy strains were as expected demonstrating ~ three-$\log_{10}$

increases in titre, and titres staying near initial inoculum density, respectively. The *dksA1* pThy

and Δ*psrA dksA1* pThy strains showed no significant increase in titres indicating that the

chromosomal single copy *dksA1* mutation was defective for virulence. Surprisingly, PsrA

overexpression in the *dksA1* background resulted in a two-log$_{10}$ recovery of growth ($p = 0.0006$)

to a titre within one-log$_{10}$ of the Lp02 pThy strain. This suggested that elevated levels of PsrA

were able to partially, but not fully, rescue the avirulent phenotype demonstrated by the *dksA1*

strain. While a genomic copy of *psrA* is present in the *dksA1* strain, it was shown previously that

in trans overexpression of PsrA from pComp-*psrA* resulted in an elevated quantity of cellular

protein that not only rescued the reduced growth phenotype associated with gene deletion of

psrA, but also enhanced replicative growth of Lp02 in *A. castellanii* (Graham *et al.*, 2021).

Nevertheless, the surprising ability of PsrA to partially complement the growth defect of *dksA1*

led us to expand our investigations to define the relationship between the two regulatory factors.

A previous study elsewhere reported that an insertional *dksA* mutant showed a modest

intracellular growth defect in *A. castellanii* at 37°C with slow growth initially, but eventually

achieving similar titres to parental Lp02 by the end of the 96 h experiment (Dalebroux *et al,*

2010b). This reported phenotype differs in comparison to the significantly reduced intracellular

growth observed with the *dksA1* strain in this study. This difference supported our hypothesis

that the truncated DksA1 protein bore altered function and distinct phenotype versus the null

mutant. To further test this hypothesis, and to determine if the compensatory effect of *psrA*

observed with the *dksA1* mutant strain extended to a null deletion mutant strain, we generated an

unmarked, in-frame Δ*dksA* isogenic strain, as well as the double Δ*dksA* Δ*psrA* mutant strain.

Complementation of DksA was achieved by cloning *dksA* and its native promoter into pJB908

creating pComp-*dksA* for electroporation into the Δ*dksA* strain. Plasmid pComp-*psrA* was also

electroporated into the Δ*dksA* strain to test if the rescue of the growth defect in *dksA1* by PsrA

overexpression was reproducible. Empty control vector pThy were electroporated into both

Δ*dksA* and Δ*dksA* Δ*psrA* strains. The intracellular growth kinetics of the generated strains were

assessed in *A. castellanii* under the same conditions as before along with Lp02 pThyA and Δ*dotA*

pThyA as control strains (Figure 2B). Interestingly, the single Δ*dksA* pThy and double Δ*dksA*

Δ*psrA* pThy mutant strains were both fully avirulent, starting at a slightly lower titre than the

Δ*dotA* pThy strain, then declining to, or below, the detection limit of the assay (~10 CFU/mL).

The severe growth defect of the Δ*dksA* pThy strain was fully rescued by *in trans* expression of

dksA, but not *psrA*; a notable divergence from the rescued phenotype demonstrated by the *dksA1*

pComp-*psrA* strain. Taken together, the lack of DksA results in a complete avirulent phenotype

in these conditions which cannot be rescued by PsrA, whereas the partially functional DskA1 has

a less severe impact on intracellular growth that can be partially rescued by PsrA.

DksA1 rescues the growth defect of the Δ*dksA* strain, and vice versa, in *A. castellanii* Given

that DksA can rescue the severe growth defect of the Δ*dksA* strain in *A. castellanii* (Figure. 2B),

we next asked if the partially functional DksA1 could likewise do so despite the truncation in the

coiled-coil structure (Figure 1). To this end, the *dksA1* gene and its native promoter was cloned

from the *dksA1* genome into pJB908, creating pComp-*dksA1,* which was electroporated into

Δ*dksA* to generate the Δ*dksA* pComp-*dksA1* strain for assessment in *A. castellanii*, along with

Δ*dksA* pThy, and Lp02 pThy and Δ*dotA* pThy as control strains (Figure 2C). The severely

reduced growth phenotype of the Δ*dksA* pThy strain was robustly rescued as by *in trans*

complementation with DksA1 as shown by the growth profile of the Δ*dksA* pComp-*dksA1* strain

($p = 0.0002$) matching that of the Lp02 pThy strain. It should be noted that this growth

phenotype contrasted with the minimal growth profile of the Δ*dksA1* pThy strain (Figure 2A),

suggesting that restoration of the virulent phenotype of the Δ*dksA* strain was due to plasmid-copy

number driven overproduction of DksA1 protein (pComp-*dksA1*), sufficient to offset the

structural and functional inefficiency caused by the intragenic 24 bp deletion. Not unexpectantly,

in trans complementation of DksA successfully rescued the avirulent phenotype of the *dksA1*

pThy strain to match the growth profile of Lp02 pThy as the plasmid-copy number driven

production of DksA outnumbered that of DksA1 (Figure 2D). In the reverse scenario, the growth

profile of Lp02 pComp-*dksA1* still matched that of Lp02 pThy suggesting that despite the

plasmid-copy number driven production of DksA1, the chromosomal-copy production levels of

DksA and PsrA in parallel were each sufficient to disguise any effects caused by the

dysfunctional DksA1 (Figure 2A, Figure 2D).

DksA restores the growth defect of the Δ*psrA* strain in *A. castellanii* To further define the

relationship between DksA and PsrA, we next asked if DksA could reciprocally compensate for

lack of PsrA or generally, affect intracellular growth in the presence of PsrA. To this end,

pComp-*dksA* was electroporated into parental Lp02 and Δ*psrA* strains and then assessed for

growth in *A. castellanii* along with the Lp02 pThy and Δ*dotA* pThy strains as controls, and the

Δ*psrA* pThy strain for comparative purposes (Figure 2E). As previously reported, the Δ*psrA*

pThy strain consistently maintained 1 $\log_{10}$ lower than that of Lp02 pThy ($p = 0.029$) (Graham *et*

al., 2021). The mean growth profile of the overexpression Lp02 pComp-*dksA* strain showed a

subtle increase of ~½ $\log_{10}$ over that of Lp02 pThy ($p = 0.007$); this enhancement could also be

seen in the Δ*dksA* pComp-*dksA* complemented strain (Figure 2D; $p = 0.0247$). Likewise, we

found that *in trans* expression of DksA in the Δ*psrA* pComp-*dksA* strain rescued the growth

defect of Δ*psrA* strain, increasing growth by ~1 $\log_{10}$ to match that of Lp02 pThy strain (p <

0.001 versus Δ*psrA* pThy, not significant versus Lp02 pThy). Although this experiment did not

generate large phenotypic differences, we found the tendency towards subtle phenotypes upon *in*

trans expression of DksA to be noteworthy relative to the very strong phenotypes noted in the

dksA mutant strains.

DksA is not required for intracellular growth in human U937-derived macrophages

Some *L. pneumophila* genes exhibit host specific requirements; being required only for growth in

one host type, but not in another. Previous work with *L. pneumophila* showed that the human

U937-derived macrophage host model is more permissive to regulatory mutants than *A.*

castellanii, as exemplified by transcriptional regulator Δ*psrA* or Δ*cpxRA* TCS mutants (Tanner *et*

al., 2016; Graham *et al.,* 2021). DksA was previously shown to be dispensable for growth in

primary murine bone marrow macrophages (Dalebroux *et al.,* 2010b); however, since the

phenotype we observed for a Δ*dksA* strain in *A. castellanii* was different from that reported by

Dalebroux *et al*. (2010b), we decided to verify the phenotype in mammalian macrophages.

Intracellular growth kinetics were assessed for the same set of strains used in the *A. castellanii*

infection assays (Figure 2) in the human U937-derived macrophage infection model. As

expected, positive control Lp02 pThy grew well, increasing approximately 100-fold by the 72 h

timepoint (Figure 3A), and negative control Δ*dotA* pThy maintained a steady titre with no

growth. In comparison to that of Lp02 pThy, Δ*dksA* pThy and *ΔdksA ΔpsrA* pThy strains showed

similarly robust, but offset (delayed) growth profiles. Additionally, despite normalization of the

inoculum by OD_{600}, these two strains showed initial measured titres lower than that of Lp02

pThy (Figure 3A). Only *ΔdksA ΔpsrA* pThy showed a significant deviation from the parental

strain ($p = 0.049$). The Δ*dksA* pComp-*psrA* showed a similar profile to the parental strain (Figure

3A), and did not show the reduced starting titre, but the difference to Δ*dksA* pThy was not

significant. No significant change in phenotype was observed with the remaining set of strains

featuring *in trans* DksA expression, either by complementation (Δ*dksA* pComp-*dksA*),

overexpression, (Lp02 pComp-*dksA*) or in Δ*psrA* pComp-*dksA* (Figure 3B). The growth profiles

of the *dksA1* pThy, *dks1* Δ*psrA* pThy, or *dksA1* pComp-*psrA* were indistinguishable from Lp02

pThy (Figure 3C) and lacked even variability in the initial uptake. Thus, these results verify that

DksA is not required for, nor does it enhance, intracellular growth in mammalian macrophages.

***In vitro* growth is impacted by DksA, PsrA and DksA1** The differences observed with the

intracellular growth kinetics of isogenic mutant and complemented strains in *A. castellanii* may

be in part due to defects in the growth rates of the cells, rather than solely virulence defects *in*

vivo. To distinguish this possibility and more generally characterize the *in vitro* growth

characteristics of the strains, we tested the *in vitro* growth rates of the strains in BYE broth at

37ºC over a 24-hour time period (Figure 4). The growth profiles of the first set of strains (*dksA1*

pThy, *dksA1* Δ*psrA* pThy, *dksA1* pComp-*psrA*, *dksA1* pComp-*dksA*) (Figure 4A) were similar to

each other, and to that of Lp02 pThy. The growth profiles of the second set of strains (Δ*psrA*

pThy*, psrA* pComp-*dksA*, Lp02 pComp-*dksA*, Lp02 pComp-*dksA1*) were slightly varied.

Consistent with our previous study, the growth profile of Δ*psrA* pThy was significantly reduced

in comparison to that of Lp02 pThy ($p = 0.036$; Figure 3B) (Graham *et al*., 2021). For the DksA

overexpression Lp02 pComp-*dksA* and DksA-complemented Δ*psrA* pComp-*dksA* strains,

plasmid-driven overproduction of DksA seemed to slightly reduce the growth profiles in

comparison to the growth profiles of Lp02 pThy and Δ*psrA* pThy, respectively (both $p < 0.001$;

Figure 4B). Conversely, overexpression of DksA1 had no effect as the growth profiles of Lp02

pComp-*dksA1* and Lp02 pThy were similar.

Interestingly, the *in vitro* growth kinetics of Δ*dksA*-based strains featured a phenotype of

growth variability across replicates as manifested by the large error bars for hourly data points

(Figures 4C, 4D). This growth variability made the determination of statistical significance

difficult when comparing growth profiles of mutant and/or complemented strains to that of Lp02

pThy. This is exemplified by the growth profiles of Δ*dksA* pThy and Δ*dksA* Δ*psrA* pThy strains

of which both appeared to be elevated in comparison to that of Lp02 pThy (Figure 4C), but the

difference was not statistically significant. This variability is also seen with the Δ*dksA* pComp-

psrA and Δ*dksA* pComp-*dksA1* growth profiles, with the former not rescued and the latter

generating a growth profile significantly reduced in comparison to that of Lp02 pThy ($p <$

0.0001; Figure 4C). Notably, the growth variability disappeared from the Δ*dksA* pComp-*dksA*

growth profile suggesting this was a complementable phenomenon. The growth additionally was

slightly reduced in comparison to that of Lp02 pThy (p=0.017), likely due to plasmid-copy

number driven overproduction of DksA. Conversely, the DksA1 overexpression Lp02 pComp-

dksA1 strain produced a growth profile matching that of the parental Lp02 pThy strain (Figure

4B) with minimal growth variability across replicates. This suggests that elevated levels of

DksA1 imparts a negative effect on replicative growth in absence of the parental *dksA* allele.

The *in vitro* growth profile assays were repeated at 25°C, albeit over a 48-hour time

period to account for the slower growth rate, to mimic the incubation temperature of the *A.*

castellanii assays. The resultant growth profiles were mostly similar to those attained at 37°C,

with growth variability of strains lacking *dksA* exacerbated at 25°C as indicated by data points

with widened error bars (Figure 5). One notable difference was that the growth profile of Δ*dksA*

pComp-*dksA1* strain matched that of Lp02 pThy at 25°C (Figure 5C), versus the reduction at

37°C (Figure 4C), suggesting that the slower growth rate and/or lower temperature

accommodated the dysfunctional nature of DskA1.

These findings together suggest that while strains lacking *dksA* featured more variability

in growth profiles, more so at 25°C then at 37°C, the *in vitro* growth assays (Figures 4 and 5)

illustrates that the observed *in vivo* growth defects are specific to *A. castellanii* (Figure 2), and

not due to poor growth of the bacterial cells themselves.

DksA, and possibly PsrA, mediates cell morphology Throughout this study, it was noted that

the colony morphologies of Δ*dksA* and *dksA1* strains grown on BCYE agar plates differed

significantly from that of parental Lp02. In comparison to the opaque beige-white glossy

colonies with varied margins featured by Lp02, Δ*dksA* colonies were textured glossy white with

defined margins, and *dksA1* colonies were smooth glossy white with defined margins. The

phenotypes were particularly evident when 10 µL of $OD_{600} = 0.15$ bacterial suspensions in broth

were spotted onto BCYE plates as were done in serial dilution assays in this study (Figure 6). For

both Δ*dksA* and *dksA1* strains, the phenotype was fully rescued by *in trans* complementation of

DksA whereas *in trans* DksA1 complementation partially rescued Δ*dksA*. The colony

morphology of the Δ*dksA* Δ*psrA* was similar to that of the Δ*dksA* strain, but not to the Δ*psrA*

strain which was similar to that of the parental strain indicating the sole influence of DksA.

Finally, *in trans* PsrA complementation did not appear to alter colony morphology in all strain

backgrounds assessed (Lp02, Δ*dksA*, *dksA1, ΔpsrA*), confirming that PsrA does not influence

this phenotype.

We previously reported that PsrA promoted cell elongation when overexpressed *in trans*

(Graham *et al.,* 2021). Conversely, it was reported elsewhere that lack of DksA influenced cell

elongation (Dalebroux *et al*., 2010b). To assess whether a genetic relationship between PsrA and

DksA was evident in cell structure morphology, and to further explore whether *dksA1* generated

a phenotype distinct from Δ*dksA*, bacteria were inoculated into BYE broth from $OD_{600} = 0.02$

and grown overnight to $OD_{600} = {\sim}0.5$, (exponential growth phase; EP), or another 24 h beyond

(stationary phase; SP) respectively, for microscopic analyses (Figure 7). Cell lengths were

quantified by measuring cells with the length tool in ImageJ and plotted separately for analysis

(Figures 8A and 8B). As a control, Lp02 pThy bacteria formed typical rods (mean length 3.6

µm) in EP, that elongated into SP (mean length 5.8 µm). The Δ*dksA* pThy bacteria were notably

elongated in EP (mean length 6.2 µm) and, in SP, became extremely elongated into filamentous

forms often of sufficient length to often exceed the field of view, averaging 13.2 µm among

measurable cells (with the entire cell visible in one field of view). Likewise, the Δ*dksA* Δ*psrA*

pThy bacteria were also elongated in EP, and strongly filamentous in SP (mean lengths 5.4 µm

and 17.1 µm, respectively). Conversely, Δ*psrA* pThy bacteria were morphologically

indistinguishable to Lp02 pThy, as previously observed (Graham *et al*, 2021). The Δ*dksA*

pComp-*dksA* bacterial forms resembled those of Lp02 pThy indicating that filamentation was

rescued by DksA complementation: they were slightly but significantly shortened relative to

Lp02 (2.9 µm and 4.7 µm in EP and SP phases, respectively). Expression of DksA *in trans*

Δ*psrA* pComp-*dksA* and Lp02 pComp-*dksA* strains also resulted in slightly, but significantly

shorter cell lengths in comparison to those of Lp02 pThy and comparable to Δ*dksA* pComp-*dksA*

in both growth phases, suggesting the shortening mediated by DksA is independent of PsrA.

PsrA complementation in Δ*dksA* pComp-*psrA* did not strongly affect the bacterial cell lengths

and elongation was still present (7.5 µm and 14.2 µm in EP and SP, respectively).

401   Conversely, the *dksA1* pThy, *dksA1 ΔpsrA* pThy, and *dksA1* pComp-*psrA* were slightly

elongated relatively to parental Lp02 pThy in both EP (5.0 µm, 5.1 µm and 4.3 µm, respectively)

and SP (7.5 µm, 7.7 µm, and 7.8 µm, respectively) but were not filamentous, and did not vary

significantly from each other again supporting the hypothesis that the *dksA1* allele maintained

partial function. Interestingly, the Δ*dksA* pComp-*dksA1* strain did not show complementation of

the elongation to resemble *dksA1* levels as might be expected (5.6 µm in EP, 12.3 µm in SP). To

rule out the simple possibility of the two gene products conflicting in some way, we tested *dksA1*

pComp-*dksA*, that reversed the alleles expressed on plasmid and the chromosome, and this strain

appeared somewhat shortened relative to parental Lp02 pThy in SP only (4.2 µm) resembling the

other *in trans dksA* overexpression strains, suggesting that relative protein concentrations may

drive the phenotype. Together, this indicates that the previously reported role of *psrA* is

overshadowed by the more potent role of DksA, and that the DksA1 protein shows an

intermediate phenotype illustrating that DksA1 is a partially functional protein in these strains.

DksA or DksA1 are necessary for extended culturability in depleted media Previously, the

insertional Δ*dksA* strain was also noted to feature reduced recovery of culturable bacteria after

extended incubation in depleted media, which the authors referred to as "survival" (Dalebroux *et*

al., 2010b), although the assay attempted to recover culturable rather than viable bacteria. Over

the course of this study, we noticed that the Δ*dksA* mutants could not be consistently sub-

cultured (likely contributing to the variability of these strains seen in Figure 3), or often failed to

grow entirely if taken from plates grown more than three days, ordinarily easily possible with

parental strains. In view of this, we asked if this was a consequence of previously observed

culturability phenotype occurring in the unmarked Δ*dksA* mutant, and potentially the *dksA1*

strains, and whether PsrA may also contribute. As this phenotype had not been assessed in the

prior PsrA study (Graham *et al.*, 2021), we decided to include Δ*psrA* pThy, Δ*psrA* pComp-*psrA*

and Lp02 pComp-*psrA* (*psrA* overexpression) strains from Graham *et al.* (2021). The bacteria

from each strain were suspended in BYE at OD_{600} = 0.15, and grown at 37°C for 96 hours with

shaking, with samples taken for optical density values and CFU/mL titres at 24 h intervals.

Over the time course, optical density values peaked comparably for all strains at 24 h,

and held steadily to the 96 h timepoint (Figure 9). Enumeration of titres for Lp02 pThy and

Δ*psrA* pThy were comparable to one another, but the titres for Δ*dksA* pThy and Δ*psrA* Δ*dksA*

pThy were significantly reduced by 72 h, and more so by the 96 h for Δ*dksA* pThy, noting that

titre enumeration was not possible for Δ*psrA* Δ*dksA* pThy at 96 h as no colonies were recovered

in any replicate for this strain at that timepoint (detection limit ~10^2 CFU/mL; Figure 9A). The

reduced culturability phenotype was rescued by *in trans* complementation of DksA or DksA1,

but not PsrA (Figures 9B, 9C). The extended culturability of *dksA1* pThy strain was unaffected

in comparison to parental Lp02 pThy, thereby not requiring nor significantly benefiting from

plasmid-borne *in trans* complementation of DksA (Figure 9D). The unaltered phenotype of

dskA1 Δ*psrA* pThy and Δ*psrA* pComp-*dksA* strains further supports the observation that PsrA

does not contribute to, nor does overexpression of DksA (i.e. Lp02 *pComp-dksA*) significantly

improve, extended culturability (Figures 9E, 9F). Thus, in summary, PsrA plays no role in

extended culturability, while DksA is essential for the culturability of Lp02 in depleted media as

reported elsewhere previously (Dalebroux *et al.,* 2010b). Notably, the hypomorph *dskA1* allele

has retained this essential function of promoting extended culturability.

Pigmentation requires fully functional DksA, but not PsrA *L. pneumophila* pigment is a

brown, melanin-like secreted protein that is released into the supernatant during the transition to

stationary phase under the control of the stringent response through RelA (Zusman *et al.*, 2002;

Dalebroux *et al.*, 2010b). Further, we observed hyperpigmentation of a subset of parental,

isogenic (Δ*psrA*, Δ*dksA*) and *dksA1* strains overproducing *dksA in trans* (Figure 10A). To

ascertain whether DksA1 and/or PsrA could contribute to this hyperpigmentation, we quantified

the pigmentation for each strain by measuring absorbance of the bacterial culture supernatant at

550 nm as done elsewhere (Wiater *et al.*, 1994; Dalebroux *et al.,* 2010b) (Figure 10B).

The parental Lp02 pThy strain developed moderate pigmentation ($Abs_{550}/OD_{600} = {\sim}0.20$)

that was similarly achieved by Δ*psrA* pThy, Δ*psrA* pComp-*psrA*, and Lp02 pComp-*psrA* strains

suggesting that PsrA does not influence pigmentation (Figure 10B). This supposition is further

borne out by the significantly reduced pigmentation ($Abs_{550}/OD_{600} = 0.10 - 0.12$) featured by

both of the Δ*dksA* Δ*psrA* pThy and Δ*dksA* pThy strains, which the latter is rescued to

significantly increased levels (i.e. hyperpigmentation) ($Abs_{550}/OD_{600} = 0.36 - 0.38$) over that of

Lp02 pThy likely due to plasmid-copy number driven overproduction of DksA (Figure 10B).

Indeed, the pigmentation phenotype was rescued by *in trans* DksA complementation in the

Δ*psrA* strain background, but not by *in trans* PsrA complementation in the Δ*dksA* strain

background, clearly indicating that only DksA positively influences pigmentation (Figure 10B).

Pigmentation was also significantly reduced ($Abs_{550}/OD_{600} = 0.05 - 0.09$) in the *dksA1* pThy and

dksA1 Δ*psrA* strain backgrounds, and the phenotype is not rescued by *in trans* PsrA

complementation verifying the lack of involvement in pigmentation by PsrA (Figure 10B).

Surprisingly, the hypomorph DksA1 could not rescue pigmentation in the Δ*dksA* strain, but

pigmentation of *dksA1* strain could be induced by *in trans* DksA complementation. The *dksA1*

pComp-*dksA* strain showed delayed onset of hyperpigmentation such that only one of three

replicates had fully pigmented by 30 h; all replicates of this strain pigmented by 48 h (Figure

10A), but at 30 h the difference was not statistically significant. These findings indicate that the

ability of DksA1 to interact with RNAP is impaired as suggested by structural modelling

(Figures 1, 10B). Taken together, these findings indicate that DksA is sufficient to drive

pigmentation independent of PsrA, although, curiously the *dksA1* strain was unpigmented like

the Δ*dksA* strain, which can be interpreted as the truncated region impacting this phenotype for

more than, for example, extended culturability where no significant impact was observed.

Growth in long chain fatty acids is mediated by PsrA and DksA The activation of the

biphasic switch is mediated in part by the response to fatty acid flux (Edwards *et al.,* 2009;

Dalebroux *et al.,* 2010b). It was shown elsewhere that *in vitro* supplementation of short chain

fatty acids (SCFAs), such as propionic acid, will trigger the expression of transmissive phase

traits (Edwards *et al.,* 2009). Further, the process of differentiation in response to excess SCFAs

is mediated by DksA (Dalebroux *et al.,* 2010b). Likewise, PsrA is associated with differentiation

and although the precise role remains to be elucidated, the *Pseudomonas* PsrA ortholog is a

sensor of long chain fatty acids (LCFAs), presence of which alleviates PsrA-mediated repression

of the *fadBA5* β-oxidation operon (Kang *et al*., 2008). In this view, Δ*psrA* and complemented

strains were grown in BYE broth supplemented with the LCFA, palmitic acid, to determine if

bacterial growth was impacted by lack of PsrA. In comparison to normalized Lp02, 2-fold

inhibition of growth of the Δ*psrA* pThy strain was observed which was rescued by *in trans* PsrA

expression strongly suggesting the involvement of PsrA in responding to LCFAs (Figure 11A).

Because chromosomal DksA expression is present in the Δ*psrA* pThy strain, we next asked if

DksA had a contributing factor in responding to palmitic acid which could be amplified through

in trans DksA expression in the Δ*psrA* strain background. While it appears that growth of the

Δ*psrA* pComp-*dksA* strain improved, it was not statistically significant (Figure 11A). Likewise,

in trans DksA expression in the parental strain background did not significantly improve

bacterial growth over that of the parental strain alone (Figure 11A). To further investigate the

role of DksA, Δ*dksA*-based strains were assessed in palmitic acid-supplemented BYE media. As

expected, the double Δ*dksA* Δ*psrA* pThy strain had 2-fold growth inhibition with less variability

amongst the data points than in comparison to the Δ*psrA* pThy strain by itself (Figure 11A, 11B).

Growth inhibition of the Δ*dksA* pThy strains was not considered statistically different from the

normalized growth of Lp02 (Figure 11B). Conversely, *in trans* DksA expression significantly

improved bacterial growth over that of normalized Lp02 (Figure 11B). Surprisingly, *in trans*

PsrA expression in the Δ*dksA* strain background could not fully rescue the growth inhibition

phenotype. Taken together, these results suggest that while PsrA is largely responsible for the

response to LCFAs, DksA also contributes additively to this response lending support to the

overlapping roles observed for the two regulatory factors for some of the traits in this study.

Discussion

The biphasic lifecycle of *L. pneumophila* is controlled by the convergence of multiple signals into a sophisticated regulatory network that ultimately acts to induce TP differentiation. The primary signals driving differentiation link to the nutritional status of the environment, mediated largely by induction of the stringent-response and the associated downstream regulatory network in association with RNAP-binding cofactor DksA, alternative sigma factor RpoS, two-component systems and a subset of transcriptional regulators including PsrA (Fonseca and Swanson, 2014; Oliva *et al*., 2018; Graham *et al*., 2024).

This study investigated a spontaneous *dksA* mutation, termed *dksA1*, resulting in a truncated DksA1 protein featuring a deletion within its CC domain (Figure 1) (Perederina *et al*, 2004; Dalebroux *et al.,* 2010b). The Δ*dksA1* strain showed reduced intracellular growth in *A. castellanii* protozoa that was partially, but not fully, rescued by *in trans* expression of *psrA* allowing us to propose *dksA1* and encoded protein product as representing a partially functional allele whose phenotypes allowed us to explore overlapping cellular functions of both regulators, inferring an overlap of gene targets regulated by DksA and PsrA (Figure 2A).

The intermediate phenotype observed in bacteria expressing DksA1 relative to DksA can be explained by comparing their AlphaFold2 models to that of *E. coli* DksA bound to RNAP (Figure 1) (Molodtsov *et al*., 2018). These models predict DksA1 to be physically incapable of coordinating magnesium in the active site of RNAP due to the truncated loop in the CC domain (Figure 1D, F). However, DksA1 is still predicted to overall form the core CC and GH domains (Parshin *et al*., 2015; Molodtsov *et al*., 2018). This would hypothetically still allow DksA1 to bind into the allosteric binding pocket of RNAP (Figure 1C, S2) thereby recruiting a secondary ppGpp to RNAP. This would partially explain the variance in phenotype of *dksA1* as an intermediary between the WT and knockout strain. Likewise, these structural predictions also fit

into the model of the interplay between GreA and DksA as allosteric inhibitors/activators of

RNAP competing for the same allosteric site (Parshin *et al*., 2015; Molodtsov *et al*., 2018).

To explore the possibilities that either DksA and PsrA genetically interact with each

other, or act in parallel, Δ*dksA* and Δ*dksA* Δ*psrA* strains were subsequently assessed for growth

kinetics in *A. castellanii* protozoa (Figure 2). The Δ*dksA* strain developed a more severely

avirulent phenotype than the *dksA1* strain, and was rescued by *in trans* complementation of *dksA*

and by *dksA1*, but not by *psrA*. Notably, the avirulent phenotype of the Δ*dksA* pThy strain

contrasts to previous experiments showing that a Δ*dksA* insertional mutant strain exhibited

reduced intracellular growth, but was not avirulent in *A. castellanii* (Dalebroux *et al.,* 2010b).

This discrepancy in findings could be due to differing experimental conditions as Dalebroux *et*

al. (2010b) conducted *A. castellanii* infections at 37°C. Temperature-dependent phenotypes have

been seen previously, for example, with Δ*hfq* mutant strains, which only showed an intracellular

kinetic defect in *A. castellanii* at 30°C, but not at 37°C (McNealy *et al.,* 2005). We undertook the

A. castellanii infections at 25°C and showed that the avirulent phenotype of Δ*dksA* was fully

complemented by *in trans* DksA expression (Δ*dksA* pComp-*dksA*) indicating that the phenotype

was solely due to the genetic deletion of *dksA*. Another possibility for the discrepancy is the

possibility of different deletion strategies causing polar effects; Sahr *et al* (2012) annotated *L.*

pneumophila Paris strain *dksA* in an operon with an uncharacterized alpha/beta hydrolase

lpp2286 encoded downstream and Lp02-derivative strains are likely similar. However, both our

study and the previous work by Dalebroux *et al* (2010b) showed the respective mutants were

complementable and thus, the discrepancy is unlikely a polar effect, although the previous work

did not test this in their intracellular kinetics assay. Additionally, *in trans* expression of DksA1

was sufficient to compensate for lack of DksA indicating that the mutant truncation did not

impact essential function of DksA. Lastly, expression of DksA enhanced and rescued

intracellular growth in Lp02 and Δ*psrA* strains, respectively. Thus, DksA can compensate for

lack of PsrA, and PsrA can partially compensate for the reduced activity of DksA1, but cannot

compensate for the absence of DksA intracellularly in *A. castellanii*. Taken together, the

interplay of DksA and PsrA in regulating their gene targets is not fully reciprocal, indicating that

successful intracellular growth in *A. castellanii* is largely driven by DksA with assistance from

PsrA.

The requirement of DksA for intracellular growth is host specific. DksA was shown

elsewhere to be dispensable for growth in primary murine macrophages (Dalebroux *et al*.,

2010b) and for human U937-derived human macrophages as shown in this study (Figure 3).

Likewise, the Δ*dksA* Δ*psrA* strain was not impeded for intracellular growth in U937-derived

macrophages; a finding similar to that previously found with the Δ*psrA* strain (Graham *et al*.,

2021). Overexpression of DksA in the Lp02 strain background enhanced intracellular growth in

protozoa, but with little overall impact in U937-derived macrophages, a trend also seen with

overexpression of PsrA (Graham *et al*., 2021), indicating that elevated levels of either regulatory

factor on an individual basis imbued a positive effect on replication in *A. castellanii* that did not

equate to a substantial phenotype in U937-derived macrophages.

The induction of regulatory mechanisms controlling the transition switch from RP to TP

are generally comparably induced *in vivo* (e.g. in protozoa) and *in vitro* (Byrne and Swanson,

1998), thus enabling *in vitro* approaches to examine growth kinetics and phenotypes

characteristic of TP-associated traits of *L. pneumophila*. To this end, *in vitro* kinetic assays were

undertaken to show the interplay between DksA and PsrA were largely growth temperature-

independent (Figures 4 and 5). While the Δ*dksA* mutant strain featured erratic but generally

enhanced growth, incrementally increased *in trans* expression of DksA in Δ*dksA* and parental

strains, respectively, inhibited growth in broth. This phenotype was inverse to that seen of the

Δ*dksA* strain harboring chromosomal and *in trans* expression of PsrA which positively impacted

growth within protozoa (Figure 2B). Moreover, the Δ*psrA* pComp-*dksA* strain grew slower than

either Δ*psrA* or Lp02 pComp-*dksA* strains individually in broth, suggesting the presence of an

additive effect (Figures 4D). The slowest growing strain in broth was Δ*dksA* pComp-*dksA1*,

indicating that the mutant truncation bore functional consequence towards growth rates, a

curious discrepancy when compared with the growth rate of this strain in protozoa, which

resembled the parental Lp02 (Figures 2C, 4C). The slow *in vitro* growth phenotype did not apply

to the *in vivo* grown Lp02 pComp-*dksA1* strain bearing chromosomally expressed DksA,

inferring that DksA1 is not a dominant-negative allele (Figure 2D) and suggesting an underlying

complexity to the altered function of the mutant protein. Taken together, the *in vitro* growth

kinetic profiles were consistent with the current model of DksA promoting TP-associated traits

(Dalebroux *et al.,* 2010b).

Other phenotypes such as cellular filamentation, pigmentation, and recovery of culturable

bacteria from depleted media, were consistent with previously reported findings (Dalebroux *et*

al., 2010b). Lack of DksA resulted in unusual colony morphology (Figure 6) and elongated cell

morphology (i.e., filamentation), particularly in stationary phase (Figures 7-8). Lack of DksA

also dramatically reduced bacterial culturability upon extended incubation in depleted broth

(Figure 9). Given the link to the stringent response, the Δ*dksA* strain may be physiologically

poorly equipped to handle nutrient deprivation or other stressors found in depleted broth.

Biologically, PsrA does not contribute to this phenotype. RNA-Seq analyses of Δ*psrA* or *in trans*

psrA expression strains showed few stress-related genes under PsrA regulation (Graham *et al*.,

2021), so PsrA may be dispensable in these conditions. Further to this, filamentation and

culturability likely influence DksA-dependent variability in optical density to titre ratios of

stationary phase bacteria recovered from three-day old BCYE plates, and thus explain the

variability in the *in vitro* growth curves, and potentially, the low inoculum titre in the *in vivo*

kinetics. Indeed, DksA was recently ascertained to have a pivotal role in cell division in *E. coli*;

binding of ppGpp to DksA/RNAP indirectly activates the divisome complex component FtsZ to

modulate cell length and division (Anderson *et al*., 2023). The absence of either DksA or ppGpp

promotes cell filamentation for different reasons; lack of DksA prevents activation of cell

division by ppGpp resulting whereas lack of ppGpp causes DksA to switch from an activator to

an inhibitor of FtsZ. Thus, by orthologous function, it is likely that DksA behaves in the same

manner in *L. pneumophila* as Δ*dksA* cells are filamentous (Figures 7 and 8) (Dalebroux *et al.,*

2010b). Lastly, pigmentation comprises a brown tyrosine-based metabolite produced post-

exponentially by *L. pneumophila* as an adaptation to environmental stress, potentially serving for

photoprotection, iron acquisition, or as a biocide to enhance *L. pneumophila* competitiveness in

biofilms (Steinert *et al.,* 1995; Chatfield and Cianciotto, 2017; Levin *et al.,* 2019). As reported

elsewhere, DksA is a major driver of pigment production (Figure 10) (Dalebroux *et al.,* 2010b).

Conversely, these traits, other than cell length, do not seem measurably impacted by the cellular

levels of PsrA, indicating that PsrA may impact virulence specific pathways rather than cellular

physiology.

Fatty acid flux is linked to *L. pneumophila* TP differentiation through SpoT-mediated

stringent induction, with either DksA or ppGpp, sufficient to arrest growth upon supplementation

with SCFA (Edwards *et al.,* 2009; Dalebroux *et al.,* 2010b). Here, we show that like its ortholog

in *Pseudomonas* spp., PsrA is responsive to fatty acids suggesting a conserved functional role in

sensing LCFA in the environment alongside SpoT, and further, both DksA and PsrA must be

present to ensure a proper LCFA response (Figure 11) (Kang *et al.*, 2008), although the

mechanistic details of the PsrA-mediated response remain undefined until further study can be

undertaken.

Together, our findings show that the truncation in DksA1 affects different biological

processes in different ways, with phenotypes of *dksA1* strains ranging from identical to the

parental strain, to identical to that of the full Δ*dksA* mutant, or intermediate to either, illustrating

that the dysfunctional DksA1 may impact different cellular processes in different ways given the

wide disparities in phenotypes attributed to this allele. As the functional basis of the *dksA1*

phenotype has not been elucidated, these results cannot distinguish the distinct effects of ppGpp

recruitment and competitive sequestration of RNAP from GreA; the presence of multiple DksA-

mediated regulatory mechanisms could contribute to the variability of phenotypes observed in

hypomorphic strains. Nevertheless, the fortuitous *dksA1* mutation allowed the opportunity to

further explore the regulatory dynamics between DksA and PsrA. The bacterial response to

LCFA suggests a novel regulatory link to the stringent response pathway, further solidifying the

mechanistic importance of both DksA and PsrA as contributing regulators of the biphasic

lifestyle of *L. pneumophila.*

In summary, PsrA seems to redundantly act as a bypass for *dksA* in virulence but has

little impact on other processes, suggesting a more targeted mechanism. The largely overlapping

and additive phenotypes presented in this study are consistent with the two distinct mechanisms

by which DksA and PsrA act, and thus the following model is proposed (Figure 12). In a

scenario in which a promoter that is repressed by either DksA or PsrA; absence of DksA would

permit GreA to act as the sole-secondary channel binding protein thereby allowing increased

efficiency in transcription initiation. Elevated levels of PsrA would result in increased promoter

blockage at co-regulated promoters, thus providing a compensatory repression. Conversely, lack

of PsrA would leave the promoter more accessible for RNAP, but this could be counteracted if

elevated levels of DksA results in reduced transcriptional efficiency. Alternatively, a promoter

not subject to PsrA influence would be exempt from the compensatory effects, and thus be

wholly dependent on the dynamics between GreA and DksA. Nevertheless, the proposed co-

regulator duality could explain why transcriptomic analyses did not overtly reveal a large

number of PsrA-regulated targets (Graham *et al*., 2021); thus, future transcriptomic studies will

include the Δ*psrA* Δ*dksA* strain to compare against data obtained for individual Δ*psrA* and Δ*dksA*

strains to discern distinct and overlapping roles.

Another major question is whether the observations garnered from the Δ*dksA* strain can

be extended to include the ppGpp^0 (Δ*relA* Δ*spoT*) strain. The interface with PsrA and ppGpp

remains unexplored and bears interest in relation to the link between PsrA and the fatty acid

response. The possibility that PsrA is the mechanism by which DksA drives the LCFA response

in ppGpp^0 strain is intriguing. Additionally, whether a similar reciprocal compensatory effect on

phenotypes is seen between ppGpp^0 and PsrA poses an interesting topic for future investigation

to follow upon the present study, which explored the phenotypic role of spontaneously mutated

DksA1 and PsrA, and uncovered a synergistic genetic relationship between PsrA and DksA in

terms of virulence regulation.

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Materials and methods

Structural Predictions and Modelling The amino acid sequences of DksA and DskA1 were submitted to the collabfold2 sever (Pettersen *et al*. 2021) with default settings. Top rank #1 models were selected for modelling and analysis in UCSF ChimeraX (Pettersen *et al*., 2021). Structural overlays between Lp02 DksA, DksA1, and DksA (5VSW) (Molodtsov *et al*., 2018) were aligned with Matchmaker. Conservation alignments were performed using Consurf (Landau *et al*., 2005; Ashkenazy *et al*., 2016) with the Alphafold2 model of Lp02 DksA.

Culture of *E. coli* and *L pneumophila* *Legionella pneumophila* Philadelphia-1 derivative Lp02 parental and isogenic strains, as described in Table 1, were grown as previously described on Buffered-Charcoal-Yeast Extract BCYE)-agar plates (Feeley *et al*., 1979) supplemented as required with thymidine (100 μg/mL), sucrose (5% w/v) or kanamycin sulphate (25 μg/mL) and incubated at 37°C and 5% CO_2, or Buffered-Yeast Extract (BYE) broth at 37°C. *E. coli* was utilized for cloning and plasmid propagation purposes (DH5α for *in trans* expression vector pJB908 or pThy [pBH6119], and DH5α λpir for suicide vector pSR47S)was grown on LB (Lennox) agar or broth supplemented as required with ampicillin (100 μg/mL) or kanamycin sulphate (40 μg/mL) and incubated at 37°C.

Molecular methods/reagents, cloning, and sequencing Chemicals were procured form VWR (Ottawa, ON, Canada), Thermo-Fisher (Mississauga, ON, Canada), or Sigma-Aldrich (Oakville, ON, Canada) while restriction enzymes, PCR enzymes, and other cloning reagents were procured from New England Biolabs (Whitby, ON, Canada). Oligonucleotide primers, ordered from Life Technologies (Thermo-Fisher), were utilized under conditions listed in Table 2.

Nucleic acid purification kits were purchased from Qiagen (Toronto, ON, Canada). Sanger

sequencing for routine verification of constructs and mutant validations was done as a fee-based

service by The Centre for Applied Genomics (The Hospital for Sick Children, Toronto, ON,

Canada). Whole genome sequencing was undertaken by phenol-chloroform isolation of genomic

DNA followed by sequencing via Pacbio SMRT at Genome-Québec (Montreal, QC, Canada)

and assembled using Geneious^{TM} software.

dskA1 and Δ*dksA* mutant strains The *dksA1* mutation was identified during routine whole

genome sequencing of prospective Δ*psrA* mutant strains during experiments for Graham *et al.*

(2021), and traced back to the electrocompetent cell stock used to create the strains, which was

subsequently struck out for isolated colonies. Colonies were screened for *dksA1* by PCR using

the primer set (PF dksA1 missing / PR dksA1 missing) that annealed to the missing 24 bp region

within *dksA1*, allowing recovering of the ancestral Lp02 *dksA1* strain from the competent cells.

For these reactions, PF dksA1 missing was paired with PR dksA ext conf, and PF dksA ext conf

was paired with PR dksA1 missing, such that each primer set only generated product from the

parental allele. As a positive PCR control, adjacent PF/PR dksA conf int primer set generated

product in both alleles. For generation of an in-frame Δ*dksA* mutant strain, ~1000 bp 5′ (primer

set PF 5-flk dksA SalI / PR 5-flk dksA BamH1) and 3′ (PF 3-flk dksA BamH1 / PR 3-flk dksA

SacI) regions flanking *dksA* were PCR-amplified and cloned into suicide vector pSR47S to use

for routine allelic exchange. For generation of *in trans* complementation or overexpression

constructs, either *dksA* or *dksA1* were PCR-amplified from Lp02 or *dksA1* mutant CG799,

respectively, using primer set (PF comp dksA BamHI / PR comp dksA SacI) and cloned into

pJB908, and introduced into parental or isogenic mutant strains by electroporation. Plasmid

constructs and mutations were routinely verified by sequencing isolated plasmids or PCR

amplicon products, and mutant strains were routinely subjected to whole genome sequencing to

rule out secondary mutations.

In vitro growth kinetics *L. pneumophila* strains were streaked on BCYE and grown for three

days under standard conditions. Bacterial cell mass was collected with a disposable loop and

suspended in pre-warmed BYE broth and normalized to $OD_{600} = 0.15$ in BYE broth.

Subsequently 150 µL of this suspension was loaded in triplicate wells in a 96-well flat bottomed

microtitre plate, the lid was sealed with Parafilm, and loaded into a BioTek Synergy HTX plate

reader, reading OD_{600} hourly for 24 h at 37°C or every 2 h for 48 h at 25°C with 150 rpm linear

shaking. Results were plotted in GraphPad Prism^{TM} 9.1 and analyzed via two-way ANOVA

analysis.

Culture and intracellular kinetics in protozoan *A. castellanii* *Acanthamoeba castellanii*

(ATCC 30234) were propagated in PYG media at 25°C as previously described (Tanner *et al.,*

2016). Briefly, infections were undertaken in AC buffer by placing ~10^6 protozoan trophozoites

in each well of a set of 24 tissue culture-treated 24-well plates and allowing them to adhere, then

overlaying them with bacteria normalized by OD_{600} to a MOI of 0.1 in AC buffer. After 1 h

incubation at 25°C, the wells were washed 3 x 1 mL AC buffer, before incubating in 1 mL/well

of AC buffer at 25°C until the indicated timepoints. Protozoa were lysed mechanically via

vortexing, and the lysate serially diluted in AC buffer onto BCYE-agar plates to enumerate titres.

To enhance enumeration of difficult-to-recover avirulent strains, a portion of the lysate was

tenfold concentrated by centrifugation at 21,000 x *g* in a microcentrifuge for 2 min, then 0.9 vol

of the supernatant drawn off; the pellet was resuspended in the remaining volume and spotted

alongside the serial dilutions. After counting titres, graphs were plotted and analyzed (two-way

ANOVA) in GraphPad Prism^{TM} 9.1.

Culture and intracellular kinetics in U937 human macrophages Human U937 monocytic

cells were propagated and differentiated into macrophages using phorbol myristate acetate

(PMA, Sigma-Aldrich) as previously described (Tanner *et al.,* 2016). Cells were grown in

RPMI-1640 media (HyClone, Thermo-Fisher) supplemented with 10% heat inactivated fetal

bovine serum (Seradigm, Mississauga, ON) (RPMI + FBS) at 37°C and 5% CO_2 that was used

for all washes and incubations in a pre-warmed state. For infection, $\sim 10^6$ activated U937-derived

macrophages were placed into each well of a tissue culture-treated 24 well plates, allowed to

adhere, and overlaid with *L. pneumophila* strains normalized by OD_{600} to a MOI of 2, for 1 h.

The bacteria were washed away with 3 x 1 ml washes in RPMI + FBS, followed by an

incubation for 1 h with RPMI + FBS with 100 µg/mL gentamicin. After a further 3 x 1 mL

washes in RPMI + FBS, the cells were incubated in 1 mL RPMI + FBS until lysis at indicated

timepoints. Cells were lysed osmotically by replacing the RPMI + FBS with ice-cold HyClone

ultrapure water and repeated pipetting (Thermo-Fisher), then serially diluting the lysate in

additional HyClone water and enumerating *L. pneumophila* titres by spotting the dilutions on

BCYE-agar plates. After counting, graphs were plotted and analyzed via two-way ANOVA in

GraphPad Prism^{TM} 9.1.

Pigment, morphology and capturability assays Suspensions of *L. pneumophila* were prepared

as per *in vitro* growth kinetics. Pigment assays were undertaken in accordance to Wiater et al.

(1994). Briefly, inoculated 5 mL BYE broth cultures in 13 mL plastic test tubes were placed on a

roller drum at 37°C for 72 h. To quantify pigment at 24 h timepoints, 1 mL of culture was

withdrawn, pelleted at 21,000 x g in a microcentrifuge for 2 min, after which 150 µL of

supernatant was loaded in triplicate into 96 well plates and read for absorbance at 550 nm on a

BioTek Synergy HTX plate reader (Wiater *et al*., 1994). After removal of residual supernatant,

the pellet was suspended in 1 mL of 1 x PBS pH 7.0 and similarly loaded (150 µL) into a 96 well

plate then read for OD_{600}. Blank controls were the same volume of BYE or 1 x PBS as

appropriate. Results were plotted and analyzed using GraphPad Prism^{TM} (9.1). Photographed

samples were prepared similarly and at specified allowed to sit undisturbed for 24 h at ambient

temperatures (~22°C) for cells to sediment out by gravity. Long-term culturability was assessed

by inoculating 96 well plates with six wells for each strain, containing 150 µL of an OD_{600} =

0.15 suspension in BYE. The outermost rows and columns were filled with sterile water to

reduce evaporation, the plates were sealed with Parafilm and incubated on a shaking platform at

37°C for four days. At indicated intervals, cell aggregates were dispersed with pipetting, the

OD_{600} was read with a BioTek Synergy HTX plate reader across the wells containing

unharvested culture, and one well of each strain harvested and serially diluted for titre on BCYE

agar plates. Results were plotted and analyzed using GraphPad Prism (9.1). For colony-spot

morphology, 10 µL of the residual OD_{600} = 0.15 suspension used to prepare these assays was

spotted on a BCYE plate with spots spread out to twice the spacing of a standard multi-channel

pipette then incubated for 4 days at 37°C and 5% CO_2, then photographed.

LCFA assays Suspensions of *L. pneumophila* strains were prepared as per the *in vitro* kinetics,

at OD_{600} = 0.15 in BYE broth, except that media was supplemented with two-fold serially diluted

concentrations of palmitic acid (PA) as a 40 mM stock dissolved in 100% ethanol. All broth

including PA dilutions, controls and blanks was normalized to 0.5% ethanol. The suspension was

then subject to a standard in vitro growth curve as described in the in vitro kinetics section.

Inhibition was defined as growth of <50% in comparison to that of the same strain in a BYE +

0.5% ethanol-only control at the end of 24 h. Data were graphed using GraphPad Prism^{TM} 9.1.

Microscopy Microscopy and cell lengths were conducted as per Graham *et al.,* (2021). Briefly,

broth cultures in BYE broth were inoculated at OD_{600} = ~0.02 and incubated for 18 hto OD_{600} =

0.5-1.0 at 37°C to enter exponential phase, then were mounted on a 2% w/v agarose pad

prepared in water and imaged on an Axio Observer Z1 inverted microscope (Zeiss) equipped

with a glycerol-immersion 150X objective. Stationary phase cells were imaged by returning the

cultures to the roller drum for a further ~24 h to achieve stationary phase and imaged similarly.

Cell lengths were quantified using the length tool in ImageJ and lengths plotted and analyzed in

GraphPad Prism^{TM} (9.1).

 Table 1 List of strains and plasmids

Number	Name	Description	Source/reference
E. coli			
	DH5α	F′ *endA1 hsdR17*(r_k- m_k-) *supE44 thi-1 recA1 gyrA* (*Nal^r*) *relA1* Δ(*lacZYA-argF*)*U169 deoR*(ϕ80lacΔ(lacZ)M15)	New England Biolabs
	DH5α λpir	K-12 F- φ80*lacZ*ΔM15 *endA recAhsdR17* (*rm-mK+*) *supE44 thi-1 gyrA96 relA1* Δ(*lacZYA-argF*) U169 *λpir*	M. Swanson (Bryan *et al*., 2013)
L. pneumophila			
C858	Lp02	Str^r, Thy$^-$, HsdR$^-$ derivative of Philadelphia-1 strain	M. Swanson (Berger and Isberg, 1993)
KB265	Lp03	Lp02 Δ*dotA* mutant	R. Isberg (Berger and Isberg, 1993)
CG859	Δ*psrA*	Lp02 Δ*psrA* (unmarked, in frame deletion mutant)	Graham *et al.,* (2021)
CG860	Lp02 pThy	Lp02 pBH6119	Tanner *et al.*, (2016)
JT708	Δ*dotA* pThy	Lp03 pBH6119	Tanner *et al.*, (2016)
CG861	Lp02 pComp-*psrA*	Lp02 pJB908-*psrA*	Graham *et al.,* (2021)
CG862	Δ*psrA pThy*	Δ*psrA* pThy	Graham *et al.,* (2021)
CG863	Δ*psrA* pComp-*psrA*	Δ*psrA* pJB908-*psrA*	Graham *et al.,* (2021)
CG799	*dksA1*	Lp02 *dksA1* (*dksA1[Δ170-194]*); spontaneous 24 bp in-frame deletion	This study
CG819	*dksA1* pThy	*dksA1* pBH6119	This study
CG813	*dksA1*Δ*psrA*	Lp02 *dksA1* Δ*psrA*	This study
CG826	*dksA1* Δ*psrA* pThy	*dksA1* Δ*psrA* pBH6119	This study
CG1053	Δ*dksA*	Lp02 Δ*dksA* (unmarked, in frame deletion mutant of *dksA*)	This study
CG1054	Δ*dksA* Δ*psrA*	Δ*psrA* Δ*dksA*	This study
CG1055	Δ*dksA* pThy	Δ*dksA* pBH6119	This study
CG1056	Δ*dksA* Δ*psrA* pThy	Δ*psrA* Δ*dksA* pBH6119	This study
CG1057	Δ*dksA* pComp-*dksA*	Δ*dksA* pBH6119	This study
CG1059	Lp02 pComp-*dksA*	Lp02 pJB908-*dksA*	This study
CG1060	Δ*psrA* pComp-*dksA*	Δ*psrA* pJB908-*dksA*	This study
CG1061	Δ*dksA* pComp-*psrA*	Δ*dksA* pJB908-*psrA*	This study
CG1101	Δ*dksA* pComp-*dksA1*	Δ*dksA* pJB908-*dksA1*	This study
CG1102	Lp02 pComp-*dksA1*	Lp02 pComp-*dksA1*	This study
CG1146	*dksA1* pComp-*dksA*	*dksA1* pComp-*dksA*	This study
Plasmids			
	pJB908	RSF1010 cloning vector, *td*Δ*i*, Amp^r Thy$^+$	J. Vogel (Sexton *et al*., 2004)
	pBH6119	RSF1010 promoterless GFP vector; Amp^r, Thy$^+$	M. Swanson (Hammer *et al*., 2002)
	pSR47S	oriTRP4 oriR6K *kan^r sacB*	J. Vogel (Merriam *et al*., 1997)
pPP619	pComp-*psrA*	pJB908-*psrA*	Graham *et al.,* (2021)

pCG1051	pComp-*dksA*	pJB908-*dksA*	This study
pCG1080	pComp-*dksA1*	pJB908-*dksA1* allele recovered from spontaneous *dksA1* Lp02 strain CG799	This study
pCG1069	pSR47S-5′flk-*ΔdksA*-3′flk	pSR47S with 5′ and 3′ flanking regions for Δ*dksA*	This study

841   **Table 2** List of oligonucleotides.

Name	Sequence	Annealing Temp. (ºC)	Product Size (bp)
Cloning/Confirmation			
PF 5-flk dksA SalI	gcgataGTCGACgttagaggcagaacttttactctg	62	915
PR 5-flk dksA BamH1	gcgataGGATCCatcaattaattgtcctgtcatgcc		
PF 3-flk dksA BamH1	gcgataGGATCCcagggtgcttgattctttcttg	62	978
PR 3-flk dksA SacI	gcgataGAGCTCgtaataagggctctgtagtgagg		
PF comp dksA BamHI	gcgataGGATCCgatttcagcaaagaggcattgg	62	1016 (*dksA*) 992 (*dksA1*)
PR comp dksA SacI	gcgataGAGCTCgaatcaagcaccctgattttgg		
PF dksA ext conf	caagcaatcggaataacaaacc	62	842
PR dksA ext conf	cactgtaagccttgttgattttc		
PR dksA conf int	gtcttgcttcaagacgtttcag	57.5	533 (with PF ext dksA conf)
pF dksA1 missing*	ggaagaagtagatcgtactgtctc	57.5	320 with pF ext dksA conf*
PR dksA1 missing*	gagacagtacgatctacttcttcc	57.5	546 to pR ext dksA conf*
Sequencing			
PF pSR47s seq	ctgttgcatgggcataaagttg	-	–
PR pSR47s seq	cacaggaaacagctatgacc	-	-
PF pJB908 seq	ctccgtgatggaatgacaac	-	–
PR pJB908 seq	gaccgcttctgcgttctga	-	–

842   Restriction sites indicated by capitalized letters.

843   * dksA1 missing primers used for screening strains, anneal to the region missing in *dksA1* and
844   will only generate product with the parental allele.

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1056

Figure 1: Structural comparison of DksA and DksA1 AlphaFold models. (A) Structural
overlay of DksA (PDB ID: 5VSW) with both Lp02 DksA and DksA1 as modeled by AlphaFold.
(B) Residue conservation of Lp02 DskA as plotted by the server Consurf (Landau *et al*., 2005;
Ashkenazy *et al*., 2016). Yellow indicates insufficient information in the multisequence
alignment. Indicated on the structure are conserved residues important for binding ppGpp and
allostery with RNAP (R97 to K104), in addition to contact with the active site (D77-D80). (C)
Binding of DksA with the RNAP allosteric site. A DksA:RNAP experimental structure (PDB ID:
5VSW) and aligned AlphaFold models are shown as cartoons, whereas RNAP is drawn as a
molecular surface. The structure of ppGpp bound in the complex is also shown. (D) Slice view of
DksA showing the contact point of residues D80 and D77 with magnesium in the RNAP active
site. (D) Interactions of DksA variants with ppGpp in the RNAP allosteric site are shown and not
disturbed by the truncation in DksA1. (E) Interactions of DksA variants with magnesium in the
active site of RNAP are shown. AlphaFold predicts the truncation in DksA1 drastically moves
the position of a critical aspartate residue (D69/71/77).

Figure 2

1071

Figure 2: Synergistic impacts of DksA, DksA1, and PsrA on virulence of *L. pneumophila* in the *A. castellanii* protozoa. Intracellular growth kinetics of *L. pneumophila* strains in *A. castellanii* protozoa at 25°C. Strains tested were parental Lp02 and isogenic strains featuring single or combinatorial genetics mutations (ΔpsrA, ΔdksA, dksA1), *in-trans* complementation or overexpression of *psrA, dksA* or *dksA1* genes. Lp02 and ΔdotA are virulent (parental) and avirulent strains, respectively. Complementation/overexpression was via *in trans* plasmid expression with gene and endogenous promoter cloned into pJB908. pThy is empty control vector pBH6119. Error bars represent SD across mean of three biological replicates, with two technical replicates each. Samples below detection limit (~10 CFU/mL) were recorded as zero and omitted from graph if they lacked countable colonies across all replicates.

Figure 3

A

B

C

1082

Figure 3: DksA is dispensable for growth in human macrophages. Intracellular growth
kinetics of *L. pneumophila* strains in U937-derived macrophages at 37°C. Strains tested were
parental Lp02 and isogenic strains featuring single or combinatorial genetic mutations (Δ*psrA*,
Δ*dksA*, *dksA1*), *in-trans* complementation or overexpression of *psrA, dksA* or *dksA1* with gene
and endogenous promoter cloned into pJB908. Lp02 and Δ*dotA* are virulent (parental) and
avirulent strains, respectively. pThy is empty control vector pBH6119. Error bars represent SD
across mean of three biological experiments with two technical replicates each. Experiments in
panels A and B were conducted concurrently, but presented separately for clarity.

Figure 4

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Figure 4: *L. pneumophila in vitro* **growth at 37°C is impacted by DksA, PsrA and DksA1.** *In vitro* growth kinetics of *L. pneumophila* strains: parental Lp02 and isogenic strains featuring single or combinatorial genetic mutations (Δ*psrA*, Δ*dksA*, *dksA1*) and/or *in-trans* complementation or overexpression of *psrA, dksA*, or *dksA1* genes.   Plate-grown bacteria were suspended in BYE broth and normalized to initial OD_{600} = 0.15, and growth at 37°C was monitored for OD_{600} hourly for 24 h. Complementation/overexpression was via *in trans* plasmid expression with gene and endogenous promoter cloned into pJB908, pThy is empty control vector pBH6119. Graphs in panels A-D were experiments conducted concurrently, but presented separately for clarity. Error bars are SD across mean of three independent biological replicates with three technical replicates each.

1102

Figure 5: ***L. pneumophila in vitro* growth at 25°C is impacted by DksA, PsrA and DksA1.** *In vitro* growth kinetics of *L. pneumophila* strains: Parental Lp02 and isogenic strains featuring single or combinatorial genetic mutations (Δ*psrA*, Δ*dksA*, *dksA1*), *in-trans* complementation or overexpression of *psrA, dksA* or *dksA1* genes. Lp02 is the parental strain. Complementation/overexpression was via *in trans* plasmid expression with gene and endogenous promoter cloned into pJB908. pThy is empty control vector pBH6119. Plate-grown bacteria were re-suspended in BYE broth and normalized to initial OD$_{600}$ = 0.15, and growth at 25°C was monitored for OD$_{600}$ every 2 h for 48 h. Graphs in panels A-D were experiments conducted concurrently, but presented separately for clarity. Error bars are SD across mean of three independent biological replicates with three technical replicates each.

1113

Figure 6: *L. pneumophila* DksA and DksA1, but not PsrA affects colony morphology.
Parental Lp02 and isogenic strains featuring single or combinatorial genetic mutations (Δ*psrA*, Δ*dksA*, *dksA1*), and/or *in-trans* complementation or overexpression of *psrA* or *dksA* genes with gene and endogenous promoter cloned into pJB908. pThy is empty control vector pBH6119. Strains were grown on BCYE plates for 3 days and used to generate a bacterial suspension in BYE at OD_{600} = 0.15. 10 μL of the suspension was spotted onto BCYE plates in triplicate then the plates were incubated at 37°C at 5% CO_2 for 4 days prior to being photographed. Images are representative of one of three biological replicates.

Figure 7

1122

Figures 7*: L. pneumophila* **Δ***dksA***, but not** *dksA1* **or** *psrA* **cause filamentation.** Parental Lp02 and isogenic strains featuring single or combinatorial genetic mutations (Δ*psrA*, Δ*dksA*, *dksA1*), *in-trans* complementation or overexpression of pComp-*psrA,* pComp-*dksA* or pComp-*dksA1* genes were grown on BCYE plates and used to inoculate a dilute suspension of $OD_{600} = 0.02$ in BYE broth then incubated overnight at 37°C with aeration, to exponential (E) (~18h , $OD_{600} =$ ~0.5) or stationary (S; 24 h after EP) growth phases, then live-mounted on a 2% agarose pad prepared in ddH_2O and imaged on an Axio Observer Z1 inverted microscope (Zeiss) equipped with a glycerol-immersion 150X objective. Representative microscopic images of bacteria from one of three biological replicates. Scale bar is 5 μm.

Figure 8

Figure 8: *L. pneumophila* Δ*dksA*, *dksA1*, and *psrA* contribute to cell length regulation.
Parental Lp02 and isogenic strains featuring single or combinatorial genetic mutations (Δ*psrA*,
Δ*dksA*, *dksA1*), *in-trans* complementation or overexpression of *psrA, dksA* or *dksA1* genes were
grown from 3-day old plates subcultured to BYE broth at $OD_{600} = 0.02$ then incubated at 37°C
with aeration to (A) exponential (overnight, $OD_{600} \sim 0.5$) or (B) stationary phases (24 h after
exponential phase) then imaged with an Axio Observer Z1 inverted microscope (Zeiss) equipped
with a glycerol-immersion 150X objective and individual bacterial cell lengths quantified using
the length tool in ImageJ. Where filamentation was evident, only individual cells for which the
full length was visible were measured. Data represents >150 individual readings spread equally
across three biological replicates. Bar on graph and error bars represents mean and 95%
confidence interval, respectively. Statistical significance determined by Student's T-test (*, $p <$
0.05; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$; **** $p < 0,0001$; ns, not significant, $p > 0.05$).

1145

Figure 9: Bacterial culturability in depleted nutrient media is dependent on DksA or DksA1, but not PsrA. Panels (A-F) show *in vitro* growth kinetics of Lp02 and isogenic strains featuring single or combinatorial genetic mutations (Δ*psrA*, Δ*dksA*, *dksA1*), *in-trans* complementation or overexpression of *psrA, dksA* or *dksA1* genes, in BYE broth at 37°C for 96 hours with OD_{600} values (dotted lines; left Y axis) and titre enumerated by serial dilution and incubation on BCYE plates (solid lines; right Y axis) at 24 h intervals. Data are presented as mean and SD of three biological replicates. Points were omitted if results could not be calculated (no colonies recovered, below detection limit of ~100 CFU/mL). For ease of comparison, data obtained for select strains (Lp02 pThy, Δ*psrA* pThy, Δ*dksA* pThy, *dksA1* pThy) are shown in more than one panel where panels represent data acquired concurrently.

Figure 10: Pigmentation is regulated by DksA, but not PsrA. Parental Lp02 and isogenic strains featuring single or combinatorial genetic mutations (ΔpsrA, ΔdksA, dksA1) and/or *in-trans* complementation or overexpression of *psrA, dksA* or *dksA1* genes, were grown on BCYE plates for 3 days and used to generate a 5 mL bacterial suspension (BYE at $OD_{600} = 0.15$) then incubated at 37°C for 30 h (a) Qualitative observation of pigmentation. After 48 h incubation tubes were set aside for 24 h at room temperature to allow cells to sediment out, then photographed. Representative image of three replicates. (b) Quantification of pigment at 30 h. After 30 h of incubation 1 mL of culture was centrifuged at 20,000 x *g*. The supernatant was measured for pigment levels via absorbance at 550 nm, then the pellet was resuspended in same volume of 1X PBS pH 7.0 to measure cell density via OD_{600}. Readings were taken with a plate reader in a 96 well plate relative to appropriate BYE or PBS blanks. Readings reflect Abs_{550} /OD_{600}. Error bars represent SD across three biological replicates. Statistical significance calculated via Student's T-Test and relative to parental Lp02 pThy, indicated above bars (*, $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$; **** $p < 0,0001$; ns, not significant, $p > 0.05$).

Figure 11

1171

Figure 11: PsrA and DksA influences LCFA-mediated growth inhibition. Parental Lp02 and
isogenic strains featuring single or combinatorial genetic mutations (ΔpsrA and/or ΔdksA), and
in-trans complementation or overexpression of *psrA* or *dksA* genes, grown with and without
palmitic acid supplementation (as 40 mM stock dissolved in ethanol) in BYE media normalized
to 0.5% ethanol, in a 96-well microplate for 24 h with shaking at 37°C. Inhibition was defined as
growth, as assessed by OD_{600} values, of <50% of that of same strain in a BYE + 0.5% ethanol-
only control at the end of 24 h. Bars indicate mean of maximum concentration of PA where
indicated strain grew >50% of maximum, over three biological replicates with standard deviation
indicated. Dots in bars indicate individual replicate values. Panels A and B were conducted
separately. Statistical analyses were done using Student's unpaired T test: ns = no significance, *
= $p < 0.05$.

Figure 12

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Figure 12: Model of independent mechanisms of DksA and PsrA. A hypothetical promoter is
repressed by both PsrA and DksA (A) RNA polymerase (RNAP) holoenzyme is targeted to -10
and -35 boxes by a sigma factor. PsrA (oval dimers) binds a defined site in the promoter and
inhibits RNAP recruitment. (B) RNAP binds to GreA (triangles) or DksA (filled octagons)
interchangeably, with enhanced transcription initiation rates occurring while bound to GreA
versus DksA. (C) In a Δ*dksA* strain, only GreA is available for RNAP thus elevating
transcription levels, but *in trans psrA* overexpression generates higher levels of PsrA,
strengthening inhibition of RNAP recruitment to compensate. Conversely (D) the Δ*psrA* strain
allows uninhibited RNAP-promoter binding, increasing transcription, but this is offset by
overexpressing *dksA in trans*, increasing the proportion of RNAP bound to transcription-
inhibiting DksA thereby generating the compensatory effect.