Burkholderia vietnamiensis Genes Involved in Extracellular Medium-Chain-Length

Polyhydroxyalkanoate Degradation

Running title: Extracellular PHA Degradation Genes in *Burkholderia vietnamiensis*

Zhong Ling Yap[a], Sion Yi[a], Ernesto Quintana[a], Gabriel G. Lucas[b], Mohamad Safklou[a], Ryan

Darragh[a], Andrew M. Hogan[a], Anna Motnenko[a], Warren Blunt[c], Richard Sparling[a], Dario

Fernández Do Porto[b], David B. Levin[c], Silvia T. Cardona[a,d*]

Department of Microbiology, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada R3T

2N2

[b]Plataforma de Bioinformática Argentina, Instituto de Cálculo, Ciudad Universitaria,

Facultad de Ciencias Exactas y Naturales, Universidad de Buenos Aires (UBA), Ciudad

Autónoma de Buenos Aires, Argentina

[c]Department of Biosystems Engineering, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Manitoba,

Canada R3T 5V6

[d]Department of Medical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases, University of Manitoba,

Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada R3E 0J9

email: silvia.cardona@umanitoba.ca

Keywords: *Burkholderia*, *Burkholderia vietnamiensis*, Transposon mutagenesis, RhaCAST, gene

insertion, Tn-seq

Abstract

Bioplastics represent promising alternatives to petroleum-based plastics, yet their biodegradation remains insufficiently understood. Identifying bacteria capable of degrading bioplastics extracellularly could enhance end-of-life management practices. To investigate *Burkholderia*'s capacities for the degradation of medium-chain-length polyhydroxyalkanoate (mcl-PHA), we screened a panel of *Burkholderia* strains and identified such capacity in strains of *B. gladioli*, *B. multivorans,* and *B. vietnamiensis*. To elucidate the genetic basis of this activity, we performed transposon mutagenesis followed by activity-based screening and Tn-seq on *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232. Disrupted genetic elements in transposon mutants with negative phenotypes were further investigated using a CRISPR-associated transposase (CAST) system. These included a lipase production gene cluster, encoding two putative triacylglycerol lipases and a chaperone, and genes coding for a a A24 family peptidase, a TetR/AcrR family transcriptional regulator and a type II secretion system (T2SS) protein. Complete loss or reduced extracellular mcl-PHA depolymerase activity was observed in the CAST mutants, validating their involvement in mcl-PHA degradation. Notably, only one of the two lipases encoded in the lipase production gene cluster was responsible for mcl-PHA degradation, suggesting that while lipases may show substrate promiscuity, lipase functional annotation does not necessarily imply mcl-PHA depolymerization. Docking experiments using the amino acid sequences of the two lipases supported these findings. Together, we identify a gene coding for an active mcl-PHA depolymerase in *B. vietnamiensis* and demonstrate the power of combining activity-based screening, Tn-seq, and CAST to rapidly establish gene-to-function links.

Importance

Due to their versatile metabolism, *Burkholderia* strains play critical roles in degradation of multiple

compounds in the environment. Here we show that several *Burkholderia* species can extracellularly degrade

medium-chain-length polyhydroxyalkanoates (mcl-PHAs), a promising class of bioplastics. By integrating

transposon mutagenesis, Tn-seq, and CRISPR-associated transposase (CAST) technologies, we identify

and validate key genetic determinants involved in mcl-PHA degradation in *B. vietnamiensis*. These genes

encode a lipase, a secretion system component, and regulatory factors, underscoring the complexity and

specificity of microbial bioplastic degradation pathways. These findings not only advance our

understanding of PHA biodegradation but also identifies *B. vietnamiensis* as as a source of enzymes capable

of degrading extracellular mcl-PHA.

Introduction

Environmental pollution from petroleum-based plastic has driven growing interest in bioplastics, which are bio-based, biodegradable substitutes. Among these, poly(3-hydroxyalkanoates) (PHAs) are microbially produced polyesters that have a wide-range of applications in various sectors, such as packaging, agriculture, and biomedical devices (1). PHAs are synthesized by many microorganisms for intracellular energy and carbon storage under conditions of nutrient imbalance, namely nitrogen and phosphorus limitation. Depending on the number of carbon atoms in each 3-hydroxyalkanoate monomer unit, PHAs can be broadly classified as either short-chain-length PHAs (scl-PHA), which consist of 3–5 carbons per monomer or medium-chain-length PHAs (mcl-PHA), which contain, 6–14 carbons per monomer, each with different physico-chemical properties (2). The carbon side chain length of each monomer will influence the enzyme-substrate specificity for degradation (3).

PHAs are degraded by either intracellular or extracellular PHA depolymerases. Intracellular PHA depolymerases hydrolyze PHA or carbonosomes, which are intracellular carbon reservoirs that can contain PHA granules (4). Extracellular PHA depolymerases degrade exogenous denatured granules that are semi-crystalline and lack the surface layer (3). Both intracellular and extracellular PHA depolymerases are carboxylesterases and belong to the α/β-hydrolase fold family (5). PHA depolymerases have been isolated and biochemically characterized in Firmicutes, Proteobacteria, Actinobacteria, and Ascomycete fungi (6).

Many studies have reported microorganisms that degrade scl-PHA, and have purified and characterized the corresponding enzymes (5, 6). However, microorganisms that can degrade mcl-PHA are relatively rare compared to those that can degrade scl-PHA (6). Most of the extracellular mcl-PHA depolymerases that have been purified and biochemically validated belong to

Pseudomonas species (7–9), the obligate predator *Bdellovibrio bacteriovorus* (10), *Thermus*

thermophilus (11) and *Streptomyces* species (12–14). Amino acid sequence similarity searches of

metagenomes using biochemically validated extracellular mcl-PHA depolymerases as queries,

have identified candidate extracellular mcl-PHA depolymerases only in the taxonomic groups

Myxococcota, Proteobacteria, Actinobacteriota and Bdellovibrionota (6). These studies suggest

that mcl-PHA degradation is not widely distributed among Bacteria.

While all extracellular PHA depolymerases hydrolyze PHA, extracellular mcl-PHA

depolymerases show little overall sequence homology with scl-PHA. However, PHA

depolymerases share structural and mechanistic characteristics with lipases and other α/β-

hydrolase enzymes (15). Both PHA depolymerases and lipases have a GxSxG sequence motif

found in other α/β-hydrolases and known as the lipase box and a catalytic triad consisting of the

central serine of the lipase box, histidine and aspartic acid (16), underscoring a not fully-

understood functional promiscuity between PHA depolymerases and lipases. Indeed, some

extracellular lipases purified from various species, including *Bacillus subtilis, Pseudomonas*

aeruginosa, Pseudomonas alcaligenes, and *Pseudomonas fluorescens* (16) were not able to

hydrolyze poly3-hydroxyhexanoate or poly3-hydroxybutyrate. However, the extracellular lipases

of *Pseudomonas chlororaphis* PA23 and *Acinetobacter lwoffii* can hydrolyze various PHA

polymers, including the mcl-PHA polyhydroxyoctanoate (PHO) and polyhydroxydecanoate (17).

While *Burkholderia* strains are known lipase producers (18–21) and the structure of a *B. cepacia*

lipase has extensively described (22–26), the capacity to degrade extracellular mcl-PHA in the

Burkholderia genus has not been investigated.

In this work, we investigated mcl-PHA degradation capacities in *Burkholderia* using PHO

as a model substrate. By combining activity-based screening with the power of random and site-

directed transposon mutagenesis, we were able to rapidly identify genetic elements that contribute

to mcl-PHA degradation in *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232. Specifically, we identified the loci

P4G95_16805 and P4G95_16810 encoding lipases but only PG95_16805 (*lip1*) is responsible for

PHO degradation, while P4G95 1680 (*lip2*) is not. The distinct activities would not have been

predicted based on gene annotation alone.

Results

Diversity of extracellular mcl-PHA degradation activity in Burkholderia strains

To identify mcl-PHA degradation activity in the *Burkholderia* genus, we performed an

initial screen in a solid minimal medium containing PHO and limiting amounts of phenylalanine,

supplemented with Nile red to enhance the visualization of PHO degradation as a clear halo around

isolated bacterial colonies. Phenylalanine was chosen as a secondary carbon source in the medium

because: i) it is known to be catabolized by *Burkholderia* species (27), and ii) its metabolism is

known to influence several bacterial pathways (28). The plates were incubated for 20 days to

ensure cells grew densely and produced sufficient enzyme to visually detect mcl-PHA degradation.

After dense growth was achieved, a clear halo was observed around some colonies, suggesting

extracellular PHO degradation.

Several strains of *B. gladioli*, *B. multivorans*, and *B. vietnamiensis,* were able to produce a

visible halo suggesting extracellular mcl-PHA degradation (**Table 1, Fig. S1**). While *B. stagnalis*

strains MSMB618, MSMB642, and *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 had moderate activity, *B.*

gladioli strain VC19233, *B. multivorans* 21NH942533, and VC9825 exhibited weaker activity in

degrading mcl-PHA. Two strains, *B. multivorans* F9091687 and *B. gladioli* 132208 observed

temperature-dependent mcl-PHA degradation activity. No activity was observed for *B.*

cenocepacia, *B. contaminans,* and *B. dolosa* isolates tested (**Table 1**).

Genetic basis of B. vietnamiensis LMG 16232 extracellular mcl-PHA degradation activity

To determine the genetic elements involved in extracellular mcl-PHA degradation activity,

we selected *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 (29) for transposon mutagenesis and activity-based

screening followed by identification of transposon sites with Illumina sequencing (Tn-seq) (**Fig.**

1). To achieve genomic coverage of transposon insertions in *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232, we

determined the estimated transposon insertion density using an analytical model based on a

Poisson distribution of transposon insertions (30) (see Materials and Methods).

The primary screening of single isolated transconjugants identified 84 colonies that did not

produce the visible halo associated with mcl-PHA degradation. These colonies were subjected to

secondary screening, where each isolated transconjugant clone was propagated and screened on

solid medium containing mcl-PHA. We observed that 66 transconjugants had lost the ability to

degrade extracellular mcl-PHA, showing no halo (pool 1). In contrast, 18 transconjugants

exhibited a reduced halo (pool 2). Enrichment of transposon insertions followed by Illumina

sequencing identified several disrupted genetic elements. Pool 1 and pool 2 contained transposon

mutants with insertions in 18 and 12 unique loci, respectively (Table 2).

Further examination of the transposon insertions identified gene clusters (P4G95_05485,

P4G95_05490, P4G95_05495, P4G95_05500, P4G95_05505, P4G95_05510, P4G95_05515,

P4G95_05520, P4G95_05525, P4G95_05530, P4G95_05535) encoding a T2SS (**Fig. 2A**), and a

lipase gene cluster, encoding two triacylglycerol lipases and a lipase chaperone (P4G95_16805,

P4G16810 and P4G16815, respectively (named *lip1*, *lip2* and l*ipO* herein) (**Fig. 2B**). While

activity-abolishing insertions were identified in *lip1* and *lipO*, no transposon insertions that

resulted in loss of mcl-PHA degradation were identified in the *lip2* gene, suggesting that *lip1*

(P4G95_16805) but not *lip2* (P4G95_16810) might be responsible for extracellular mcl-PHA

degradation.

Another identified gene cluster was related to the biosynthesis of polyhydroxybutyrate.

Transposon insertion sites in this cluster were found in *phaR* (P4G95_13560), a PHA synthesis

repressor and *phaA* (P4G95_13570), which encodes for an acetyl-CoA acetyltransferase involved

in the biosynthesis of polyhydroxybutyrate (**Fig. 2C**). In addition, a gene coding for a A24 family

peptidase (P4G95_07805) and four genes encoding transcriptional regulators were identified,

which are a TetR/AcrR family transcriptional regulator (P4G95_00865), a MarR family winged

helix-turn-helix transcriptional regulator CDS (P4G95_05570), *phaR* (P4G95_13560), the

polyhydroxyalkanoate synthesis repressor, and a helix-turn-helix domain-containing protein CDS

(P4G95_16325) (Table 2). Together, the identified genetic elements suggest the Lip1 lipase, which

contains a signal peptide, is cleaved by the A24 family peptidase (P4G95_07805) and is assisted

by the LipO lipase chaperone for folding and activation prior to secretion via the T2SS. Finally,

the regulatory elements identified together with the *pha* gene cluster suggest that activation of mcl-

PHA degradation is regulated and intertwined with PHA biosynthesis.

A few genetic elements obtained from the Tn-seq analysis had a less clear relation with

extracellular mcl-PHA degradation in *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232. These were genes encoding

for trehalose-6-phosphate phosphatase (P4G95_10885), hypothetical proteins (P4G95_20805 and

P4G95_20810), the N-acetylglucosamine-6-phosphate deacetylase, NagA (P4G95_03530), a

phenylacetate-CoA oxygenase/reductase subunit PaaK and PaaJ (P4G95_06510 and

P4G95_06515) and an acetyl-CoA acetyltransferase PhaA (P4G95_13570).

Genetic elements responsible for mcl-PHA degradation are confirmed by RhaCAST

To validate the genetic elements involved in extracellular mcl-PHA degradation activity identified

by Tn-seq, we created independent insertional mutants with our previously developed RhaCAST

system (31), which uses a rhamnose-inducible CRISPR-associated transposase (CAST)-based

delivery of transposons (32) for targeted insertional mutagenesis in target genes. We applied

RhaCAST in *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 (**Fig. 3A**) interrupting genes previously detected by

our Tn-seq approach. We successfully produced insertional mutants for genes encoding the

putative lipase (*lip1*, P4G95_16805), the A24 family peptidase (*A24*, P4G95_07805), the

TetR/AcrR family transcriptional regulator (*tetR/acrR*, P4G95_00865), trehalose-phosphatase

(*otsB,* P4G95_10885), and a T2SS protein (*gspE*, P4G95_05530) (**Fig. S2-6**). Inoculation and

growth of these mutants on agar plates containing mcl-PHA failed to produce a WT-like visible

halo around the colonies (**Fig. 3B**), confirming the link between the interrupted genetic elements

and the observed phenotype. To further confirm that the halo of degradation observed corresponds

to mcl-PHA degradation, plugs of agar from underneath WT and *lip1* mutant growth were taken

and the presence of PHO in the agar was assessed with by gas chromatography with flame

ionization detection (GC-FID). As expected, no PHO was detected in the agar beneath the WT

strain, whereas PHO was detected under the *lip1* strain, indicating that PHO was not being

degraded (**Fig. 4**). We note that after many attempts, we were unsuccessful in producing a

RhaCAST *lipO* mutant for unknown reasons.

Phenotypic and gene expression analysis of the lipase production gene cluster confirms that lip1,

but not lip2, is responsible for extracellular mcl-PHA degradation

High-density transposon mutagenesis followed by Tn-seq analysis uncovered the

involvement of a lipase production gene cluster (**Fig. 2B** and **Fig. 5A**). From this analysis, colonies

with no halo were found to have insertions in *lip1* and *lipO* (**Fig. 5B**) but transposon insertions in

lip2 were not found when sequencing the halo-defective colonies (**Fig. 5B**, N.D). This finding was

intriguing for two reasons; first, it seemed that Lip2 had no enzymatic activity against mcl-PHA,

despite displaying 78% identity and 86% similarity to Lip1 (**Fig. S7**). Second, as *lip2* and *lipO*

seem to be organized in an operon, one might expect that transposon interruptions in *lip2* would

result in a halo-defective phenotype because transposon insertions in *lipO* produced no halo around

the colonies (**Fig. 5B**). To further elucidate these conflicting results, we used RhaCAST to

construct a *lip2* mutant (**Fig. 5B, Fig. S8**). The *lip2* mutant displayed a WT-like halo, indicating

mcl-PHA degradation (**Fig. 5B**) and supporting the involvement of only *lip1* in mcl-PHA

degradation activity. Furthermore, gene expression analysis of the *lip2* mutant by RT-PCR

demonstrated that *lipO* was expressed ruling out a polar effect of the RhaCAST system on this

putative operon (**Fig. 5C**). The *lipO* gene was also expressed in the *lip1* mutant (**Fig. 5D**).

As Lip2 was not involved in extracellular mcl-PHA degradation, we compared the activity

of *lip1* and *lip2* mutants towards tributyrin, a well-known substrate for lipase activity (33) and

quantified degradation halos of biological replicates (**Fig. 6**). The wild-type *B. vietnamiensis* LMG

16232 exhibited consistent activity against mcl-PHA (**Fig. 6A**). Instead, the *lip1* mutant exhibited

no activity against mcl-PHA, confirming its role as solely responsible for mcl-PHA degradation.

B. vietnamiensis LMG 16232 WT also degraded tributyrin (**Fig. 6B**). However, the tributyrin

degrading activity of the *lip1* mutant was only reduced but not abolished (**Fig. 6B**), suggesting that

other lipases, including *lip2,* might be active lipases. mcl-PHA and tributyrin degradation were

also not affected in the *lip2* mutant (**Fig. 6A and B**). In summary, while Lip1 appears to be active

against extracellular mcl-PHA and tributyrin, Lip2 may be active against tributyrin but not against

mcl-PHA.

Structural analysis of Lip1 and Lip2 putative amino acid sequences reveal differences in the catalytic site.

To further investigate the differential activity of Lip1 and Lip2, we first compared their sequences with the well characterized *B. cepacia* lipase (22, 24) and experimentally validated mcl-PHA depolymerases from *Streptomyces roseolus* and *S. venezuelae*, (13, 14) and *Pseudomonas* (7–9), as well as *Bdellovibrio* (10). The multiple alignment (**Fig. S9**) revealed that Lip1 and Lip2 showed high similarity to the *B. cepacia* lipase (97.8% and 93.9%, respectively). Instead, less than 30% similarity was found between Lip1 or Lip2 to any of the other mcl-PHA depolymerases beyond the presence of the conserved lipase box. We then predicted the structures of Lip1 and Lip2 using AlphaFold 2 and assessed multiple sequence alignments. The sequence coverage analysis, which combines alignment depth and sequence identity, illustrates the extent of conservation across homologous sequences for both proteins (**Fig. S10A**). A well-conserved core region (residues ~50–160) is evident in both cases, with lower coverage and diversity in the N- and C-terminal regions suggesting flexible or functionally variable domains. Consistent patterns in Predicted Aligned Error (PAE) matrices of the five top-ranked models support a robust domain architecture with potential inter-domain flexibility (**Fig. S10B**). Additionally, the high predicted Local Distance Difference Test (pLDDT) scores (**Fig. S10C**) further validate the confidence in structural predictions. The high pLDDT values (>90) in the core region confirm a well-defined fold, whereas significant drops around residues 50–100 and 200–250 suggest intrinsically disordered or flexible regions. These trends are consistent across both Lip1 and Lip2, reinforcing the reliability of the predictions and indicating a shared structural organization.

Superposition of the AlphaFold-predicted Lip1 structure (**Fig. S11**) with the *B. cepacia* lipase (PDB ID 4LIP**)** crystallographic template revealed a high degree of structural similarity except for

an alpha-helix, which appears to obstruct a cavity present in 4LIP. To evaluate the catalytic sites

in the context of the observed *lip1* and *lip2* mutant phenotypes, we performed a structural

superposition with the *B. cepacia* lipase. The overlay reveals a remarkable similarity in the spatial

arrangement of the catalytic triad (**Fig. S12**). The conserved positioning of the key catalytic

residues strongly suggests that Lip1 and Lip2 adopt a functional fold compatible with lipase

activity. This structural conservation provides additional support for the hypothesis that both

proteins share mechanistic features with known lipases.

Using the *B. cepacia* lipase as a template, we guided the docking of Lip1 and Lip2 with

two substrates: 3-Hydroxyoctanoate (OCT) and Tributyrin (TRI). Both ligands were energy-

minimized before docking, and a grid-based docking algorithm was used to position the ligands

within the predicted active sites of both proteins. Notably, all combinations of protein-ligand

docking yielded clusters with low energy, indicating favourable interactions (**Table S1**).

Docking simulations with Lip1 revealed a single predominant low-energy cluster for both

OCT and TRI (**Fig. 7A, B, E, Table S1**). This convergence, together with the consistently low

binding energies, strongly suggests a high affinity between Lip1 and both ligands. In contrast, the

docking of both ligands against Lip2 (**Fig. 7C, D, E, Table S1**) yielded three distinct low-energy

clusters for each substrate. This multiplicity of binding modes suggests a weaker or less specific

interaction, potentially due to a more flexible or heterogeneous binding pocket that compromises

optimal substrate accommodation. Structural analysis of the catalytic site revealed that Lip1 and

the *B. cepacia* lipase share a similar configuration, whereas Lip2 contains a different amino acid

at position 73 compared to Lip1, which is glutamine (Lip2) instead of tyrosine (Lip1) (**Fig. S7,**

Fig. 7F). This amino acid difference may explain the different phenotypes of the *lip1* and *lip2*

mutants in which activity against mcl-PHO was only observed in the *lip2* (but not l*ip1*) mutant.

Discussion

The production and use of bioplastics, including mcl-PHA, have increased recently. These

materials are considered alternatives to petroleum-based plastics because they can be derived from

renewable resources and have a wide range of applications (1). Despite growing interest,

microorganisms and enzymes capable of degrading mcl-PHA remain relatively understudied (6).

Extracellular mcl-PHA depolymerases have been found in some genera, including *Pseudomonas*

(7–9), *Bdellovibrio* (10), *Thermus* (11) and *Streptomyces* (12–14). However, to date, the

mechanism of action for extracellular mcl-PHA by microorganisms has not been thoroughly

explored. Here, we report that several *Burkholderia* strains, including *B. gladioli*, *B. multivorans*,

and *B. vietnamiensis,* can degrade mcl-PHA. Through transposon mutagenesis combined with Tn-

seq analysis, we identified genetic elements associated with mcl-PHA degradation in *B.*

vietnamiensis LMG 16232. We further validated some of these genetic elements by generating

targeted insertional mutants using RhaCAST and tested their extracellular mcl-PHA degradation

activity. Our findings indicate that the enzyme responsible for extracellular mcl-PHA degradation

is a lipase (Lip1) with substrate versatility and we ruled out the involvement of a second lipase

(Lip2) encoded downstream of *lip1*. Indeed, the *lip2* mutant constructed with our RhaCAST

system, had similar extracellular mcl-PHA activity compared to the wild type. Therefore, we show

experimental evidence of *Burkholderia*'s capability to degrade extracellular mcl-PHA, linking the

enzymatic activity to the P4G95_16805 locus (*lip1*) of *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232, and ruling out

the involvement of *lip2* (P4G95_16810).

A technique commonly used to enhance the visualization of PHA degradation involves

incorporating Nile red, a lipophilic fluorescent dye, into agar plates (34). Thus, we adopted this

visualization method in our screening medium to increase sensitivity. In comparison to other

studies, where the degradation of extracellular mcl-PHA can be observed within 2 to 3 days,

Burkholderia vietnamiensis LMG16232 exhibited a slower degradation process, requiring

approximately 7 days for observable activity, suggesting co-metabolism, and/or poor growth on

mcl-PHA. Some strains of *Burkholderia* from the initial screening showed weak activity, with

degradation taking up to 20 days, despite the use of Nile red to enhance detection. Nevertheless,

by implementing this visualization technique alongside transposon mutagenesis in *B.*

vietnamiensis LMG 16232, we were able to screen 50,000 individual colonies in a rapid manner.

This approach enabled us to identify transconjugant colonies that had lost the ability to degrade

mcl-PHA, providing a sensitive and efficient screening method. This method may be applicable to

other polymers that can be stained with suitable dyes, enhancing assay sensitivity.

Besides the identification of *lip1* as the gene encoding an enzyme capable of mcl-PHA

degradation, transposon mutagenesis combined with Tn-seq identified other genetic elements

involved in the degradation of mcl-PHA in *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 (**Fig. 8**). These genes can

be classified into three functional groups: a) lipase/chaperone gene cluster, b) components of

T2SS, and c) regulatory elements. The genetic elements associated with the mcl-PHA degradation

in *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 are consistent with the findings in various *Burkholderia* lipases,

particularly regarding the production, chaperone-assisted folding and secretion of extracellular

lipases by T2SSs (35, 36). Similar to the lipases from other *Burkholderia* species, the identified *B.*

vietnamiensis LMG 16232 LipO is expected to assist the correct folding and efficient secretion of

Lip1 via the T2SS. Many *Burkholderia* strains can secrete extracellular lipases under inducing

conditions, and some of those lipases are capable of degrading various compounds (37–40). For

example, lipases from *Burkholderia* stains MC 16-3 (GenBank: AY772173) and 99-2-1

(GenBank: AY772174) can degrade methyl(R)-N-(2,6-dimethyl-phenyl)alaninate (41).

Additionally, the lipase from *B. cepacia* PBSA-1 (GenBank: EF189714.1) has been shown to

degrade poly(butylene succinate-co-butylene adipate) (42), while *B. cepacia* lipase can degrade

polycaprolactone (PCL) (16). These lipases, including the ones identified in this work, share the

conserved lipase box of G-H-S-Q-G. While *B. cepacia* DP1 is a major lipase producer and has

been shown to degrade extracellular scl-PHA (43, 44), there was no report of *Burkholderia* species

that degrade extracellular mcl-PHA.

One of the putative regulatory elements identified in this work is a TetR/AcrR family

transcriptional regulator CDS (P4G95_00865). This type of regulator is widely distributed among

bacteria and controls various cellular processes, including the metabolism of lipid compounds,

such as the synthesis and degradation of fatty acid and the storage of polymer (45). The

involvement of other regulatory elements, such as HTH-type transcriptional activators and a PHA

synthesis repressor, suggests that extracellular mcl-PHA degradation activity of *B. vietnamiensis*

LMG 16232 may be integrated with other metabolic pathways. While we did not identify a specific

genetic element directly responsible for the uptake of mcl-PHA degradation products, we propose

passive diffusion. This hypothesis is based on the structural similarity between mcl-PHA

monomers and fatty acids, which both contain a hydrophobic alkyl chain (46). Medium-chain fatty

acids (C_7-C_{11}) can enter bacteria through simple diffusion without the involvement of active

transport systems or an unknown mechanism (47, 48).

Enzymes that degrade extracellular mcl-PHA and lipases exhibit similar characteristics,

including the presence of the lipase box and a conserved non-catalytic amino acid triad (16).

Consequently, this study suggests that the mcl-PHA degrading enzyme from *Burkholderia* are

lipases that may also possess the capability to degrade mcl-PHA. However, Lip2 (P4G95_16810)

is annotated as a lipase, contains the lipase box and is highly similar to Lip1, yet our experimental

evidence indicates this lipase cannot degrade mcl-PHA. Our structural analysis of Lip1 and Lip2,

based on AlphaFold predictions, highlights a conserved core architecture and variable N- and C-

terminal regions, suggesting potential regulatory or accessory roles. Superposition with the *B.*

cepacia lipase PDB structure 4LIP demonstrated overall structural similarity but also revealed an

obstructive alpha-helix in Lip1 and Lip2, which is absent in 4LIP, and may influence enzyme

activity. While both Lip1 and Lip2 maintain a conserved catalytic triad, consistent with lipase

activity, docking experiments with ligands tributyrin and octanoate showed strong and specific

binding for Lip1. In contrast, Lip2 exhibited multiple binding modes, indicating a more flexible

binding pocket. A difference in the amino acid at position 73: (Lip1 contains glutamine, while

Lip2 has tyrosine) is suggestive of differential catalytic activity.

In summary, Lip1 appears to function as an active lipase and mcl-PHA depolymerase, while Lip2

may have altered activity due to structural differences. Additional biochemical and structural

studies will be needed to validate these conclusions. Overall, this study demonstrates the power of

visual screens combined with high-density transposon mutagenesis to establish gene-to-function

links and provides new insight onto the degradation of extracellular mcl-PHA by the genus

Burkholderia.

Material and methods

Strains, Selective Antibiotics, and Growth Conditions

Strains and plasmids are shown in **Table 3**. Primers used in this study are listed in **Table**

4. All strains were grown in LB-Lennox medium (Difco). Strains of *Burkholderia* and the strains

of *E. coli* were initially grown at 37 °C, except for *E. coli* Stbl2, which was grown at 30 °C. The

following selective antibiotics were used: chloramphenicol (Sigma; 20 µg/mL for *E. coli*),

trimethoprim (Sigma; 100 µg/mL for strains of *Burkholderia*, 50 µg/mL for *E. coli*), gentamicin

(Sigma; 50 µg/mL for *Burkholderia*).

Genomic and plasmid extraction

353 Genomic DNA of the *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 mutants made with RhaCAST were

354 extracted using the PureLink microbiome DNA purification kit (Invitrogen). Genomic DNA of the

355 Tn-seq pools were extracted using standard isopropanol precipitation (49). Plasmid DNA was

356 extracted using the EZNA Plasmid DNA Mini Kit (Omega Bio-tek). Both genomic and plasmid

357 DNA were eluted or solubilized in Tris-HCl pH 8.5.

Substrate and media preparation

The poly(3-hydroxyoctanoate) (PHO) (Product name: VersaMer-8-90) colloidal

suspension was created by dissolving 400 mg of PHO (Polyferm Canada Inc., Canada) into 200

mL acetone. Once the PHO was dissolved, 40 mL of dH_2O was added. The acetone was evaporated

off using a speed evaporator. The colloidal suspension was stored at 4° C until needed.

The mcl-PHA containing medium consisted of an M9 minimal medium agar (BD Difco,

USA) with 2 mM phenylalanine, 2 mM $MgSO_4$, 10 mg/ mL of PHO and 0.3 µg/mL Nile red. PHO

was added to the medium by using a previously prepared colloidal suspension of PHO. The PHO,

Nile red, $MgSO_4$, and phenylalanine were added after autoclaving to melted M9 agar. 25 mL of

medium was then poured into petri plates. After solidifying, the plates were stored at 4°C until

needed.

Tributyrin medium was made using a minimal medium with 2 mM phenylalanine and 2

mM $MgSO_4$ with tributyrin added to a final concentration of 4% (v/v) to the medium according to

the Sigma-Aldrich instructions (Sigma, St. Louis, Missouri, USA). The tributyrin was added after

autoclaving whilst the agar medium was around 80°C. The medium with tributyrin was vigorously

mixed until ready to pour into petri plates. After solidifying, the plates were stored at 4°C until

needed.

Screening for mcl-PHA and tributyrin degradation

To determine the strain's ability to degrade mcl-PHA and tributyrin degradation. The

overnight cultures were grown at 30°C and washed twice with PBS. 20 µL of the culture was

inoculated after being adjusted to an OD_{600} of 1. For mcl-PHA degradation determination, the

plates were incubated for 7-20 days; For tributyrin degradation determination, the plates were

incubated for 3 days, both incubated at 30°C. The visualization of the halo degradation was

performed using AlphaImager EP (Cell Biosciences, Santa Clara, CA). For the mcl-PHA plates

containing Nile red, the image was taken under UV excitation. Colonies that appeared to have lost

the PHO degradation activity on the first round of screening were then subjected to a secondary

screening to rule out false positives. 66 and 18 transconjugants were isolated without or with weak

PHO degradation activity, respectively.

Transposon mutagenesis, Tn-seq library preparation and genome mapping

B. vietnamiensis LMG 16232 was subjected to transposon mutagenesis with

pRBrhaBoutgfp (50). A total of 50,000 single colonies were screened. This number is based on

the expected average transposon insertion density from the model, approximately eight transposon

insertions per gene. Assuming a genome with N = 6000 non-essential genes and a collection of N

= 50,000 transposon insertion mutants, the probability that a single gene will see no transposon

insertions is: $P(0, k, N) = e^{\wedge}(-50,000/6,000) = 2.4 \times 10^{-4}$; the total number of genes that will see no

insertions is: $N^* e^{\wedge}(-k/N) = 6,000 \times 2.4 \times 10^{-4} = 1.4$ genes; and the total number of genes will be

found with this transposon density is n(insertion) $6,000^* (1-e^{\wedge}(-50,000/6,000)) = 5,999$ genes.

Tn-seq was chosen to identify the transposon insertion sites. To enrich transposon-genome

junctions and to determine the insertion site, an adapted Tn-seq method, Tn-seq circle, developed

by Gallagher et al. (51), was performed as previously described with some minor modifications

(49, 51). Briefly, cultures of individual mutants were grown individually to approximately OD_{600}

of 3 and were combined into two separate pools, based on without (Pool 1) or with weak (Pool 2)

PHO degradation activity. The cultures were harvested, followed by the genomic DNA extraction.

The DNA was sheared to an average size of 300 bp via ultrasonication with a Covaris M220 (duty

factor of 20%, a peak incident power of 50W, 200 cycles per burst, and a duration of 75s), followed

by end repair with the NEBNext End Repair Module (NEB) and A-tailing. Next, the products were

ligated with adaptors, consisting of annealing oligos 683 and 684 with the Quick Ligation Kit

(NEB) and digested with *PacI* (NEB). Probe 682 in the presence of Ampligase (Lucigen) was used

to circularize fragments containing the transposon sequence. The exonuclease treatment was

carried out with a mix of T7 gene 6 exonuclease (ThermoFisher), Lambda exonuclease (NEB),

and Exonuclease I (NEB) to digest the linear fragments. The enrichment of the transposon–genome

junctions was confirmed by comparing the amplification of the transconjugant's pools with wild-

type *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 using qPCR with iTaq Universal SYBR Green Supermix (Bio-

Rad). The number of PCR cycles corresponding to ~50% saturation by qPCR was chosen to

amplify transposon-genome junctions with iTaq DNA polymerases (Bio-Rad) for Illumina

sequencing. PCR primers 681, 690, 718, and 719 contain the Nextera indices and were used in

appropriate pairs (**Table 4**). The indexed samples were then cleaned up with SeraMag beads

(Cytiva), analysed on a TapeStation4150 (Agilent Technologies) and sequenced with an Illumina

MiSeq 2500. Raw reads were deposited in the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) repository

and will be publicly available after publication under BioProject: PRJNA1082765, accession:

SRR28216496 (Pool 1), SRR28216495 (Pool 2).

The sequenced reads of these mutants were mapped to the *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232

genome with the Galaxy bioinformatics platform (https://usegalaxy.org). Using Cutadapt

(Galaxy v2.9+galaxy0) (52), the transposon sequence

5'-NNNNAATCTAGACTAGTGCGGCCGCACTTGTGTATAAGAGTCA-3' was removed

from the FASTQ file. Next, using Burrows-Wheeler transform (BWA) (Galaxy v0.7.17.4) (53),

the reads were mapped to the close genome of *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 (29). The BWA's

BAM output was then converted to SAM using BAM-to-SAM (Galaxy 2.0.2) (54). The output

was visualized using Geneious 8.1.9.

Determination of the PHO content beneath inoculated culture

After 4 days, the bacterial growth from the inoculated culture from the phenotypic assay

was scraped off from the agar. An agar disk beneath the inoculated culture was cut using the back

of the P1000 pipette tip. For control, a disk was cut where no cell was inoculated. The samples

were dried at 60°C for 16 hours, and the PHO was extracted in chloroform using the acid-catalyzed

methanolysis procedure as previously described (55, 56). The determination of PHO in the agar

was performed using an Agilent 7890A gas chromatograph equipped with a DB-23 capillary

column (30 m × 250 μm × 0.25 μm) and a flame ionization detector (Agilent Technologies, Santa

Clara, CA). Method operating parameters and peak quantification have been previously described

(55, 57). The retention times and response factors for methyl 3-hydroxyoctanic acid were

confirmed using standards purchased from Cayman Chemical (Catalogue # 24609).

Gene expression analysis by reverse transcriptase (RT)PCR

To determine the effect of RhaCAST insertion in *lip1* and *lip2* on the expression of

downstream genes, RT-PCR was performed. Briefly, *B. vietnamiensi*s LMG 16232 Wildtype, *lip1*,

and *lip2* mutants were grown overnight on LB media at 30°C, the cultures were washed twice with

PBS and adjusted to OD_{600} of 1 (Time 0). Twenty µL of the adjusted cultures were then plated

onto PHO plates. Bacterial growth was harvested from the plates at days 4 and 7 and the RNA was

extracted following PureLink RNA Mini Kit protocol (Invitrogen™) following the manufacture's

instructions for bacterial cells. The RNA was then converted to cDNA using a SuperScript IV

VILO Master Mix Kit (ThermoFisher). The PCR reactions were performed with the Q5 High-

Fidelity DNA polymerase (New England Biolabs) following the manufacturer's instructions.

In silico analysis

Signal peptides were predicted for predicted PHA depolymerases using Signal P 5.0

(https://services.healthtech.dtu.dk/service.php?SignalP) with default settings using both Gram-

negative and Gram-positive predictions (58). The alignment of amino acid sequences was

performed with Clustal Omega from Geneious Prime®2026.0.2 using default settings. Protein

conformation was predicted using ColabFold 2 (59). Molecular docking studies were conducted

using Autodock 4 (60) to investigate the interaction between the enzyme and its potential

substrates. The docking protocol was guided by the crystal structure of the reference protein (PDB

ID: 4LIP). Visual representations of the predicted protein structures and docking interactions were

generated using PyMOL version 3.0.3 (61).

Construction of B. vietnamiensis LMG 16232 insertional mutants

Genes were interrupted using the RhaCAST method reported previously (31). Briefly, 24

bp crRNAs were designed from the genes to be targeted, and the templates were ordered as single-

stranded oligos and PCR-amplified using PCR primers 3392 and 3421 to create double-stranded

DNA fragments. The PCR products were then introduced into pRhaCAST using Golden Gate

cloning with SapI (NEB). The newly constructed plasmids were then transformed into *E. coli*

Stbl2. pRhaCAST was then introduced to *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 by tetra-parental mating

(31). *E. coli* MM290/pRK2013 helper strain, *E. coli* Stbl2/pRhaCAST with corresponding crRNA,

and *E. coli* PIR1/pDonorTp was conjugated into *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 on LB agar plate

containing 0.05% rhamnose. The plate was incubated at 37°C for 24 hours. Successful

exconjugants were selected on LB plates containing trimethoprim and gentamycin to select against

the *E. coli*. Colonies that appeared within 48 h at 37°C were screened by colony PCR. All

insertional mutants constructed with RhaCAST were verified by whole genome sequencing using

Oxford Nanopore Technologies platforms with v14 library prep chemistry and R10.4.1 flow cells

by Plasmidsaurus (Oregon, USA). The genomic sequence of the insertional mutants is available

after under BioProject: PRJNA1205771.

Author Contributions

STC and ZLY formulated the ideas and design of the project; and EQ performed GGL

performed docking experiment; ZLY, SY and MS designed and created plasmids and mutants;

ZLY, SY, MS, RD, and WB performed phenotypic assays; ZLY and AMH performed library prep

for Tn-seq. EQ performed gene expression analysis. ZLY and AM processed and analyzed the Tn-

seq data; ZLY and STC wrote the manuscript and edited together with SY, EQ, GGL, MS, RD,

AMH, AM, WB, RS, DBL, and DFDP; STC, DFDP, DBL, RS, and WB provided financial support

and supervised the work.

Acknowledgements and Funding Sources

This work was supported by a Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council

(NSERC) of Canada Discovery Grant to SC and a University of Manitoba Collaborative Research

Program (UCRP) grant to SC and DBL. ZLY was supported by a Research Manitoba and

University of Manitoba Graduate Fellowship (UMGF); MS and SY were supported by NSERC

Undergraduate Student Research Awards (USRA); AMH was supported by a Cystic Fibrosis

Canada studentship and a Canadian Institutes of Health Research (CIHR) Vanier award.

Conflict of Interest Statement

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

References

1.   Muneer F, Rasul I, Azeem F, Siddique MH, Zubair M, Nadeem H. 2020. Microbial
Polyhydroxyalkanoates (PHAs): Efficient Replacement of Synthetic Polymers. J Polym
Environ 28:2301–2323.

2.   Li Z, Yang J, Loh XJ. 2016. Polyhydroxyalkanoates: opening doors for a sustainable future.
NPG Asia Mater 8:e265–e265.

3.   Jendrossek D, Handrick R. 2002. Microbial degradation of polyhydroxyalkanoates. Annu
Rev Microbiol 56:403–432.

4.   Jendrossek D. 2009. Polyhydroxyalkanoate Granules Are Complex Subcellular Organelles
(Carbonosomes). J Bacteriol 191:3195–3202.

5.   Knoll M, Hamm TM, Wagner F, Martinez V, Pleiss J. 2009. The PHA Depolymerase
Engineering Database: A systematic analysis tool for the diverse family of
polyhydroxyalkanoate (PHA) depolymerases. BMC Bioinformatics 10:89.

6.   Viljakainen VR, Hug LA. 2021. The phylogenetic and global distribution of bacterial
polyhydroxyalkanoate bioplastic-degrading genes. Environ Microbiol 23:1717–1731.

7.   Schirmer A, Jendrossek D. 1994. Molecular Characterization of the Extracellular Poly(3-
Hydroxyoctanoic Acid) [P(3HO)] Depolymerase Gene of *Pseudomonas fluorescens* GK13
and of Its Gene Product. J Bacteriol 176:7065–7073.

8.   Kim DY, Kim HC, Kim SY, Rhee YH. 2005. Molecular characterization of extracellular
medium-chain-length poly(3-hydroxyalkanoate) depolymerase genes from *Pseudomonas*
alcaligenes strains. J Microbiol Seoul Korea 43:285–294.

9.   Rhee YH, Kim YH, Shin K-S. 2006. Characterization of an extracellular poly (3-
hydroxyoctanoate) depolymerase from the marine isolate, *Pseudomonas luteola* M13-4.
Enzyme Microb Technol 38:529–535.

10.   Martínez V, de la Peña F, García-Hidalgo J, de la Mata I, García JL, Prieto MA. 2012.
516   Identification and Biochemical Evidence of a Medium-Chain-Length
517   Polyhydroxyalkanoate Depolymerase in the *Bdellovibrio bacteriovorus* Predatory
518   Hydrolytic Arsenal. Appl Environ Microbiol 78:6017–6026.

519   11.   Papaneophytou CP, Velali EE, Pantazaki AA. 2011. Purification and characterization of an
520   extracellular medium-chain length polyhydroxyalkanoate depolymerase from *Thermus*
521   *thermophilus* HB8. Polym Degrad Stab 96:670–678.

522   12.   Martínez V, de Santos PG, García-Hidalgo J, Hormigo D, Prieto MA, Arroyo M, de la
523   Mata I. 2015. Novel extracellular medium-chain-length polyhydroxyalkanoate
524   depolymerase from *Streptomyces exfoliatus* K10 DSMZ 41693: a promising biocatalyst for
525   the efficient degradation of natural and functionalized mcl-PHAs. Appl Microbiol
526   Biotechnol 99:9605–9615.

527   13.   Gangoiti J, Santos M, Prieto MA, de la Mata I, Serra JL, Llama MJ. 2012. Characterization
528   of a Novel Subgroup of Extracellular Medium-Chain-Length Polyhydroxyalkanoate
529   Depolymerases from Actinobacteria. Appl Environ Microbiol 78:7229–7237.

530   14.   Santos M, Gangoiti J, Keul H, Möller M, Serra JL, Llama MJ. 2013. Polyester hydrolytic
531   and synthetic activity catalyzed by the medium-chain-length poly(3-hydroxyalkanoate)
532   depolymerase from *Streptomyces venezuelae* SO1. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 97:211–222.

533   15.   Gupta R, Gupta N, Rathi P. 2004. Bacterial lipases: an overview of production, purification
534   and biochemical properties. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 64:763–781.

535   16.   Jaeger KE, Steinbüchel A, Jendrossek D. 1995. Substrate specificities of bacterial
536   polyhydroxyalkanoate depolymerases and lipases: bacterial lipases hydrolyze poly(omega-
537   hydroxyalkanoates). Appl Environ Microbiol 61:3113–3118.

538   17.   Sharma PK, Mohanan N, Sidhu R, Levin DB. 2019. Colonization and degradation of
539   polyhydroxyalkanoates by lipase-producing bacteria. Can J Microbiol 65:461–475.

540   18.   Rathi P, Saxena RK, Gupta R. 2001. A novel alkaline lipase from *Burkholderia cepacia* for
541   detergent formulation. Process Biochem 37:187–192.

542   19.   Oliveira BH, Santos RÉ, Loiola LEA, Nascimento VMG. 2015. Overproduction and
543   properties of lipase by a wild strain of *Burkholderia lata* LBBIO-BL02 using chicken fat. 2.
544   Ann Microbiol 65:865–877.

545   20.   Shu Z, Wu J, Chen D, Cheng L, Zheng Y, Chen J, Huang J. 2012. Optimization of
546   *Burkholderia* sp. ZYB002 lipase production for pitch control in thermomechanical pulping
547   (TMP) processes. Holzforschung 66:341–348.

548   21.   Lo C-F, Yu C-Y, Kuan I-C, Lee S-L. 2012. Optimization of Lipase Production by
549   *Burkholderia* sp. Using Response Surface Methodology. Int J Mol Sci 13:14889.

22. Lang DA, Mannesse ML, de Haas GH, Verheij HM, Dijkstra BW. 1998. Structural basis of
the chiral selectivity of *Pseudomonas cepacia* lipase. Eur J Biochem 254:333–340.

23. Trodler P, Schmid RD, Pleiss J. 2009. Modeling of solvent-dependent conformational
transitions in *Burkholderia cepacia* lipase. BMC Struct Biol 9:38.

24. Schrag JD, Li Y, Cygler M, Lang D, Burgdorf T, Hecht HJ, Schmid R, Schomburg D,
Rydel TJ, Oliver JD, Strickland LC, Dunaway CM, Larson SB, Day J, McPherson A. 1997.
The open conformation of a *Pseudomonas* lipase. Struct Lond Engl 1993 5:187–202.

25. Barbe S, Lafaquière V, Guieysse D, Monsan P, Remaud-Siméon M, André I. 2009. Insights
into lid movements of *Burkholderia cepacia* lipase inferred from molecular dynamics
simulations. Proteins 77:509–523.

26. Lee J, Suh SW, Shin S. 2000. Computational studies of essential dynamics of *Pseudomonas
cepacia* lipase. J Biomol Struct Dyn 18:297–309.

27. Yudistira H, McClarty L, Bloodworth RA, Hammond SA, Butcher H, Mark BL, Cardona
ST. 2011. Phenylalanine induces *Burkholderia cenocepacia* phenylacetic acid catabolism
through degradation to phenylacetyl-CoA in synthetic cystic fibrosis sputum medium.
Microb Pathog 51:183–196.

28. Tung TT, Quoc Thang N, Cao Huy N, Bao Phuong P, Ngoc Minh D, Hai Nam N, Nielsen
J. 2024. Identification of novel phenylalanine derivatives bearing a hydroxamic acid moiety
as potent quorum sensing inhibitors. RSC Med Chem 15:1320–1328.

29. Yap ZL, Motnenko A, Cardona S. 2023. Complete Genome Sequence of *Burkholderia
vietnamiensis* LMG16232. Microbiol Resour Announc 12:e0032823.

30. Baym M, Shaket L, Anzai IA, Adesina O, Barstow B. 2016. Rapid construction of a whole-
genome transposon insertion collection for *Shewanella oneidensis* by Knockout Sudoku.
Nat Commun 7:1–13.

31. Yap ZL, Rahman ASMZ, Hogan AM, Levin DB, Cardona ST. 2024. A CRISPR-Cas-
associated transposon system for genome editing in *Burkholderia cepacia* complex species.
Appl Environ Microbiol 90:e00699-24.

32. Zeng T, Yin J, Liu Z, Li Z, Zhang Y, Lv Y, Lu M-L, Luo M, Chen M, Xiao Y. 2023.
Mechanistic insights into transposon cleavage and integration by TnsB of ShCAST system.
Cell Rep 42:112698.

33. Erlanson C, Borgström B. 1970. Tributyrine as a substrate for determination of lipase
activity of pancreatic juice and small intestinal content. Scand J Gastroenterol 5:293–295.

34. Mohanan N, Wong CH, Budisa N, Levin DB. 2022. Characterization of Polymer Degrading
Lipases, LIP1 and LIP2 From *Pseudomonas chlororaphis* PA23. Front Bioeng Biotechnol
10:854298.

35.   Knapp A, Voget S, Gao R, Zaburannyi N, Krysciak D, Breuer M, Hauer B, Streit WR,
586   Müller R, Daniel R, Jaeger K-E. 2015. Mutations improving production and secretion of
587   extracellular lipase by *Burkholderia glumae* PG1. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 100:1265.

588   36.   Khattabi ME, Gelder PV, Bitter W, Tommassen J. 2000. Role of the Lipase-specific
589   Foldase of *Burkholderia glumae* as a Steric Chaperone. J Biol Chem 275:26885–26891.

590   37.   Sánchez DA, Tonetto GM, Ferreira ML. 2018. *Burkholderia cepacia* lipase: A versatile
591   catalyst in synthesis reactions. Biotechnol Bioeng 115:6–24.

592   38.   Liu C-H, Huang C-C, Wang Y-W, Chang J-S. 2012. Optimizing lipase production from
593   isolated *Burkholderia* sp. J Taiwan Inst Chem Eng 43:511–516.

594   39.   Li J, Shen W, Fan G, Li X. 2018. Screening, purification and characterization of lipase
595   from *Burkholderia pyrrocinia* B1213. 3 Biotech 8:387.

596   40.   Alnoch RC, Cardoso RLA, Guizelini D, Balsanelli E, Tadra-Sfeir MZ, de Oliveira Pedrosa
597   F, Sassaki GL, Cruz LM, Mitchell DA, de Souza EM, Krieger N, Muller-Santos M. 2019.
598   Genome sequencing of *Burkholderia contaminans* LTEB11 reveals a lipolytic arsenal of
599   biotechnological interest. Braz J Microbiol 50:619–624.

600   41.   Park O-J, Lee S-H. 2005. Stereoselective lipases from *Burkholderia* sp., cloning and their
601   application to preparation of methyl (*R*)-*N*-(2,6-dimethylphenyl)alaninate, a key
602   intermediate for (*R*)-Metalaxyl. J Biotechnol 120:174–182.

603   42.   Lee S-H, Kim M-N. 2010. Isolation of bacteria degrading poly(butylene succinate-*co*-
604   butylene adipate) and their *lip A* gene. Int Biodeterior Biodegrad 64:184–190.

605   43.   Nor Azura Azam et al. 2018. Enhanced degradation of polyhydroxyalkanoates (PHAs) by
606   newly isolated *Burkholderia cepacia* DP1 with high depolymerase activity. 27 Apri 2017
607   75:11.

608   44.   Azura Azami N, Ira Aryani W, Aik-Hong T, Amirul AA. 2019. Purification and
609   characterization of new bio-plastic degrading enzyme from *Burkholderia cepacia* DP1.
610   Protein Expr Purif 155:35–42.

611   45.   Cuthbertson L, Nodwell JR. 2013. The TetR Family of Regulators. Microbiol Mol Biol Rev
612   77:440–475.

613   46.   Kniewel R, Revelles Lopez O, Prieto MA. 2017. Biogenesis of Medium-Chain-Length
614   Polyhydroxyalkanoates, p. 1–25. *In* Geiger, O (ed.), Biogenesis of Fatty Acids, Lipids and
615   Membranes. Springer International Publishing, Cham.

616   47.   Black PN, DiRusso CC. 1994. Molecular and biochemical analyses of fatty acid transport,
617   metabolism, and gene regulation in *Escherichia coli*. Biochim Biophys Acta 1210:123–145.

618   48.   Jimenez-Diaz L, Caballero A, Segura A. 2017. Pathways for the Degradation of Fatty Acids
619   in Bacteria, p. 1–23. *In* Rojo, F (ed.), Aerobic Utilization of Hydrocarbons, Oils and Lipids.
620   Springer International Publishing, Cham.

621   49.   Gislason AS, Turner K, Domaratzki M, Cardona ST. 2017. Comparative analysis of the
622   *Burkholderia cenocepacia* K56-2 essential genome reveals cell envelope functions that are
623   uniquely required for survival in species of the genus *Burkholderia*. Microb Genomics
624   3:e000140.

625   50.   Cardona ST, Mueller C, Valvano MA. 2006. Identification of essential operons in
626   *Burkholderia cenocepacia* with a rhamnose inducible promoter. Appl Environ Microbiol
627   72:2547–2555.

628   51.   Gallagher LA, Shendure J, Manoil C. 2011. Genome-scale identification of resistance
629   functions in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* using Tn-seq. mBio 2:e00315-10.

630   52.   Martin M. 2011. Cutadapt removes adapter sequences from high-throughput sequencing
631   reads. 1. EMBnet.journal 17:10–12.

632   53.   Li H, Durbin R. 2010. Fast and accurate long-read alignment with Burrows–Wheeler
633   transform. Bioinformatics 26:589–595.

634   54.   Li H, Handsaker B, Wysoker A, Fennell T, Ruan J, Homer N, Marth G, Abecasis G, Durbin
635   R, Subgroup 1000 Genome Project Data Processing. 2009. The Sequence Alignment/Map
636   format and SAMtools. Bioinformatics 25:2078–2079.

637   55.   Fu J, Sharma U, Sparling R, Cicek N, Levin DB. 2014. Evaluation of medium-chain-length
638   polyhydroxyalkanoate production by *Pseudomonas putida* LS46 using biodiesel by-product
639   streams. Can J Microbiol 60:461–468.

640   56.   Braunegg G, Sonnleitner B, Lafferty RM. 1978. A rapid gas chromatographic method for
641   the determination of polyhydroxybutyric acid in microbial biomass. Eur J Appl Microbiol
642   Biotechnol 6:29–37.

643   57.   Blunt W, Lagassé A, Harvey J, Sparling R, Gapes D, Levin D, Cicek N. 2024. Semi-
644   continuous non-sterile production of medium chain-length polyhydroxyalkanoates from
645   fatty acids. Can J Chem Eng 102:3896–3908.

646   58.   Almagro Armenteros JJ, Tsirigos KD, Sønderby CK, Petersen TN, Winther O, Brunak S,
647   von Heijne G, Nielsen H. 2019. SignalP 5.0 improves signal peptide predictions using deep
648   neural networks. Nat Biotechnol 37:420–423.

649   59.   Kim G, Lee S, Levy Karin E, Kim H, Moriwaki Y, Ovchinnikov S, Steinegger M, Mirdita
650   M. 2025. Easy and accurate protein structure prediction using ColabFold. Nat Protoc
651   20:620–642.

60.   Morris GM, Huey R, Lindstrom W, Sanner MF, Belew RK, Goodsell DS, Olson AJ. 2009.
AutoDock4 and AutoDockTools4: Automated docking with selective receptor flexibility. J
Comput Chem 30:2785–2791.

61.   DeLano WL. 2002. Pymol: An open-source molecular graphics tool. CCP4 Newsl Protein
Crystallogr.

62.   Darling P, Chan M, Cox AD, Sokol PA. 1998. Siderophore production by cystic fibrosis
isolates of *Burkholderia cepacia*. Infect Immun 66:874–877.

63.   Bloodworth RA, Gislason AS, Cardona ST. 2013. *Burkholderia cenocepacia* conditional
growth mutant library created by random promoter replacement of essential genes.
MicrobiologyOpen 2:243–258.

64.   Figurski DH, Helinski DR. 1979. Replication of an origin-containing derivative of plasmid
RK2 dependent on a plasmid function provided in trans. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A
76:1648–1652.

  Figures and Legends

Fig 1. Overview of transposon mutagenesis and Tn-seq workflow to identify genetic elements involved in the extracellular mcl-PHA degradation activity in *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232. *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 was subjected to transposon mutagenesis, and 50,000 colonies were screened for those with absent or reduced extracellular mcl-PHA degradation activity. Colonies showing reduced or no degradation activity were selected for further analysis. Selected mutants were grown individually and then grouped into two pools based on their mcl-PHA degradation activity (Pool 1 for no activity, Pool 2 for weak activity). Genomic DNA (gDNA) was extracted from each pool. The gDNA was prepared for Tn-Genome junction enrichment. The enriched DNA fragments were sequenced using Illumina MiSeq. The sequencing data were analyzed by mapping the reads to the *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 genome.

Fig 2. Genetic Organization of the *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 gene clusters that affect the extracellular mcl-PHA when disrupted by transposon insertions . Triangles indicate transposon insertions that resulted in complete loss (purple) or severe reduction (green) of extracellular mcl-PHA degradation activity in *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232; **A**) The T2SS of *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 arranges in a gene cluster containing 12 genes (P4G95_05480, P4G95_05485, P4G95_05490, P4G95_05495, P4G95_05500, P4G95_05505, P4G95_05510, P4G95_05515, P4G95_05520, P4G95_05525, P4G95_05530, P4G95_05535). All genes of the gene cluster are interrupted except for *gspN*; **B**) lipase gene cluster consists of three genes, *lip1, lip2* and *lipO* (P4G95_16805, P4G95_16810, and P4G95_16815); **C**) The polyhydroxyalkanoate synthesis gene cluster of *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 consists of four genes, *phaR, phaB, phaA, and phbC* (P4G95_13560, P4G95_13565, P4G95_13570, and P4G95_13575). The genes are depicted to scale, as indicated by the bars on the right side of the panels. The putative function of transposon-disrupted genes is provided in Table 2.

Fig 3. Targeting genes involved in mcl-PHA degradation in *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 abolish

the strain's ability to degrade mcl-PHA; **A**) Schematic model of RNA-guided DNA transposition

by RhaCAST applied to *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232. The two plasmids of the RhaCAST system,

pRhaCAST and pDonorTp, encode all the necessary components, *tnsB*, *tnsC*, *tniQ*, Cas12k,

crRNA scaffold, and the cargo gene (TpR) that is flanked by the transposon left end (LE) and right

end (RE); **B**) Bacterial growth on PHO plates of WT and RhaCAST mutants. Images are croppings

from a representative PHO agar plate. The scale bar (1 cm) is shown for size reference. WT, B.

vietnamiensis LMG 16323. *Lip 1,* A24, *otsB, gspE* and *tetR/acrR* are the targeted genes. Putative

functions are described in Table 2. Complete name of the mutants is provided in Table 3.

Fig 4. Targeting the putative *lipase* gene (locus tag: P4G95_16805) in *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 abolishes the ability to degrade mcl-PHA. The absence or presence of PHO in the agar after strain inoculation was determined with gas chromatography with flame ionization detection (GC-FID). Samples were obtained by cutting an agar disk under the strain. For control, a disk was cut at an area of the agar where no cell was inoculated. The peak at ~9.3 minutes retention time corresponds to PHO, which can be observed at the no cell control (Top). The absence of a peak corresponds to PHO in WT, and the presence of PHO underneath the *lip1* mutant growth supports the phenotypic test. Strains were grown on an agar plate containing Nile red and PHO and visualized under UV irradiation. Inoculation of wild type (WT) results in a clear halo around the strain, whereas the inoculation of the *lip1* mutant does not have a halo around the strain.

Fig. 5. Phenotypic and gene expression analysis of the lipase production gene cluster. **A)** Scheme of the *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 *lip1, lip2* and *lipO* (P4G95_16805, P4G95_16810, and P4G95_16815); **B)** mcl-PHA degradation phenotypes of the respective mutants produced by Tn-seq (scheme) or RhaCAST (bacterial growth on PHO plates after 7 days); **C-D)** Lipase cluster expression analysis. WT, *lip1* and *lip2* mutants were grown on PHO plates and at day 0 (shown) 4 and 7, cells were harvested for RNA extraction. Expression of target genes was confirmed by RT-PCR. RT, reverse transcriptase.

A.   mcl-PHA

B.   Tributyirin

728   **Fig 6.** Quantification of mcl-PHA and tributyrin degradation in *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232, *lip1*

729   and *lip2* mutants. Diameter of the halos degradation in **A**) mcl-PHA or **B**) tributyrin. Strains were

730   grown on an agar plate supplemented with tributyrin for 3 days or mcl-PHA for 7 days at 37ºC.

731   Data is representative of three biological replicates repeated in technical duplicates.

Fig. 7. Docking analysis of Lip1 and Lip2-substrate complexes. **A**) Docking poses of Lip1 with 3-Hydroxyoctanoate (OCT); **B**) Docking poses of Lip1 with Tributyrin (TRI); **C**) Docking poses of Lip2 with 3-Hydroxyoctanoate (OCT); **D**) Docking poses of Lip2 with Tributyrin (TRI). The images illustrate the single predominant low-energy binding cluster obtained for both substrates,

highlighting the catalytic triad in violet; **E**) Binding energy and cluster distribution for protein-

ligand complexes. The plot shows the lowest binding energy for Lip1 and Lip2 docking with 3-

Hydroxyoctanoate (OCT) and Tributyrin (TRI). The size of the circle represents the cluster size

(number of poses), while colours differentiate protein-ligand pairs: Lip1-OCT (blue), Lip1-TRI

(orange), Lip2-OCT (green), and Lip2-TRI (red). Lip1 exhibits a higher affinity for both ligands,

characterized by a single predominant low-energy cluster, whereas Lip2 displays multiple binding

modes for both substrates; **F**) Structural superposition of Lip1 and Lip2 at amino acid at position

73. Superposition of Lip1 (green) and Lip2 (blue), highlighting the catalytic triad (violet) and the

difference in amino acid in position 73: Lip1 (tyrosine, Y) and Lip2 (glutamine, Q), illustrating its

potential impact on enzyme structure and function.

Fig 8. Proposed model of components involved in *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 extracellular mcl-

PHA degradation activity. The elements in this model were deduced from the transconjugants that

either lost or showed severely reduced extracellular mcl-PHA depolymerase activity due to

transposon insertion. The components where the text is in red have been verified via the creation

of insertional mutagenesis using RhaCAST. The regulatory elements influencing this activity are

TetR/AcrR family transcriptional regulator (P4G95_00865), Polyhydroxyalkanoate synthesis

repressor (P4G95_13560) and HTH-type regulators (P4G95_05570 and P4G95_16325). The Sec

system is responsible for transporting the unfolded protein into the periplasmic, as the protein is

predicted to contain a sec tag. The putative lipase chaperone (P4G95_16815) is responsible for

folding the putative lipase into a mature protein and excreted to the outside of the cell via the T2SS.

B. vietnamiensis LMG 16232 extracellular mcl-PHA degradation activity is also affected by the

transposon interruption in genetic elements related to polyhydroxyalkanoate production and

several genes involved in metabolism.

Table 1. *Burkholderia* isolates that exhibit extracellular mcl-PHO degradation activity

Species	Strain	Ability to degrade PHO	
		30 ˚C	37 ˚C
Burkholderia cenocepacia	K56-2	-	-
	F9141525	-	-
	F3071909	-	-
	G1181568-1	-	-
	F4200989-3	-	-
	VC14488	-	-
	VC14543	-	-
	VC10414	-	-
	VC14761	-	-
	130723	-	-
	125007	-	-
Burkholderia contaminans	21NG595759	-	-
	21NG609698	-	-
Burkholderia dolosa	AU6940	-	-
	AU2167	-	-
	LM018941	-	-
	AU0645	-	-
Burkholderia gladioli	VC19233	+	+
	VC14812	-	-
	132208	+	-
	113611	-	-
Burkholderia multivorans	21NH942533	+	+
	21NJ503211	+	-
	V1120157	-	-
	LM013010	-	-
	F9091687	+	-
	VC19694	-	-
	VC15555	-	-
	VC9825	+	+
	131077	-	-
Burkholderia stagnalis	MSMB618	++	++
	MSMB642	++	++
Burkholderia vietnamiensis	LMG 22486	-	-
	LMG 10929	-	-
	LMG 16232	++	++
	VC11431	-	-
	VC18984	-	-

mcl-PHA degradation after 20 days was ranked based on (–) no clearing, (+) weak clearing: faint or barely visible halo around the colony, (++) moderate clearing: clearly visible halo with more defined edges. **Fig. S1** is the source of the data interpretation.

Table 2. Transposon mutants of *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 with abolished (Pool 1) or reduced (Pool 2) extracellular mcl-PHA activity

Chromosome number	Locus tag	Number of unique insertions per gene	Gene name/protein name	Putative function
Pool 1				
1	P4G95_00865	3	*tetR*/AcrR family transcriptional regulator	TetR/AcrR family transcriptional regulator
1	P4G95_05485	2	*gspM*	T2SS protein M
1	P4G95_05490	2	*gspL*	T2SS protein GspL
1	P4G95_05495	3	*gspK*	T2SS minor pseudopilin GspK
1	P4G95_05500	2	*gspJ*/prepilin-type N-terminal cleavage/methylation domain-containing protein	prepilin-type N-terminal cleavage/methylation domain-containing protein
1	P4G95_05505	1	*gspI*	T2SS minor pseudopilin GspI
1	P4G95_05510	1	*gspH*/*fimT* family pseudopilin	GspH/FimT family pseudopilin
1	P4G95_05515	1	*gspG*	T2SS major pseudopilin GspG
1	P4G95_05520	1	general secretion pathway protein	general secretion pathway protein GspC CDS
1	P4G95_05525	2	*gspF*	T2SS inner membrane protein GspF
1	P4G95_05530	3	*gspE*	T2SS ATPase GspE
1	P4G95_05535	7	*gspD*	T2SS secretin GspD
1	P4G95_07805	3	A24 family peptidase	A24 family peptidase
1	P4G95_10885	1	*otsB*	trehalose-phosphatase
2	P4G95_16805	1	*lip1*/triacylglycerol lipase	triacylglycerol lipase
2	P4G95_16815	1	*lipO*/lipase secretion chaperone	lipase secretion chaperone
2	P4G95_20805	1	hypothetical protein	hypothetical protein
3	P4G95_28980	1	*gspD*	T2SS secretion GspD
Pool 2				
1	P4G95_03530	1	*nagA*	N-acetylglucosamine-6-phosphate deacetylase

1	P4G95_05495	1	*gspK*	T2SS minor pseudopilin GspK
1	P4G95_05505	1	*gspI*	T2SS minor pseudopilin GspI
1	Between P4G95_05555 and P4G95_05560	1	Between *mnmC* and cation:proton antiporter CDS	cation:proton antiporter
1	P4G95_05570	1	*MarR* family winged helix-turn-helix transcriptional regulator	MarR family winged helix-turn-helix transcriptional regulator
1	P4G95_06510 and P4G95_06515	1	*paaK* and *paaJ*	phenylacetate-CoA oxygenase/reductase subunit PaaK and phenylacetate-CoA oxygenase subunit PaaJ
1	P4G95_13560	1	*phaR*	polyhydroxyalkanoate synthesis repressor PhaR
1	P4G95_13570	2	acetyl-CoA C-acetyltransferase	acetyl-CoA C-acetyltransferase
1	Between P4G95_15285 and P4G95_15290	1	Between cupin domain-containing protein CDS and hypothetical protein	
2	P4G95_16325	1	helix-turn-helix domain-containing protein	helix-turn-helix domain-containing protein
2	P4G95_20810	1	hypothetical protein	hypothetical protein
3	Between P4G95_29770 and P4G95_29775	2	Between porin CDS and helix-turn-helix domain-containing protein CDS	

771   **Table 3.** List of bacterial strains and plasmids used in this work.

Strain or plasmid	Features	Source
Burkholderia cenocepacia K56-2	ET12 lineage cystic fibrosis clinical isolate from Toronto	(62)
Burkholderia cenocepacia F9141525	Cystic fibrosis clinical isolate from Toronto	SickKids, Toronto
Burkholderia cenocepacia F3071909	Cystic fibrosis clinical isolate from Toronto	SickKids, Toronto
Burkholderia cenocepacia G1181568-1	Cystic fibrosis clinical isolate from Toronto	SickKids, Toronto
Burkholderia cenocepacia F4200989-3	Cystic fibrosis clinical isolate from Toronto	SickKids, Toronto
Burkholderia cenocepacia VC14488	Canadian cystic fibrosis isolate	CBCCRRR
Burkholderia cenocepacia VC14543	Canadian cystic fibrosis isolate	CBCCRRR
Burkholderia cenocepacia VC10414	Canadian cystic fibrosis isolate	CBCCRRR
Burkholderia cenocepacia VC14761	Canadian cystic fibrosis isolate	CBCCRRR
Burkholderia cenocepacia 130723	Clinical respiratory isolated collected in Halifax	CANWARD/CARA database
Burkholderia cenocepacia 125007	Clinical respiratory isolated collected in Vancouver	CANWARD/CARA database
Burkholderia contaminans 21NG595759	Canadian cystic fibrosis isolate	H. Adam (Shared Health MB)
Burkholderia contaminans 21NG609698	Canadian cystic fibrosis isolate	H. Adam (Shared Health MB)
Burkholderia dolosa AU6940	Cystic fibrosis clinical isolate	SickKids, Toronto
Burkholderia dolosa AU2167	Cystic fibrosis clinical isolate	SickKids, Toronto
Burkholderia dolosa LM018941	Cystic fibrosis clinical isolate	SickKids, Toronto
Burkholderia dolosa AU0645	Cystic fibrosis clinical isolate	SickKids, Toronto
Burkholderia gladioli VC19233	Canadian cystic fibrosis isolate	CBCCRRR
Burkholderia gladioli VC14812	Canadian cystic fibrosis isolate	CBCCRRR
Burkholderia gladioli 132208	Clinical respiratory isolated collected in Montreal	CANWARD/CARA database

Burkholderia gladioli 113611	Clinical respiratory isolated collected in Saskatoon	CANWARD/CARA database
Burkholderia multivorans 21NH942533	Canadian cystic fibrosis isolate	H. Adam (Shared Health MB)
Burkholderia multivorans 21NJ503211	Canadian cystic fibrosis isolate	H. Adam (Shared Health MB)
Burkholderia multivorans V1120157	Cystic fibrosis clinical isolate	SickKids, Toronto
Burkholderia multivorans LM013010	Cystic fibrosis clinical isolate	SickKids, Toronto
Burkholderia multivorans F9091687	Cystic fibrosis clinical isolate	SickKids, Toronto
Burkholderia multivorans VC19694	Canadian cystic fibrosis isolate	CBCCRRR
Burkholderia multivorans VC15555	Canadian cystic fibrosis isolate	CBCCRRR
Burkholderia multivorans VC9825	Canadian cystic fibrosis isolate	CBCCRRR
Burkholderia multivorans 131077	Clinical respiratory isolated collected in Toronto	CANWARD/CARA database
Burkholderia stagnalis MSMB618	N/A	NAU-PMI
Burkholderia stagnalis MSMB642	N/A	NAU-PMI
Burkholderia vietnamiensis LMG 22486	Wastewater isolate	BCCM
Burkholderia vietnamiensis LMG 10929	Oryza sativa, rhizosphere soil isolate	BCCM
Burkholderia vietnamiensis LMG 16232	Clinical isolate from cystic fibrosis patient	BCCM
Burkholderia vietnamiensis VC11431	Canadian cystic fibrosis isolate	CBCCRRR
Burkholderia vietnamiensis VC18984	Canadian cystic fibrosis isolate	CBCCRRR
Burkholderia vietnamiensis LMG 16232 *lip1*::CAST-Tp *(lip1)*	Derived from LMG 16232; Cargo containing Tp^r integrated into triacylglycerol lipase CDS (P4G95_16805), created with crRNA 3668, distance from protospacer adjacent motif (PAM): 63	This study
Burkholderia vietnamiensis LMG 16232 *lip2*::CAST-Tp *(lip2)*	Derived from LMG 16232; Cargo containing Tp^r integrated into triacylglycerol lipase CDS (P4G95_16810), created with crRNA	This study

	3890, distance from protospacer adjacent motif (PAM): 66	
Burkholderia vietnamiensis LMG 16232 A24 family peptidase CDS:: CAST-Tp (*A24*)	Derived from LMG 16232; Cargo containing Tp^r integrated into A24 family peptidase CDS (P4G95_07805), created with crRNA 3952, distance from PAM: 64	This study
Burkholderia vietnamiensis LMG 16232 *otsB*::CAST-Tp (*otsB*)	Derived from LMG 16232; Cargo containing Tp^r integrated into *otsB* (P4G95_10885), created with crRNA 3956 distance from PAM: 65	This study
Burkholderia vietnamiensis LMG 16232 *gspE*::CAST-Tp *gspE*	Derived from LMG 16232; Cargo containing Tp^r integrated into *gspE* (P4G95_05530), created with crRNA 3996, distance from PAM: 63	This study
Burkholderia vietnamiensis LMG 16232 TetR/AcrR family transcriptional regulator CDS::CAST-Tp (*tetR/acrR*)	Derived from LMG 16232; Cargo containing Tp^r integrated into TetR/AcrR family transcriptional regulator CDS (P4G95_00865), created with crRNA 4000, distance from PAM: 126	This study
E. coli Stbl2	*F- mcrA Δ(mcrBC-hsdRMS-mrr) recA1 endA1lon gyrA96 thi supE44 relA1 λ⁻ Δ(lac-proAB)*	Invitrogen
pRBrhaBoutgfp	pSCrhaBoutgfp derivative, ori$_{R6K}$, *rhaR rhaS* PrhaB e-gfp	(63)
pRK2013	ori$_{colE1}$ RK2 derivative *Kan^r mob$^+$ tra$^+$*	(64)
pDonorTp	pDonor_ShCAST_kanR with modification of Km^R to Tp^R	(31)
pRhaCAST	*Sh-cas12K-tnsBC-tniQ* drives by the rhamnose inducible promoter	(31)
pRhaCAST-3668	Modified from pRhaCAST. crRNA targeting *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 triacylglycerol lipase CDS (P4G95_16805)	This study
pRhaCAST-3952	Modified from pRhaCAST. crRNA targeting *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 A24 family peptidase CDS (P4G95_07805)	This study
pRhaCAST-3956	Modified from pRhaCAST. crRNA targeting *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 *otsB* (P4G95_10885)	This study
pRhaCAST-3996	Modified from pRhaCAST. crRNA targeting *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 *gspE* (P4G95_05530)	This study

pRhaCAST-4000	Modified from pRhaCAST. crRNA targeting *B. vietnamiensis* LMG 16232 TetR/AcrR family transcriptional regulator CDS (P4G95_00865)	This study

Table 4. Primers/templates used in this study

Number	Sequence	Description
Oligonucleotides for Tn-seq		
683	CCGTAGTGAGTTCTTCGTCCGAGCCACTCGGAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGT	Tn-seq adapter (top strand)
684	CTGTCTCTTATACACATCTCCGAGTGGCTCGGACGAAGAACTCACTACGG	Tn-seq adapter (bottom strand)
682	CACAAGTGCGGCCGCACTAGTCTAGATTTAAATTACCGTAGTGAGTTCTTCGTCCGAGCCAC	Tn-seq oligo probe
681	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATTCGCCTTAGTCTCGTGGGCTCGGAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAG	Illumina Nextera index N701 (Pool 1)
690	AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACACTAGATCGCTCGTCGGCAGCGTCAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGNNNNNAATCTAGACTAGTGCGGCC	Illumina Nextera index N501 (Pool 1)
718	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATAGGAGTCCGTCTCGTGGGCTCGGAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAG	Illumina Nextera index N705 (Pool 2)
719	AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACACCTCTCTATTCGTCGGCAGCGTCAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGNNNNNAATCTAGACTAGTGCGGCC	Illumina Nextera index N502 (Pool 2)
Oligonucleotides for cloning crRNA into pRhaCAST (crRNA is in bold, *sapI* restriction site is in italics)		
3392	ACTAACGGCTCTTCGAG	Reverse primer to amplify single stranded nucleotide template containing the crRNA
3421	CATTGGCTCTTCGAAAG	Forward primer to amplify single stranded nucleotide template containing the crRNA
3668	CATT*GGCTCTTC*GAAAG**ATCCTCGTGCACGGCCTTACCGGC**GGCTC*GAAGAGC*CGTTAGT	Targeting triacylglycerol lipase 1 CDS (P4G95_16805) of LMG 16232
3890	CATT*GGCTCTTC*GAAAG**GCGAATCTGTCGGCGTTCCAGAGC**GGCTC*GAAGAGC*CGTTAGT	Targeting triacylglycerol lipase 2 CDS (P4G95_16810) of LMG 16232
3952	CATT*GGCTCTTC*GAAAG**GTGATCGGTCTGTGCGTCGGCAGC**GGCTC*GAAGAGC*CGTTAGT	Targeting A24 family peptidase CDS (P4G95_07805) of LMG 16232

3956	CATT*GGCTCTTC*GAAAG**CCTGACCG****ATACCGCGTTCTTTTT**GGCTC*GAAG**AGC*CGTTAGT	Targeting *otsB* (P4G95_10885) of LMG 16232
3996	CATT*GGCTCTTC*GAAAG**TGCAAGGA****AGAGCGACACGAGGAC**GGCTC*GAA**GAGC*CGTTAGT	Targeting *gspE* (P4G95_05530) of LMG 16232
4000	CATT*GGCTCTTC*GAAAG**CCACCATCG****ACGAGACCTGGTCGT**GGCTC*GAAGA**GC*CGTTAGT	Targeting TetR/AcrR family transcriptional regulator CDS (P4G95_00865) of LMG 16232
Oligonucleotides for colony PCR to verify genomic insertion		
3001	GGTGGGTTGAAAGCAAGTCC	left end of the cargo insertion
3670	CTATCCGGTCATCCTCGTGC	Colony PCR for triacylglycerol lipase CDS (P4G95_16805) of LMG 16232
3953	GTGATCGGTCTGTGCGTCG	Colony PCR for A24 family peptidase CDS (P4G95_07805) of LMG 16232
3957	CTGACCGATACCGCGTTCTT	Colony PCR for *otsB* (P4G95_10885) of LMG 16232
3997	GCAAGGAAGAGCGACACGAG	Colony PCR for *gspE* (P4G95_05530) of LMG 16232
4001	CCACCATCGACGAGACCTG	Colony PCR for TetR/AcrR family transcriptional regulator CDS (P4G95_00865) of LMG 16232
Oligonucleotides used to analyze gene expression by RT-PCR		
4100	CGTCGGATCGCGCCATAC	Forward primer to amplify *lipO*
4099	GCACCTTCGCGAGATGCC	Reverse primer to amplify *lipO*
4104	GCGCGATCGATCAGTGGTAC	Forward primer to amplify *lip2*
4103	GTCACCGATGCGACGAGTT	Reverse primer to amplify *lip2*

774