Roles of PknB and CslA in cell wall morphogenesis of *Streptomyces*

Marta Derkacz[1], Andrew Watson[2], Akshada Gajbhiye[3], Michał Tracz[4], Dagmara Jakimowicz[1], Matthias Trost[3], Jeff Errington[2,5] and Bernhard Kepplinger[1,2*]

[1] University of Wroclaw, Department of Molecular Microbiology, ul. F. Joliot-Curie 14a, 50-383 Wrocław, PL

[2] University of Newcastle, Centre for Bacterial Cell Biology, Baddiley-Clark Building, Newcastle upon Tyne NE2 4AX, UK

[3] Newcastle University Biosciences Institute, Faculty of Medical Sciences, Newcastle upon Tyne, NE2 4HH, UK

[4] University of Wroclaw, Mass Spectrometry Laboratory, ul. F. Joliot-Curie 14a, 50-383 Wrocław, PL

[5] The University of Sydney, Faculty of Medicine and Health, Sydney, NSW 2006, AU

* Corresponding author: bernhard.kepplinger@uwr.edu.pl

Abstract

The bacterial cell wall is essential for maintaining cellular integrity and defining the mode of growth, with different species adopting distinct strategies for cell wall synthesis and remodelling. *Streptomyces* are filamentous bacteria predominantly found in soil and renowned for producing specialised metabolites, including antibiotics. They grow through tip extension and branching hyphal filaments, forming a multicellular mycelium. New branches are established by forming a new growth zone on the lateral cell wall. Proteins involved in this process are organised into complexes called polarisomes, with DivIVA being the most well-characterised component. To investigate the tip growth requirements in *Streptomyces albus* we developed a genetic screen utilising toxic DivIVA overproduction and searched for suppressors of its lethality, reasoning that such suppressors would likely encode components functionally linked to DivIVA or the tip growth machinery. Among the identified genes was *pknB*, encoding a serine/threonine protein kinase implicated in the regulation of cell growth and morphogenesis. We confirmed that deletion of *pknB* restored the growth phenotype of *S. albus* following DivIVA overproduction. The phosphoproteome analysis revealed that the absence of PknB alters the phosphorylation state of CslA, a cellulose synthase-like protein. We demonstrate that a phosphoablative mutant of CslA impairs β-glucan synthesis and causes hypersensitivity to lysozyme. Overproduction of CslA restored colony growth defects arising from DivIVA-induced hyperbranching, without however suppressing the hyperbranching phenotype.

These findings collectively identify PknB-dependent phosphorylation of CslA as a central regulatory point in *Streptomyces* cell envelope construction, revealing how modulation of β-glucan synthesis can mitigate the cellular consequences of DivIVA dysregulation.

Introduction

Peptidoglycan, a major target for antibiotics, is an essential component of bacterial cell walls, providing structural integrity and rigidity and enabling bacteria to maintain their shape and withstand osmotic pressure challenges (Liu and Breukink, 2016; Garde *et al.*, 2021). Proteobacteria (e.g., *Escherichia coli*) and Firmicutes (e.g., *Bacillus subtilis*) are among the best-studied models for cell morphogenesis. These rod-shaped bacteria typically exhibit lateral insertion of new cell wall material during elongation (Egan *et al.*, 2020). In contrast, Actinobacteria (e.g., *Streptomyces* and *Mycobacteria*) mainly insert new cell wall material at the tips during exponential growth (Flärdh, 2003a; Kuru *et al.*, 2014; Zambri *et al.*, 2025). Actinobacteria can be unicellular, such as Mycobacteria or Corynebacteria, or multicellular (e.g., *Streptomyces*), the latter forming a complex mycelial network that supports substrate colonisation (Chater, 2006). This polar growth mode is hypothesised to confer ecological advantages, such as efficient nutrient foraging and competitive dominance in soil environments.

Cell wall biosynthetic proteins driving tip growth are organised locally into polarisome complexes (Hempel *et al.*, 2008). Within the polarisome, DivIVA—a coiled-coil protein—plays a pivotal role and is essential for *Streptomyces* growth (Flärdh, 2003b). Overproduction of DivIVA results in swollen tips and hyperbranching, likely due to the misregulation of the cell wall biosynthetic machinery (Flärdh, 2003b). New DivIVA complexes appear on the lateral wall preceding the formation of the new branches (Flärdh, 2003b; Hempel *et al.*, 2008; Richards *et al.*, 2012). Two additional scaffolding proteins, Scy and FilP, are believed to sequester DivIVA, thereby facilitating the establishment of new growth zones and influencing the size and position of DivIVA complexes, respectively (Holmes *et al.*, 2013; Fröjd and Flärdh, 2019). The precise mechanism for branch initiation remains however elusive (Hempel *et al.*, 2008).

DivIVA phosphorylation has been reported in a wide range of species (Kang *et al.*, 2005; Beilharz *et al.*, 2012; Elsholz *et al.*, 2012). *Streptomyces coelicolor* encodes at least 34 Ser/Thr kinases, and DivIVA is modified by the non-essential Ser/Thr kinase AfsK (Hempel *et al.*, 2012). Mass spectrometry has identified AfsK phosphorylation sites on DivIVA as occurring on the non-essential C-terminal protein at residues T304, S309, S338, S344, and S355 in *S. coelicolor* (Saalbach *et al.*, 2013).The phosphatase SppA appears to function as a counterpart in this process (Passot *et al.*, 2022). Notably, AfsK overexpression induces disassembly of the apical (mother)

polarisome, leading to the formation of multiple daughter polarisomes, followed by the

establishment of multiple hyphal branches (Hempel *et al.*, 2008).

In contrast, in Mycobacteria, the DivIVA homologue Wag31 is phosphorylated by the essential

kinases PknA and PknB (Jani *et al.*, 2010). These genes reside within the division and cell wall

gene cluster that encodes key components of the bacterial cell division and peptidoglycan

biosynthesis machinery (Molle and Kremer, 2010). It typically includes *fts* genes for Z-ring

assembly, *mur* genes for peptidoglycan precursor synthesis, *rod-pbpA* genes for the cell wall, and

regulatory serine/threonine kinases *pknA* and *pknB*. Interestingly, the elimination of the

homologous kinase PknB in *Streptomyces* has no detrimental effect, whereas the kinase PknA is

missing in most *Streptomyces spp.* (Jones *et al.*, 2011).

In this study, we investigated the consequences of DivIVA overproduction in *Streptomyces albus*

to uncover the factors that are involved tip growth. This study revealed that inactivation of the

kinase PknB unexpectedly alleviated defects resulting from DivIVA imbalance. Subsequent

analysis identified CslA as a key downstream target of PknB, a cellulose synthase–like protein that

synthesises β-glucan and contributes to cell wall biogenesis (Xu *et al.*, 2008). We further

demonstrate that CslA phosphorylation state modulates β-glucan- synthesis and, consequently, the

cell's ability to stabilise growth zones. These findings suggest a phosphorylation-dependent

regulatory mechanism linking PknB activity to cell wall assembly at hyphal tips.

Materials and methods

Bacterial strains and culture conditions

All *S. albus* strains used in this study are listed in Table S1. *S. albus* spores were collected using

standard protocols (Kieser T *et al.*, 2000) from cultures grown on Soya Flour Mannitol (SFM) agar

plates supplemented with antibiotics (if required) to a final concentration of apramycin (50 µg/mL)

and hygromycin (50 µg/mL). Spore concentration was determined by serial dilution on SFM agar

plates. Spores were maintained at–80 °C in 25% glycerol aliquots for single-use. Tryptic Soy Broth

(TSB) and 5% TSB were used for morphology experiments. Liquid cultures were performed in 250

mL Erlenmeyer flasks containing metal spirals at 30 °C and 220 rpm for agitation. Solid cultures

were grown on 20 mL of 2% or 5% TSA agar plates at 30 °C. *E. coli* strains (listed in Table S2)

were grown at 37 °C on LB supplemented with antibiotics (if required) to a final concentration of

apramycin (50 μg/mL), kanamycin (50 μg/mL), chloramphenicol (34 μg/mL), or on 2YT

supplemented with hygromycin (50 μg/mL).

Construction of plasmids and strains

All plasmids and oligonucleotides used in this study are listed in Table S3 and Table S4,

respectively. Details of the plasmid construction are provided in the Supplementary Methods,

specifically in the section on comprehensive plasmid design and assembly. Plasmids were

transformed into *E. coli* DH5α and subsequently transferred to *Streptomyces* by conjugation with

E. coli ET12567/pUZ8002 strain or protoplast transformation using standard protocols (Kieser T

et al., 2000). For integrative plasmids, *Streptomyces* strains were grown in the presence of the

appropriate antibiotics. CRISPR/Cas9 plasmids were cured by incubation at 42 °C without

antibiotics. Mutants lacking apramycin resistance were sequenced by Microsynth AG using PCR-

amplified fragments of modified genomic DNA (with the exception of the 65α, 65α attBɸC31::

pIJ6902 (empty plasmid), and 65α attBɸC31::pBK288 (CslA under *tipA* inducible promoter)

strains, which were verified by Illumina sequencing).

Selection of spontaneous suppressor mutants and bioinformatics analysis

Spores of the DivIVA overproduction strain (approximately 10^6 spores per plate) were spread onto

5% TSA plates supplemented with 500 ng/mL of inducer (anhydrotetracycline). Following 5 days

of incubation, several colonies were observed and subsequently restreaked onto fresh 5% TSA

containing 500 ng/mL of the inducer (anhydrotetracycline). The parent DivIVA-overproducing and

wild-type strains served as controls.

DNA was isolated from the strains using a modified version of the "salting-out" method (Pospiech

and Neumann, 1995; Watson *et al.*, 2022). Libraries for Illumina sequencing were prepared using

the Illumina DNA prep kit, Nextera XT kit, and Illumina Nextera XT primer Index Kit. Sequencing

was performed by Edinburgh Genomics using MiSeq v2 (250 PE). Raw sequences are available in

the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (accession number: PRJNA1099611).

The quality of all Illumina reads was assessed using fastQC (version 0.11.9), and the reads were

trimmed using trimmomatic (version 0.39). Bowtie2 (version 2.3.5.1) was used to align the

trimmed Illumina reads to the *Streptomyces albus* J1074 genome (NC_020990.1) using the very

sensitive preset mode for mapping paired-end reads. Variants were called using bcftools (version

1.14) in the consensus calling mode (-c). Only predicted variants with a QUAL score of ≥ 15 were

retained. Bedtools subtract (version 2.27.1) was used to filter out any variants identified in potential

suppressor strains that were already present in the lab *S. albus* J1074 parent strain compared to the reference sequence (NC_020990.1) and thus were accumulated independently from this experiment. The potential impact of all variants on protein-coding sequences was assessed using snpEff (version 5.0e) (Cingolani *et al.*, 2012). The final table was derived by manually inspecting shortlisted mutations.

Microscopy

For phenotypic analysis, 10^7 colony-forming units (CFU) of *S. albus* J1074 strains were inoculated into 20 mL TSB or 5% TSB, with or without 250 ng/mL anhydrotetracycline (ATc), and cultured for 20 h.

For β-glucan staining, $2 \cdot 10^6$ CFU (estimated by OD_{600} measurement) of *S. albus* J1074 strains from freshly grown SFM agar plates were inoculated in 20 ml TSB and cultured for 20 h. Cells were centrifuged and washed with modified PEM buffer (0.4 M PIPES, 20 mM EDTA, 20 mM $MgCl_2$; pH = 6.9 (KOH)), stained with lectin dye (Sigma-Aldrich L3892) for 5 min at room temperature, washed, and resuspended in modified PEM buffer (Hasek, 2006).

Cells were centrifuged as needed, loaded onto a 1.2% agarose slide prior to imaging, and examined using a Leica DM6 B fluorescence microscope equipped with a 100× objective and a DFC7000 GT camera. Images were analysed using the ImageJ software.

To determine the β-glucan content (Fig. 3), the mean fluorescence signal was measured at each tip (within a 20-pixel diameter circle). A minimum of 574 data points were collected for each strain tested. Data were analysed and visualised using R software, including the ggplot2 package (Ehrlinger, 2016). Statistical analysis was performed using analysis of variance (ANOVA), followed by Tukey's HSD post-hoc test.

Protein extraction for mass spectrometry

For mass spectrometry, 10^7 CFU of WT or Δ*pknB* were inoculated in 50 mL of TSB or 5% TSB and cultured for 20 h. Four biological replicates were performed under each condition. Mycelia were harvested by centrifugation (5 min, 4 °C, 3000 × g), washed twice with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), and resuspended in 8 M urea buffer supplemented with 50 mM Tris, 1 mM TCEP (Roth), a protease inhibitor (Thermo Scientific), and a phosphatase inhibitor consisting of sodium molybdate (115 mM), sodium orthovanadate (100 mM), sodium tartrate dihydrate (400 mM), glycerophosphate (500 mM), and sodium fluoride (100 mM). Five millilitres of buffer was used per gram of biomass. Cell disruption was achieved via sonication (2 × 20 s, 4 °C, 20 kHz), followed

by centrifugation (15 min, 4 °C, 3000 × g), and the resulting supernatant was stored at–80 °C prior

to subsequent steps. A detailed protocol for further sample preparation and instrumental analysis

is provided in the Supplementary Information.

Lysozyme sensitivity and survival assays

Sensitivity to lysozyme was assessed by inoculating 5 µL of PBS spore suspensions and 1:10

dilutions onto TSA plates supplemented with lysozyme at a final concentration of 25 µg/mL,

compared to a no-addition control (Fig. 3A). Cultures were incubated for 3 days. Survival assays

were performed similarly using TSA and 5% TSA, both supplemented or not with

anhydrotetracycline at 500 ng/mL. To determine whether osmotic stress conditions induced by 5%

TSA affected the lethality of the inducible DivIVA production strain (strain 65α), 0.5 M sucrose

was added to the 5% TSA.

DivIVA-mScarlet production analysis

For western blot analysis, 2×10^7 CFU of *Streptomyces* strains were inoculated in 50 mL of TSB

or 5% TSB, in the presence or absence of ATc (250 ng/mL), and cultured for 24 h. Up to 50 mL of

cultured mycelia were harvested by centrifugation (5 min, 4 °C, 3000 × g), washed twice with PBS,

and resuspended in 1 mL PBS supplemented with a protease inhibitor (Thermo Fisher Scientific)

and 1 mM DTT. Cell disruption was achieved via sonication (2 × 20 s, 4 °C, 20 kHz), followed by

mixing with 6x loading buffer and denaturation (15 min, 95 °C). Total protein concentration was

normalised and assessed using SDS-PAGE containing 2.5% 2, 2, 2-trichloroethanol (Thermo

Scientific). Proteins were visualised using a stain-free filter on a ChemiDoc (Bio-Rad). Signal

intensity was measured using ImageJ software, and the samples were adjusted accordingly.

Proteins were transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane, which was blocked with a blocking

solution (5% powdered milk in PBST [PBS with 0.1% Tween-20]), then incubated with either

rabbit anti-mCherry polyclonal antibody (diluted 1:1000 in fresh blocking solution) or anti-

DivIVA$_{SC}$ antiserum (diluted 1:5000 (gift from Prof, Klas Flärdh, Lund University) (Wang *et al.*,

2009). The membrane was washed thrice with PBST and incubated with goat anti-rabbit IgG cross-

linked to horseradish peroxidase (Santa Cruz Biotechnology; diluted 1:5000 in fresh blocking

solution), followed by three washes with PBST. The blot was incubated with SuperSignal ™ West

Pico PLUS Chemiluminescence Substrate (ThermoScientific) and visualised using a ChemiDoc

(BioRad).

 Growth Assay with Induced *cslA* Mutant

197 Overnight cultures were harvested by centrifugation and washed thrice with phosphate-buffered

198 saline (PBS). The optical density (OD) of the washed cells was adjusted to 0.1, and aliquots were

199 plated onto 5% tryptic soy agar (TSA) plates supplemented with either 500 ng/mL of the DivIVA

200 inducer and/or 0.5 µg/mL of thiostrepton.

Results

Identification of conditions for lethality of a DivIVA overexpression construct

The scaffolding protein DivIVA is localised at the tip of the *Streptomyces* hyphae and is essential for regulating normal apical growth (Flärdh, 2003b; Hempel *et al.*, 2008). Previous studies have demonstrated that overproduction of DivIVA leads to hyphal tip swelling and overbranching (Hempel *et al.*, 2008). We hypothesised that lethal overproduction of DivIVA could be suppressed by mutations in genes encoding proteins involved in tip growth and cell wall remodelling. Initially, we constructed a strain carrying a *divIVA-mScarlet* fusion under the control of an anhydrotetracycline (ATc)-inducible promoter located in the phiBT1 locus. Although induction of this fusion protein was non-lethal, during the development of additional derivatives, we serendipitously created a strain, designated 65α, harbouring two inducible copies of *divIVA-mScarlet*, one in the native locus and the other at the phiBT1 locus (Fig. 1A). This strain was able to grow in the absence of the inducer, presumably because of leaky expression from the promoter (Fig. 1B). However, upon induction, a strong fluorescence signal was observed at the hyphal tips, accompanied by swelling and hyperbranching (Fig. 1C), aligning with previously documented observations from a DivIVA overproduction strain of *S. coelicolor* (Flärdh, 2003b; Hempel *et al.*, 2008). After testing a range of growth conditions, we found that under hypoosmotic stress conditions (1/20 reduced concentration of TSA medium "5% TSA"), the growth of strain 65α was abolished in the presence of the inducer, while it grew similarly to the wild type in its absence (Fig. 1B), suggesting cell wall damage leading to osmotic lysis (rescued by 0.5 M sucrose; Fig. S1).

Figure 1 Genetic configuration and phenotype of DivIVA overproducing strain 65α (A) Pictorial representation of the
genetic makeup of the *S. albus* J1074 mutant, called 65α, containing two copies of a *divIVA-mScarlet* fusion under the
control of the ATc inducible promoter tcp830. (B) Comparison of the growth behaviour of the wild-type *S. albus* J1074
and the inducible mutant strain 65α on TSA and 5% TSA in the presence or absence of the inducer (500 ng/mL). (C)
Microscopic phenotypes of *S. albus* J1074 wild-type strain and 65α mutant grown in TSB in the presence of the inducer
(250 ng/mL). Fluorescent phase-contrast microscopy demonstrated DivIVA-mScarlet localisation. Scale bar - 5 μm.
(D) Genetic organisation of the gene cluster containing *pknB* and *rodA* in *S. albus* J1074 (3,450,591-3,457,165 on
NC_020990; ~1Mbp from BT1 locus and ~2Mbp from *divIVA* locus). The red arrows indicate the locations of the
mutations described in Table 1.
232
233
234 Table 1: Genes recurrently mutated across independent suppressor mutants

Gene Name	Protein names	Mutant number [a]	Amino acid change [b]
XNR_RS08380	prolyl serine peptidase	2	M34:P63fs; M43:P63fs
XNR_RS15060	PknB	3	M25: M1fs; M40: A396D; M43: S98fs
XNR_RS15070	RodA	2	M33: L162del; M34: L162del

235 [a] Mutant number refers to the frequency at which a mutation in a gene was recovered in a different mutant strain. The
236 amino acid change indicates the result of a mutation in the corresponding mutant strain starting with M.
237 [b] fs – frame shift; del – deletion

A suppressor screen for mutations bypassing *divIVA* overexpression lethality

To identify genes potentially influencing hyphal growth, we plated *divIVA* overexpression strain 65α under the lethal conditions described above and picked the rare colonies that emerged. Of the 43 colonies from three different starting cultures, 13 mutant strains displayed robust growth under 65α lethal conditions.

Because we had two separate copies of the *divIVA* construct, we expected the suppressor mutations to lie in genes other than *divIVA*. Whole-genome sequencing followed by bioinformatic analysis of the 13 mutants revealed apparent mutations in 122 coding regions (File S1). Table 1 lists the genes in which more than one mutation was identified. Of these, XNR_RS15060 and XNR_RS15070 were particularly interesting. They are located almost adjacent to each other in the division and cell wall (DCW) cluster, and their identities are apparent from the conservation of the gene cluster relative to other actinobacteria. We annotated these as *pknB* (XNR_RS15060) and *rodA* (XNR_RS15070) based on their homology to the equivalent operon in *S. coelicolor* (Fig. 1D). In *pknB*, we identified two distinct frameshift mutations: one affecting the start codon and the other located within the kinase domain near the N-terminus. An additional variant of this gene consisted of a single nucleotide substitution within the PASTA domain (Fig. S2).

PknB kinase is an essential protein in *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Chawla *et al.*, 2014) and *Corynebacterium glutamicum* (Fiuza *et al.*, 2008), and conditional *pknB* mutations affect the maintenance of cell shape (Arora *et al.*, 2018). PknB also phosphorylates DivIVA in Mycobacteria, but not in *Streptomyces* (Kang *et al.*, 2005; Hempel *et al.*, 2012). The exact role of PknB in *Streptomyces* has not been elucidated, as deletion of *pknB*, in contrast to other bacteria, has no deleterious effect, at least in wild-type cells (Jones *et al.*, 2011). The network of interactions described above, involving various proteins involved in cell morphogenesis, prompted us to focus on the role of PknB.

Deletion of *pknB* rescues *Streptomyces* from lethal overexpression of *divIVA*

To test whether the mutations identified above were responsible for the suppression of the *divIVA* overexpression phenotype, we attempted to delete *pknB* in wild-type and *divIVA* overexpression (65α) strains. As expected, deletion of *pknB* did not result in any evident phenotypes in the wild-type *S. albus* strain, consistent with previously reported results (Jones *et al.*, 2011). However, the

65α background deletion of *pknB* enabled growth under otherwise lethal conditions (5% TSA +
ATc) (Fig. 2A).

Microscopic imaging (Fig. 2B-C, quantification Fig. S3) revealed that the 65α strain had an
increased frequency of branching compared with the wild type, even in the absence of the inducer,
while in the presence of ATc, it exhibited hyperbranching, bulging, and an accumulation of
mScarlet at the hyphal tips. In contrast, the 65α Δ*pknB* strain exhibited reduced branching and a
diminished fluorescent signal compared with the 65α parent. Indeed, 65α Δ*pknB* mycelia closely
resembled those of the wild-type strain, even in the presence of ATc. Although we could still detect
a fluorescent signal from mScarlet, the fluorescence was notably reduced compared to that of 65α.
In the absence of the inducer, most hyphae (67%) exhibited a diffuse cytoplasmic distribution of
the mScarlet signal. Upon induction, this proportion decreased to approximately 33%, with the
remaining hyphae displaying a clear accumulation of fluorescence at the tips of the hyphae.

Sanger sequencing of both *divIVA-mScarlet* fusion genes did not reveal any mutations. Presumably,
the lowered signal at the hyphal tips could be a result of DivIVA-mScarlet being distributed more
widely throughout the hyphae or diminished protein levels due to decreased synthesis or increased
degradation.

To compare the total DivIVA protein levels between strains, we analysed DivIVA–mScarlet
abundance in 65α and 65α *ΔpknB* by Western blotting using anti-mScarlet- and anti-
DivIVA- antibodies (Fig. 2D; loading control in Fig. S4). Native DivIVA (predicted 41.1 kDa)
migrated at approximately 60 kDa in both wild-type and Δ*pknB* backgrounds. Its abundance was
not significantly altered in the absence of *pknB*. The upward shift in the apparent molecular weight
likely reflects dimerisation or altered electrophoretic mobility. In the 65α background, the
DivIVA–mScarlet fusion protein (predicted 68 kDa) migrated near 100 kDa. Upon ATc induction,
the intensity of the full-length fusion increased strongly when detected by both the anti-DivIVA
and anti-mScarlet antibodies, confirming that induction elevated total DivIVA–mScarlet levels.
Both *65α* and *65α ΔpknB* strains displayed additional faster-migrating- species. These fragments
were detected by anti-DivIVA but not by anti-mScarlet antibody, indicating that they represent N-
terminal- DivIVA cleavage products lacking the fluorescent tag. Conversely, the anti-
mScarlet- blot revealed smaller mScarlet-containing- fragments not recognised by anti-DivIVA-,
consistent with C-terminal- cleavage events. ATc induction increased the abundance of these
fragments in *65α*, consistent with the higher overall expression of the fusion protein.

Loss of *pknB* did not reduce the amount of full-length- DivIVA–mScarlet; however, it markedly
altered the pattern of degradation products. The 65α *ΔpknB* strain accumulated several distinct
DivIVA-sized fragments, suggesting that *pknB* influences the stability or processing of the
DivIVA–mScarlet fusion protein indirectly. This raises the possibility that PknB-dependent
signalling influences the proteolytic turnover of DivIVA, potentially serving as a mechanism to
control DivIVA levels under conditions of overexpression.

Figure 2 Verification of *pknB* deletion as a suppressor of lethal DivIVA overproduction. (A) Survival assay of *S. albus*
J1074 strains grown on 5% TSA or TSA in the presence or absence of the inducer - ATc 500 ng/ml. B) Phenotypes of
S. albus J1074 strains grown in TSB in the presence or absence of the inducer ATc (100 ng ml^{-1}). Fluorescence and
phase-contrast microscopy revealed DivIVA–mScarlet production. Fluorescence backgrounds and intensity thresholds
were adjusted identically across samples to allow for direct comparison. In the overlay panel, fluorescence levels were
adjusted for improved visualisation. Scale bar, 5 µm. (C) Phase-contrast microscopy of *S. albus* J1074 and *S. albus*
J1074 Δ*pknB* grown in TSB. (D)Western blot analysis of DivIVA-mScarlet (theoretical mass ~68 kDa) production by
S. albus J1074 strains grown in TSB, in the presence or absence of the inducer - ATc 250 ng/ml. Left Detection was
performed using anti-mCherry polyclonal antiserum. Right Detection was performed using anti-DivIVA$_{SC}$ antiserum.
The molecular weight (MW) values to the right indicate the positions of the marker proteins.

Deletion of *pknB* causes hyperphosphorylation of CslA

The kinase PknB has been reported to be involved in various processes across various organisms, including cell division, peptidoglycan synthesis, protein synthesis, and stress responses (Jones *et al.*, 2011; Dworkin, 2015; Richard-Greenblatt and Av-Gay, 2017). To better understand its role in *S. albus,* we analysed the phosphoproteomes of wild-type and Δ*pknB S. albus* strains, with particular focus on proteins implicated in polar growth. The results identified 27 phosphorylated proteins, of which three were significantly hypophosphorylated in the *pknB* mutant, while one was significantly hyperphosphorylated (

Table 2 and File S2; proteomics data are available in File S3). Among the expected candidates, we anticipated changes in DivIVA phosphorylation, as well as in other regulators such as the kinase AfsK or the phosphatase SppA, which is known to dephosphorylate DivIVA (Hempel *et al.*, 2012; Passot *et al.*, 2022). Although SppA phosphorylation was indeed altered in the Δ*pknB* background, no corresponding changes in DivIVA phosphorylation were detected in our experimental setup, and this pathway was therefore not investigated further. Our attention was drawn to CslA, a synthase previously associated with polar growth, whose phosphorylation was hyperphosphorylated on residue T17 in the Δ*pknB* background, making it a compelling candidate for mediating PknB's effects on hyphal development. This protein localises at hyphal tips and is responsible for the production of a beta-glucan-containing polysaccharide that is thought to provide additional physical protection, potentially required for the continuous remodelling of the growing cell wall (Xu *et al.*, 2008). Loss of this polymer impairs the morphological development and stability of the cell wall (Xu *et al.*, 2008; Zhong *et al.*, 2022). CslA forms a protein complex with the copper radical oxidase GlxA, and it is a known interaction partner of DivIVA in *S. coelicolor* (Xu *et al.*, 2008).

To evaluate the effect of phosphorylation on the function of CslA, we constructed a strain producing phosphoablative CslA (*cslA*$_{T17A}$) and a deletion mutant. We confirmed the production of the phosphoablative ClsA using a proteomics experiment (Fig S5). Previous studies have shown that deletion of *cslA* increases sensitivity to lysozyme (Zhong *et al.*, 2022); we therefore tested whether preventing phosphorylation at T17 would similarly affect cell wall integrity. Both *cslA* mutants displayed hypersensitivity to lysozyme, suggesting that phosphorylation is important for CslA activity (Fig. 3A). To determine whether the reciprocal change — hyperphosphorylation of CslA in the Δ*pknB* background — had the opposite effect, we assessed lysozyme sensitivity of the

pknB deletion strain. This strain responded to lysozyme similarly to the wild type, indicating that hyperphosphorylation of CslA alone is not sufficient to further enhance cell wall protection beyond wild-type levels. Next, we used a lectin dye to stain β-glucans (Fig. 3B-C) and found that the signal at the tips of hyphae was completely abolished in the *cslA* knockout strain, similar to previously reported data on a *cslA* deletion strain (Xu *et al.*, 2008; Zhong *et al.*, 2022). Again, the strain producing phosphoablative variant of CslA (*cslA*(T17A)) behaved similarly to the deletion strain when stained for β-glucans, indicating that phosphorylation is likely required for the β-glucan synthetic activity of CslA. Overall, these data indicate that phosphorylation plays an important role in β-glucan production, although the role of PknB in this process is likely to be indirect.

Table 2 Significantly different protein phosphorylation patterns of *S. albus* J1074 WT and Δ*pknB* strains grown in TSB medium.

locus_tag	protein name	phosphorylation in Δ*pknB* vs WT
XNR_RS17030	FolK	Hypophosphorylated ↓
XNR_RS11880	GroL	Hypophosphorylated ↓
XNR_RS08650	CslA	Hyperphosphorylated ↑
XNR_RS14580	SppA	Hypophosphorylated ↓

Figure 3 Figure 3 Impact of mutations in *cslA* on glucan production (A) Lysozyme sensitivity of *S. albus* J1074 strains grown on TSA. (B) Phenotypes of *S. albus* J1074 strains grown on TSA. Cells were stained with lectin dye to visualise β-glucans. Scale bar - 1 μm. (C) Quantification of mean β-glucan production at the tip by *S. albus* J1074 strains grown

 in TSB. The width of each plot indicates the number of collected data points for a specific fluorescence. Significant
373   differences, according to ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD post-hoc test, are marked with **** (p≤0,0001).
374

Overexpression of CslA rescues cells from DivIVA overproduction lethality

The results described above, showing that phosphorylation of CslA is likely required for the β-

glucan synthetic activity, suggest that the deletion of *pknB* might increase the activity of CslA, via

increased phosphorylation albeit indirectly. If so, *cslA* overexpression might also rescue cells from

divIVA-mScarlet overexpression toxicity. To test this, a plasmid carrying a thiostrepton-inducible

copy of *cslA* was introduced into the 65α background, with an empty plasmid as a control. In the

absence of DivIVA overproduction, both strains grew well on 5% TSA. However, even without

induction, the strain with the *cslA* plasmid exhibited significantly improved colonial growth

compared to the empty-plasmid control, likely due to leaky expression from the *tipA* promoter (Fig.

4A) (Tong *et al.*, 2019). Unexpectedly, *cslA* induction did not restore the overbranching phenotype

associated with *divIVA* overexpression, indicating that increased CslA only partially suppressed

the DivIVA overexpression phenotype (Fig. 4B, quantification Fig. S3). Plausibly, its contribution

to viability may involve the enhancement of the protective layer at the cell tip.

388
Figure 4 Overexpression of *cslA* rescues growth under conditions of DivIVA overproduction
(A) Growth of 65α attBφC31::pIJ6902 (empty plasmid) and 65α attBφC31::pBK288 (*cslA* under TipA inducible
promoter) grown on 5% TSB plates in the presence or absence of an inducer for DivIVA or CslA. (B) Phenotypes of
S. albus J1074 strains (WT, 65α, 65α attBφC31::pIJ6902 [empty plasmid], and attBφC31::pBK288 expressing *cslA*
under the TipA-inducible promoter) grown in 5% TSA medium in the presence of anhydrotetracycline (100 ng mL⁻¹).
DivIVA–mScarlet production was visualised by fluorescence microscopy and is shown as a red signal overlaid on
phase-contrast images. Fluorescence background and intensity thresholds were adjusted identically across all samples
to allow for direct comparison.

Discussion

To identify the factors required for tip growth and cell wall integrity, we performed a suppressor
screen based on the lethal overexpression of *divIVA*, a key polarity determinant. Under these
conditions, spontaneous suppressor mutants arise at low frequencies, and whole-
genome- sequencing revealed recurrent mutations in the Ser/Thr kinase gene *pknB*. PknB is a
conserved Ser/Thr kinase found across actinobacteria, where it has been implicated in the
regulation of cell division, cell wall synthesis, and stress responses. Targeted deletion of *pknB* in
the DivIVA overexpression background confirmed that the loss of this kinase is sufficient to
suppress lethality (Fig. 4), indicating that PknB activity becomes problematic when DivIVA-driven
tip formation is excessive.

Because PknB has been implicated in diverse cellular processes, we used global
phosphoproteomics to define its downstream targets. This analysis revealed that cellulose synthase
CslA was hyperphosphorylated in the absence of PknB. To determine the functional relevance of
this modification, we generated both a *cslA* deletion mutant and a phosphoablative T17A variant.
Substitution of T17 with alanine abolished CslA activity, as shown by quantitative microscopy and
increased lysozyme sensitivity, demonstrating that phosphorylation at this residue is essential for
its proper function. Conversely, *cslA* overexpression partially rescued the growth defect of the
DivIVA overproduction strain. However, ectopic overexpression of *cslA* did not restore normal
growth and the overbranching was still detected. Therefore, additional PknB-dependent targets
must contribute to the altered physiology observed in Δ*pknB* mutants. However, these findings
indicate that CslA is necessary for maintaining cell wall integrity of overbranching hyphae.

These findings identify PknB as a central regulator of cell wall homeostasis that becomes essential
when tip formation is elevated by DivIVA overproduction (Fig. 4). Furthermore, they implicate
CslA phosphorylation as a key downstream mechanism required to maintain cell wall integrity
under these conditions. The observation that CslA is more phosphorylated in the *pknB* mutant
suggests that PknB modifies activity of enzyme(s) that control phosphorylation of CslA. One
plausible model is that PknB represses a phosphatase or activates a second kinase, such that an
alternative kinase hyperphosphorylates CslA in the absence of PknB. In *Streptomyces*, several
Ser/Thr kinases, including AfsK, and the phosphatase SppA have established roles in controlling

cell polarity and cell wall–associated substrates, including DivIVA. Interestingly, SppA was hypophosphorylated in our global phosphoproteome. Since SppA is known to dephosphorylate its reduced phosphorylation in the $\Delta pknB$ background might be expected to result in altered DivIVA phosphorylation DivIVA (Passot *et al.*, 2022). However, no corresponding changes in DivIVA phosphorylation were detected in our experimental setup, suggesting that this pathway does not play a major role under the conditions tested, or that compensatory mechanisms maintain DivIVA phosphorylation levels. Whether SppA or another as-yet-unidentified enzyme mediates CslA phosphorylation downstream of PknB remains to be determined. Thus, PknB likely acts upstream of a broader regulatory network.

Finally, the DivIVA overexpression phenotype provides a physiological context for the observed regulatory circuit. Excess DivIVA generates numerous closely spaced tips, creating multiple mechanically vulnerable sites that require rapid reinforcement. The severe growth defect and pronounced low osmolarity- sensitivity of the DivIVA overproduction strain are consistent with a weakened cell envelope that is unable to withstand turgor pressure when tip reinforcement is insufficient. In this scenario, CslA becomes particularly important, and its higher levels and correct phosphorylation of CslA are likely required to deposit cellulose-rich material at all nascent growth zones. The partial suppression of the DivIVA overexpression phenotype by *cslA* overexpression fits naturally within this model; however, the failure of CslA overexpression to restore normal growth in the $\Delta pknB$ background indicates that multiple PknB-dependent pathways are required to maintain cell wall homeostasis when the tip number is increased.

In summary, using *divIVA* overexpression as a perturbation of tip-associated cell wall synthesis allowed us to identify PknB as a central regulator of cell wall homeostasis, acting through a phosphorylation network that ultimately controls CslA-dependent reinforcement of newly formed tips, but also involving additional PknB-regulated factors that remain to be identified.

Figure 4 Proposed model of how phosphorylation regulates cell wall stability in *Streptomyce*s, including the proposed roles of the kinase PknB and the cellulose-like synthase CslA.

Author contributions

Conceptualisation (B.K., J.E.), Funding Acquisition (B.K., J.E.), Investigation (M.D., B.K, A.W., A.G., M.T.), Project administration (B.K.), Supervision (B.K., M.T., J.E.), Visualization (B.K., M.D.), Writing – original draft (M.D., B.K.,). writing – review and editing (B.K., D.J., J.E.)

Acknowledgments

This work was funded by the Polish National Science Centre: Sonata grant 2020/39/D/NZ1/00303 to B.K. and a Wellcome Trust Investigator grant (209500) to JE.

We further wish to express our gratitude to Dr. Xiaobo Zhong (Leiden University) for useful discussions and advice regarding β-glucan staining.

We are grateful to Prof. Klas Flärdh (Lund University) for generously providing the DivIVA antiserum.

The purchase of M-Class Acquity-Synapt XS LC-MS system was financially supported by the "Excellence Initiative – Research University" program for the University of Wroclaw.

Data availability

The genome sequencing data that support the findings of this study are openly available in NCBI at https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra (accession number PRJNA1099611).

The mass spectrometry proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE (Perez-Riverol *et al.*, 2022) partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD053764 and PXD071342

Reviewer access details

Project accession: PXD053764

Token: tfcX8J5LlKQ2

Project accession: PXD071342

Token: jD9RJzE8ausd

References

Arora, D., Chawla, Y., Malakar, B., Singh, A., and Nandicoori, V.K. (2018) The transpeptidase PbpA and noncanonical transglycosylase RodA of Mycobacterium tuberculosis play important roles in regulating bacterial cell lengths. *J Biol Chem* **293**: 6497–6516 https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M117.811190.

Beilharz, K., Nováková, L., Fadda, D., Branny, P., Massidda, O., and Veening, J.-W. (2012) Control of cell division in Streptococcus pneumoniae by the conserved Ser/Thr protein kinase StkP. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **109**: E905–E913 https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1119172109.

Chater, K.F. (2006) Streptomyces inside-out: a new perspective on the bacteria that provide us with antibiotics. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* **361**: 761–768 https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2005.1758.

Chawla, Y., Upadhyay, S., Khan, S., Nagarajan, S.N., Forti, F., and Nandicoori, V.K. (2014) Protein kinase B (PknB) of Mycobacterium tuberculosis is essential for growth of the pathogen in vitro as well as for survival within the host. *Journal of Biological Chemistry* **289**: 13858–13875 https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M114.563536.

Cingolani, P., Patel, V.M., Coon, M., Nguyen, T., Land, S.J., Ruden, D.M., and Lu, X. (2012) Using Drosophila melanogaster as a Model for Genotoxic Chemical Mutational Studies with a New Program, SnpSift. *Front Genet* **3**: 1–9 https://doi.org/10.3389/fgene.2012.00035.

Dworkin, J. (2015) Ser/Thr phosphorylation as a regulatory mechanism in bacteria. *Curr Opin Microbiol* **24**: 47–52 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mib.2015.01.005.

Egan, A.J.F., Errington, J., and Vollmer, W. (2020) Regulation of peptidoglycan synthesis and remodelling. *Nature Reviews Microbiology 2020 18:8* **18**: 446–460 https://doi.org/10.1038/s41579-020-0366-3.

Ehrlinger, J. (2016) ggRandomForests: Exploring Random Forest Survival. http://arxiv.org/abs/1612.08974.

Elsholz, A.K.W., Turgay, K., Michalik, S., Hessling, B., Gronau, K., Oertel, D., *et al.* (2012)
Global impact of protein arginine phosphorylation on the physiology of Bacillus subtilis.
Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences **109**: 7451–7456
https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1117483109.

Fiuza, M., Canova, M.J., Zanella-Cléon, I., Becchi, M., Cozzone, A.J., Mateos, L.M., *et al.* (2008)
From the characterization of the four serine/threonine protein kinases (PknA/B/G/L) of
Corynebacterium glutamicum toward the role of PknA and PknB in cell division. *Journal of*
Biological Chemistry **283**: 18099–18112 https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M802615200.

Flärdh, K. (2003a) Growth polarity and cell division in Streptomyces. *Curr Opin Microbiol* **6**: 564–
571 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mib.2003.10.011.

Flärdh, K. (2003b) Essential role of DivIVA in polar growth and morphogenesis in Streptomyces
coelicolor A3(2). *Mol Microbiol* **49**: 1523–1536 https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-
2958.2003.03660.x.

Fröjd, M.J., and Flärdh, K. (2019) Apical assemblies of intermediate filament-like protein FilP are
highly dynamic and affect polar growth determinant DivIVA in Streptomyces venezuelae. *Mol*
Microbiol **112**: 47–61 https://doi.org/10.1111/mmi.14253.

Garde, S., Chodisetti, P.K., and Reddy, M. (2021) Peptidoglycan: Structure, Synthesis, and
Regulation. *EcoSal Plus* **9**: 1–35 https://doi.org/10.1128/ecosalplus.ESP-0010-2020.

Hasek, J. (2006) Yeast Fluorescence Microscopy. *Methods Mol Biol* **313**: 85–96
https://doi.org/10.1385/1-59259-958-3:085.

Hempel, A.M., Cantlay, S., Molle, V., Wang, S.B., Naldrett, M.J., Parker, J.L., *et al.* (2012) The
Ser/Thr protein kinase AfsK regulates polar growth and hyphal branching in the filamentous
bacteria Streptomyces. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **109**: E2371–E2379
https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1207409109.

Hempel, A.M., Wang, S., Letek, M., Gil, J.A., and Flärdh, K. (2008) Assemblies of DivIVA Mark
Sites for Hyphal Branching and Can Establish New Zones of Cell Wall Growth in Streptomyces
coelicolor. *J Bacteriol* **190**: 7579–7583 https://doi.org/10.1128/JB.00839-08.

Holmes, N.A., Walshaw, J., Leggett, R.M., Thibessard, A., Dalton, K.A., Gillespie, M.D., *et al.*
(2013) Coiled-coil protein Scy is a key component of a multiprotein assembly controlling polarized
growth in Streptomyces. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **110**: E397-406
https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1210657110.

Jani, C., Eoh, H., Lee, J.J., Hamasha, K., Sahana, M.B., Han, J.S., *et al.* (2010) Regulation of polar
peptidoglycan biosynthesis by Wag31 phosphorylation in mycobacteria. *BMC Microbiol* **10**: 327–
337 https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2180-10-327.

Jones, G., Sol, R. Del, Dudley, E., and Dyson, P. (2011) Forkhead-associated proteins genetically
linked to the serine/threonine kinase PknB regulate carbon flux towards antibiotic biosynthesis in
Streptomyces coelicolor. *Microb Biotechnol* **4**: 263–274 https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-
7915.2010.00237.x.

Kang, C.M., Abbott, D.W., Sang, T.P., Dascher, C.C., Cantley, L.C., and Husson, R.N. (2005) The
Mycobacterium tuberculosis serine/threonine kinases PknA and PknB: substrate identification and
regulation of cell shape. *Genes Dev* **19**: 1692–1704 https://doi.org/10.1101/gad.1311105.

Kieser T, Bibb MJ, Buttner MJ, and Chater KF (2000) *Practical Streptomyces Genetics. 2nd ed.* .

Kuru, E., Tekkam, S., Hall, E., Brun, Y. V., and Nieuwenhze, M.S. Van (2014) Synthesis of
fluorescent D-amino acids (FDAAs) and their use for probing peptidoglycan synthesis and bacterial
growth in situ. *Nat Protoc* **10**: 33 https://doi.org/10.1038/nprot.2014.197.

Liu, Y., and Breukink, E. (2016) The Membrane Steps of Bacterial Cell Wall Synthesis as
Antibiotic Targets. *Antibiotics 2016, Vol 5, Page 28* **5**: 28
https://doi.org/10.3390/antibiotics5030028.

Molle, V., and Kremer, L. (2010) Division and cell envelope regulation by Ser/Thr
phosphorylation: Mycobacterium shows the way. *Mol Microbiol* **75**: 1064–1077
https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2958.2009.07041.x.

Passot, F.M., Cantlay, S., and Flärdh, K. (2022) Protein phosphatase SppA regulates apical growth
and dephosphorylates cell polarity determinant DivIVA in Streptomyces coelicolor. *Mol Microbiol*
117: 411–428 https://doi.org/10.1111/mmi.14856.

Perez-Riverol, Y., Bai, J., Bandla, C., García-Seisdedos, D., Hewapathirana, S., Kamatchinathan,
S., *et al.* (2022) The PRIDE database resources in 2022: a hub for mass spectrometry-based
proteomics evidences. *Nucleic Acids Res* **50**: D543–D552 https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkab1038.

Pospiech, A., and Neumann, B. (1995) A versatile quick-prep of genomic DNA from gram-positive
bacteria. *Trends Genet* **11**: 217–218 https://doi.org/10.1016/s0168-9525(00)89052-6.

Richard-Greenblatt, M., and Av-Gay, Y. (2017) Epigenetic Phosphorylation Control of
Mycobacterium tuberculosis Infection and Persistence. *Microbiol Spectr* **5**: 1–23
https://doi.org/10.1128/microbiolspec.tbtb2-0005-2015.

Richards, D.M., Hempel, A.M., Flärdh, K., Buttner, M.J., and Howard, M. (2012) Mechanistic
Basis of Branch-Site Selection in Filamentous Bacteria. *PLoS Comput Biol* **8**: 1–8
https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pcbi.1002423.

Saalbach, G., Hempel, A.M., Vigouroux, M., Flärdh, K., Buttner, M.J., and Naldrett, M.J. (2013)
Determination of Phosphorylation Sites in the DivIVA Cytoskeletal Protein of Streptomyces
coelicolor by Targeted LC–MS/MS. *J Proteome Res* **12**: 4187–4192
https://doi.org/10.1021/pr400524d.

Tong, Y., Whitford, C.M., Robertsen, H.L., Blin, K., Jørgensen, T.S., Klitgaard, A.K., *et al.* (2019)
Highly efficient DSB-free base editing for streptomycetes with CRISPR-BEST. *Proc Natl Acad*
Sci U S A **116**: 20366–20375 https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1913493116.

Wang, S.B., Cantlay, S., Nordberg, N., Letek, M., Gil, J.A., and Flardh, K. (2009) Domains
involved in the in vivo function and oligomerization of apical growth determinant DivIVA in
Streptomyces coelicolor. *FEMS Microbiol Lett* **297**: 101–109 https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-
6968.2009.01678.x.

Watson, A.K., Kepplinger, B., Bakhiet, S.M., Mhmoud, N.A., Chapman, J., Allenby, N.E., *et al.*
(2022) Systematic whole-genome sequencing reveals an unexpected diversity among
actinomycetoma pathogens and provides insights into their antibacterial susceptibilities. *PLoS Negl*
Trop Dis **16**: 1–23 https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.00101288.

Xu, H., Chater, K.F., Deng, Z., and Tao, M. (2008) A cellulose synthase-like protein involved in

hyphal tip growth and morphological differentiation in streptomyces. *J Bacteriol* **190**: 4971–4978

https://doi.org/10.1128/jb.01849-07.

Zambri, M.P., Baglio, C.R., Irazoki, O., Jones, S.E., Garner, E.C., Cava, F., and Elliot, M.A. (2025)

Streptomyces uses both polar and dispersed cell wall synthesis during exploratory growth. *Nature*

Microbiology 2025 10:9 **10**: 2245–2256 https://doi.org/10.1038/s41564-025-02080-x.

Zhong, X., Zhang, L., Wezel, G.P. van, Vijgenboom, E., and Claessen, D. (2022) Role for a Lytic

Polysaccharide Monooxygenase in Cell Wall Remodeling in Streptomyces coelicolor. *mBio* **13**: 1–

15 https://doi.org/10.1128/mbio.00456-22.