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2 The conserved transcriptional regulator CdnL is required for metabolic

3 homeostasis and morphogenesis in *Caulobacter*

5 Selamawit Abi Woldemeskel[1], Laura Alvarez[2], Allison K. Daitch[1], Rilee Zeinert[3], Anant
6 Bhargava[1], Diego Gonzalez[4], Justine Collier[4], Peter Chien[3], Felipe Cava[2], Erin D. Goley[1]
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1: Department of Biological Chemistry, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine,
Baltimore, MD, USA
2: Department of Molecular Biology, Umeå University, Umeå, Sweden
3: Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, University of Massachusetts-Amherst,
MA, USA
4: Department of Fundamental Microbiology, Faculty of Biology and Medicine, University of
Lausanne, Switzerland
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Abstract

Bacterial growth and division require regulated synthesis of the macromolecules used to expand

and replicate components of the cell. Transcription of housekeeping genes required for metabolic

homeostasis and cell proliferation is guided by the sigma factor σ^{70}. The conserved CarD-like

transcriptional regulator, CdnL, associates with promoter regions where σ^{70} localizes and

stabilizes the open promoter complex. However, the contributions of CdnL to metabolic

homeostasis and bacterial physiology are not well understood. Here, we show that *Caulobacter*

crescentus cells lacking CdnL have severe morphological and growth defects. Specifically,

$\Delta cdnL$ cells grow slowly in both rich and defined media, and are wider, more curved, and have

shorter stalks than WT cells. $\Delta cdnL$ cells also have aberrant localization of MreB and CtpS,

cytoskeletal proteins required for maintaining proper cell width and curvature and whose

function is dependent on metabolites ATP and CTP respectively. These defects arise from

transcriptional downregulation of most major classes of biosynthetic genes, leading to significant

decreases in the levels of critical metabolites, including pyruvate, α-ketoglutarate, ATP, NAD$^+$,

UDP-N-acetyl-glucosamine, lipid II, and purine and pyrimidine precursors. Notably, we find that

$\Delta cdnL$ cells are glutamate auxotrophs, and $\Delta cdnL$ is synthetic lethal with other genetic

perturbations that limit glutamate synthesis and lipid II production. Our findings implicate CdnL

as a global regulator of genes required for metabolic homeostasis that impacts morphogenesis

through availability of lipid II and through metabolite-mediated changes in localization of

cytoskeletal regulators of cell shape.

37   Main

In order to replicate, bacterial cells must synthesize enough macromolecules to double in

size using nutrients available in their environment. These macromolecules are used to build

structural components of the cell such as the membrane and cell wall, to synthesize the multitude

of enzymes required for essential biochemical processes, and to duplicate genetic material.

Transcriptional control of housekeeping genes encoding factors that carry out these essential

functions contributes to maintaining metabolic homeostasis to support growth and development.

Transcription initiation of housekeeping genes is achieved by housekeeping sigma factors that

direct the core RNA polymerase (RNAP) to their promoter regions[1], but may be co-regulated by

other factors, including the CarD-like transcriptional regulator CdnL. CdnL is broadly conserved

in bacteria and is best-characterized in *Myxococcus xanthus* and in *Mycobacteria*[2–6]. It localizes

to promoter regions where the housekeeping sigma factor resides, directly binds to the RNAP β

subunit, stabilizes the open promoter complex, and is required for transcription from rRNA

promoters[2,3,5,7]. *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* CarD (the CdnL homolog) is essential for growth in

culture, persistence in mice, and survival during genotoxic stress and starvation[2,4]. CdnL is also

essential in *M. xanthus*, where its depletion causes cell filamentation[6]. This last observation

implies that CdnL-dependent changes in gene expression are required to support proper

morphogenesis, at least in *M. xanthus*.

Bacterial morphology is maintained by the peptidoglycan (PG) cell wall, which must be

expanded and remodeled in a regulated manner to allow growth and division. It lies just outside

the inner membrane and is a continuous, covalently-linked structure made of glycan strands

crosslinked together by peptide side chains[8]. In addition to giving the cell its stereotyped shape,

the cell wall provides physical integrity and prevents cell lysis due to turgor pressure. Different

shape features (e.g. cell length, width, or curvature) are specified by spatially and temporally

regulated synthesis and remodeling of the PG that is largely orchestrated by cytoskeletal

proteins[8,9]. Though the details of PG synthesis and remodeling and its regulation by cytoskeletal

proteins has been the subject of intense study for several decades, how PG metabolism is

regulated in coordination with nutrient availability and metabolic status of the cell is

incompletely understood.

Here, we investigate how CdnL affects metabolism, growth, and morphogenesis in the α-

proteobacterium *Caulobacter crescentus* (hereafter *Caulobacter*). *Caulobacter* undergoes

stereotyped morphological transitions as it progresses through the cell cycle and during

adaptation to a variety of stresses, making it an ideal organism to study bacterial

morphogenesis[10]. Although it is known that *Caulobacter* CdnL is not required for viability, the

consequences of its loss on *Caulobacter* physiology have not been previously characterized[11].

Here, we demonstrate that CdnL regulates transcription of biosynthetic genes required for

metabolic homeostasis that, in turn, supports proper growth, PG metabolism, and morphology in

Caulobacter.

Results

<u>Δ*cdnL* cells have growth and morphology defects</u>

We became interested in *Caulobacter* CdnL through a screen for spontaneous suppressors of a

dominant lethal mutant of the cell division protein FtsZ (called FtsZΔCTL) that causes lethal

defects in PG metabolism[12]. Specifically, one of the FtsZΔCTL suppressors we identified carried

a point mutation in *cdnL* (*CCNA_00690*) encoding an I42N missense mutation that disrupted

CdnL protein stability (Supplementary figure 1a). To examine the role of *cdnL* in *Caulobacter*

growth and morphogenesis, we deleted it in a clean genetic background and compared growth

and morphology to wild type (WT) cells. We found that Δ*cdnL* cells grew more slowly than WT

(Figure 1a) and had pleiotropic morphological defects in complex PYE medium (Figure 1b, c).

Quantitative analysis of shape differences between WT and Δ*cdnL* cells grown in PYE using

CellTool[13] revealed significant differences in two shape modes which approximately correspond

to cell curvature (shape mode 2) and cell width (shape mode 3) (Figure 1c). Specifically, we

observed that in PYE, Δ*cdnL* cells were wider and more curved than WT cells (Figure 1b, c, d).

In these shape modes, Δ*cdnL* cells were also more variable in their range of values than WT,

indicating less precise maintenance of shape in the mutant (Figure 1c). Additionally, we

observed phase-light "ghost" cells in Δ*cdnL* samples indicative of cell lysis and suggesting a lack

of integrity in the cell envelope (Figure 1b, arrows).

To further characterize the Δ*cdnL* growth and morphology phenotypes, we grew WT and

Δ*cdnL* cells in the defined media M2G or HIGG. Surprisingly, we found that M2G was unable to

support growth of cells lacking CdnL, but that Δ*cdnL* cells grew in HIGG, albeit more slowly

than WT (Figure 1a). A comparison of the components of M2G and HIGG media suggested that

the missing nutrient in M2G that is required for growth of Δ*cdnL* cells might be glutamate.

Consistent with this, addition of sodium glutamate to M2G (called M2GG with sodium

glutamate added) supported growth of ΔcdnL cells to a similar rate as in HIGG. These data

indicate that ΔcdnL cells are unable to synthesize sufficient glutamate to support growth and are

now glutamate auxotrophs (Figure 1a). No other amino acids are included in either M2G or

HIGG, suggesting a specific requirement for exogenous glutamate.

Similar to our observations with PYE, we found that ΔcdnL cells grow more slowly than

WT in M2GG or HIGG and also had aberrant shape (Figure 1a, b). ΔcdnL cells were again

hypercurved and wider than WT cells, but unlike in PYE, ΔcdnL cells were also consistently

shorter than WT in each defined medium (Figure 1b, c, d). The polar stalk is a prominent

morphological feature of *Caulobacter* cells and, like other features of cell shape, stalk biogenesis

and elongation requires PG synthesis[14]. Since we observed stereotyped shape changes in cells

lacking CdnL, we also compared stalk morphogenesis between WT and ΔcdnL cells. We found

that in phosphate replete HIGG media (containing 200 μM PO_4^-) ΔcdnL cells had short stalks

compared to WT cells (Figure 1e, f), suggesting that CdnL impacts all aspects of morphogenesis

in *Caulobacter*. Stalks elongate in response to phosphate starvation in *Caulobacter* through a

pathway that is distinct from developmentally regulated stalk morphogenesis. Interestingly,

ΔcdnL cells significantly elongated their stalks during phosphate starvation (Figure 1 e, f)

suggesting that ΔcdnL cells can still alter their morphology in response to phosphate starvation.

MreB is hyperfocused at midcell in ΔcdnL cells

In bacteria, cytoskeletal proteins spatially regulate cell wall synthesis required for shape

determination and maintenance[10]. To investigate if the shape defects that we observe in ΔcdnL

arise due to changes in levels of cytoskeletal proteins, we probed for changes in levels of MreB,

FtsZ, crescentin, and CTP synthase and found no differences in protein or transcript levels

between ΔcdnL and WT cells (Supplementary table 1 and data not shown).

Since ΔcdnL cells had significant differences in width and curvature, we focused on the

cytoskeletal proteins that determine these shape features. In bacteria, the actin homolog and

ATPase MreB is required for rod shape, width maintenance, and cell body elongation[15,16].

Additionally, MreB influences curvature of *Caulobacter* cells through its effects on the

intermediate filament-like protein, crescentin[17]. To determine if the localization of MreB is

altered in ΔcdnL, we expressed *venus-mreB* from the *xylX* promoter and visualized MreB

localization in WT or ΔcdnL cells grown in PYE, M2G, and HIGG media (Figure 2 a,b,c). In

WT cells grown in PYE, MreB has a patchy localization along the length of the cell in newborn

swarmer (G1) cells, shifts to midcell in stalked (S) and early predivisional cells, and assumes a

patchy localization in late predivisional cells[15]. Interestingly, we found that the localization of

MreB at midcell is more tightly focused in ΔcdnL cells compared to WT in all three media tested

(Figure 2a,b,c). Moreover, we found that most WT cells localize MreB along the length of the

cell when grown in HIGG media (Figure 2c). However, the localization of MreB in HIGG shifts

to mostly at midcell when *cdnL* is deleted. To better visualize the localization of MreB across

populations and throughout the cell cycle, we created demographs. In cells that have MreB

localized at midcell, we found that the localization of MreB is more tightly focused with minimal

signal outside of the midcell region (Figure 2d,e,f). To quantitatively compare the differences in

MreB localization between WT and ΔcdnL, we fit the MreB signal at midcell to an eight term

Fourier series model and calculated the full width at half max (FWHM). We found that the

FWHM at midcell is smaller in ΔcdnL cells compared to WT, consistent with what we inferred

from the images and demographs (Figure 2g,h,i).

To further characterize the link between MreB localization and loss of *cdnL,* we deleted

cdnL in backgrounds that have mutations near the ATP binding pocket of MreB. These

mutations cause MreB to localize at the poles, along the length of the cell, or at midcell

throughout the cell cycle[17]. These aberrant localizations of MreB cause changes in cell shape but

do not affect growth rate (Supplementary figure 2a,b,c). Deletion of *cdnL* in each of these

backgrounds caused severe morphological and growth defects (Supplementary figure 2a,b). The

severity of growth and shape defects was worse in mutant backgrounds that do not localize MreB

to midcell (Supplementary figure 2). Interestingly, we found that MreB V324A, which has a

patchy localization in a WT background, becomes enriched at midcell when *cdnL* is deleted and

grows similarly to mutants that localize MreB to midcell (Supplementary figure 2b,c,d,e). These

data suggest that localization of MreB at midcell is important for fitness in Δ*cdnL* cells. Since

MreB is essential for specification and maintenance of width and curvature, the mislocalization

of MreB may contribute to the width and curvature defects that we observe in Δ*cdnL.*

<u>Hypercurvature of Δ*cdnL* cells is dependent on crescentin and may involve CTP synthase</u>

In *Caulobacter,* crescentin drives the patterning of PG synthesis required for cell curvature[9,18].

To determine if hypercurvature of Δ*cdnL* cells is dependent on crescentin, we deleted *cdnL* in a

Δ*creS* background. We observed that Δ*cdnL*Δ*creS* cells are straight, indicating that

hypercurvature is dependent on crescentin (Figure 3a,b). In addition to crescentin, curvature is

influenced by the metabolic enzyme CTP synthase (CtpS), which forms filaments near crescentin

when CTP is abundant and negatively regulates curvature in a crescentin-dependent manner[19,20].

Since we observed that Δ*cdnL* cells are hypercurved, we hypothesized that the hypercurvature of

Δ*cdnL* may arise due to fewer CtpS filaments. Thus, we expressed *mcherry-ctpS* from the

xylose-inducible promoter in WT or Δ*cdnL* cells and visualized localization of CtpS filaments

and found that Δ*cdnL* cells form fainter CtpS filaments compared to WT (Supplementary figure

3). Additionally, demograph analysis of mCherry-CtpS localization indicated that mCherry-CtpS

forms less robust filaments and has more dispersed signal in Δ*cdnL* cells grown in PYE or

M2GG compared to WT (Figure 3c, Supplementary figure 3). Thus, our data suggest that

formation of fewer CtpS filaments in Δ*cdnL* cells may lead to the hypercurvature phenotype that

we observe.

<u>Genes involved in biosynthetic processes are downregulated in Δ*cdnL*</u>

Having established that the transcriptional regulator CdnL plays a role in growth and

morphogenesis and influences the localization of morphogenetic proteins, we next sought to

understand how it exerts these effects. To identify genes that are misregulated in Δ*cdnL* that may

be responsible for the growth and morphology defects that we observe, we extracted mRNA from

WT and Δ*cdnL* cells and performed RNA-Seq. The results from this analysis showed that

approximately 30% of the transcriptome is misregulated in cells lacking CdnL (Supplementary

table 1). A closer look at genes that are downregulated in the Δ*cdnL* clone that we used for RNA-

seq analysis suggested that a 50 kbp region comprising 51 genes between CCNA_02773 and

CCNA_02826 was highly downregulated in Δ*cdnL*. This region is flanked by identical sequences

that encode transposases CCNA_02772 and CCNA_02828, suggesting that this region may be

deleted in the Δ*cdnL* clone (EG1415) used in our RNA-seq analysis. Indeed, deletion of this region

was confirmed by PCR. However, we found no differences in growth or morphology between the

Δ*cdnL* clone with the 50 kbp deletion (EG1415, Δ50kbp) and Δ*cdnL* clones containing this region

(e.g. EG1447), indicating that this region does not contribute significantly to the growth and shape

defects that we observe (Supplementary figure 1b, c). Previously, this region of the chromosome

was shown to be readily lost in a background lacking the methyltransferase *ccrM*[21]. Similar to our

observations with Δ*cdnL*, loss of this region in Δ*ccrM* did not yield any specific growth

advantages. To ensure that loss of this region did not impact our analysis of the transcriptional

consequences specific to deleting *cdnL*, we analyzed the transcriptome of an independent Δ*cdnL*

clone that has the 50 kbp region intact (JC784) by microarray analysis (Supplementary table 1).

We found significant overlap between our RNA-Seq dataset using EG1415 and microarray dataset

using JC784 (Supplementary figure 1d, e, f, g). We generally used the intersection of our two

datasets (RNA-Seq of EG1415 and microarray of JC784) as a conservative and rigorous

representation of the consequences of deleting *cdnL* on the *Caulobacter* transcriptome.

201   To obtain an overview of how loss of CdnL affects the transcriptome we used DAVID[22]

functional annotation analysis to functionally categorize genes that had at least a two-fold change

in transcript abundance in Δ*cdnL* in both the RNA-Seq and microarray datasets (Supplementary

table 2). Of the genes that are downregulated in Δ*cdnL*, we found an overrepresentation of genes

involved in biosynthetic and bioenergetic pathways including amino acid, nucleotide, fatty acid,

lipid, cell wall, cell membrane, and central carbon metabolism. Genes that are over 2-fold

upregulated in Δ*cdnL* clustered into categories involved in transcription, transport, and motility.

<u>Δ*cdnL* cells have reduced levels of central carbon and TCA metabolites required for synthesizing</u>

<u>macromolecules critical for growth</u>

Since our transcriptome analysis revealed downregulation of pathways involved in

macromolecular biosynthesis, we hypothesized that Δ*cdnL* cells may have limited amounts of

substrates available for proliferative processes. To identify how the metabolome changes when

cdnL is deleted, we extracted metabolites from WT and Δ*cdnL* cells grown in PYE, M2GG,

M2G (grown in M2GG, washed and grown in M2G for 12 hours) or HIGG media or CdnL-

depleted cells grown in PYE and performed LC/MS analysis of polar metabolites. Consistent

with what we inferred from our transcriptomic data, we found glycolytic and tricarboxylic acid

(TCA) intermediates, amino acids, nucleotides, and their derivatives to be significantly altered,

suggesting that central carbon metabolism and carbohydrate utilization is reduced in cells lacking

CdnL (Figure 4, Supplementary table 3 & Supplementary figure 4). Specifically, we found

biosynthetic precursors and cofactors such as pyruvate, NAD^+, ATP, and UDP-N-acetyl

glucosamine are significantly reduced in Δ*cdnL* cells while D-xylose, uric acid, the TCA

intermediates fumarate and malate, the pyrimidine and amino acid precursor dihydroorotate, the

leucine synthesis intermediate 2-isopropylmalic acid, and the storage molecule 3-hydroxybutyric

acid are significantly higher in Δ*cdnL* across all conditions compared to WT (Figure 4,

Supplementary table 3 & Supplementary figure 4). The presence of higher uric acid across all

media suggests that Δ*cdnL* cells are preferentially catabolizing amino acids rather than

carbohydrates as a carbon source.

Since we performed our transcriptomics analysis in PYE, we compared our RNA-Seq

data to our PYE metabolome dataset. In *Caulobacter*, glucose is metabolized to yield substrates

that feed into the TCA cycle via the Entner-Doudoroff pathway[23,24]. Since intermediates in and

products of this glycolytic pathway are reduced in Δ*cdnL*, we looked at our transcriptomic data

to see if the levels of transcripts encoding any of the enzymes in this pathway are changed. We

found that *CCNA_01562* and *CCNA_01560* are significantly downregulated suggesting that

disruption in flux through the Entner-Doudoroff pathway may, indeed, lead to low levels of

pyruvate and phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP) (Figure 4b, Supplementary table 1). WT *Caulobacter*

can synthesize all amino acids *de novo* using TCA cycle intermediates[23]. During growth in media

without amino acids, *Caulobacter* cells can convert PEP to oxaloacetate to replenish TCA

intermediates[23]. We found that *CCNA_01560*, which converts PEP to oxaloacetate, is also highly

downregulated in Δ*cdnL*. Thus, our observations of low α-ketoglutarate levels and glutamate

auxotrophy may arise due to reduced flux of pyruvate and PEP into the TCA cycle (Figure 4).

Interestingly, D-xylose levels were elevated in Δ*cdnL* cells in all media tested, although xylose

was not provided exogenously. Conversely, genes required to metabolize xylose are

downregulated in Δ*cdnL*. Previously, xylose accumulation without an ability to metabolize

xylose has been shown to upregulate isocitrate lyase (*CCNA_01841*) and initiate the glyoxylate

bypass which promotes conversion of isocitrate to succinate, bypassing key TCA cycle

intermediates such as α-ketoglutarate.[23,25] Additionally, upregulation of malate synthase

(*CCNA_01843*) combines glyoxylate produced by isocitrate lyase to acetyl-coenzyme A to

produce malate, allowing a modified TCA cycle to continue.[23] Consistently, we find that

CCNA_01841 and *CCNA_01843* are over four-fold and two-fold upregulated in Δ*cdnL*,

respectively (Supplementary table 1), suggesting low levels of α-ketoglutarate may arise due to

activation of the glyoxyate bypass in addition to low levels of pyruvate and PEP. Since α-

ketoglutarate is used to synthesize glutamate (Figure 4b), the glutamate auxotrophy of Δ*cdnL*

cells may arise due to low amounts α-ketoglutarate produced by the TCA cycle. Additionally,

we found that *gdhA* and *gltB*, genes essential for glutamate biosynthesis from α-ketoglutarate or

glutamine, are over 4-fold downregulated in our transcriptomic analysis (Figure 5a,

Supplementary table 1). Collectively, our data indicate that changes in the transcriptome that

arise when *cdnL* is deleted have detrimental consequences on metabolic pathways disrupting

levels of key metabolites required for energy production and amino acid and nucleotide

biosynthesis.

<u>Δ*cdnL* cells have low levels of the cell wall precursor and changes in cell wall crosslinking</u>

Our metabolomics analysis showed that UDP-N-acetylglucosamine and PEP, substrates required

for synthesis of the PG precursor lipid II, are significantly lower in Δ*cdnL* compared to WT

(Figure 4). Additionally, our transcriptomic analysis indicated that genes required for lipid II

biosynthesis are highly downregulated (Figure 5a) leading us to postulate that PG material

maybe limiting in Δ*cdnL* cells. Since PG synthesis is required for both cell shape maintenance

and cell envelope integrity, changes in abundance of lipid II might underlie the shape and cell

lysis phenotypes observed for Δ*cdnL* cells. We directly compared lipid II levels in WT and

Δ*cdnL* cells and found that Δ*cdnL* cells have a striking 45% reduction in lipid II levels as

compared to WT (Figure 5b).

To assess if CdnL-mediated changes in transcription result in alterations to PG metabolic

activities in addition to lipid II synthesis, we performed muropeptide analysis on PG isolated

from WT and Δ*cdnL* cells to identify changes in PG chemistry. Consistent with low levels of

lipid II, Δ*cdnL* cells have 23% less PG polymer than WT (Figure 5c). Although overall PG

crosslinking is unaffected, Δ*cdnL* cells had significantly more dimers and fewer trimers (higher

order crosslinks) than WT (Figure 5d, Supplementary Figure 5). The mutant also shows an

increased chain length, as the relative amount of anhydro muropeptides (glycan chain termini)

were significantly reduced in Δ*cdnL* cells (Figure 5d, Supplementary Figure 5). Moreover,

Δ*cdnL* cells had more pentapeptides and glycine-containing muropeptides compared to WT

(Figure 5d, Supplementary Figure 5). Thus, the shape and envelope integrity defects observed in

Δ*cdnL* cells may arise, at least in part, from a combination of low levels of lipid II and significant

changes in the chemical structure of the cell wall.

<u>Pathways impacting PG metabolism become essential in Δ*cdnL*</u>

To gain insight into which transcriptional and metabolic changes in Δ*cdnL* may be most relevant

to fitness*,* we performed comparative transposon sequencing (Tn-Seq) on WT and Δ*cdnL* strains.

Consistent with morphological defects and low amounts of lipid II observed for Δ*cdnL* cells, we

found several normally non-essential genes involved in pathways that interact with PG synthesis

could not be disrupted in the Δ*cdnL* background (Figure 6a, Supplementary table 4).

Specifically, we identified genes involved in glutamate metabolism, PG metabolism, PG

recycling, and capsule synthesis in which we recovered far fewer transposon insertions in the

Δ*cdnL* background than in WT (Figure 6a,b, Supplementary table 4). Of the genes involved in

glutamate metabolism, GdhZ and MurI become essential in Δ*cdnL*. Each of these proteins link

glutamate metabolism to morphogenesis: MurI by making D-Glu for lipid II synthesis and GdhZ

via its effects on the morphogenetic protein FtsZ[26,27].

Our Tn-Seq analysis also indicated that *ampG (CCNA_00136)* and *ampD*

(*CCNA_02650*), genes required for PG recycling, become essential in Δ*cdnL* (Figure 6b,

Supplementary table 4). AmpG is a permease that allows transport of cell wall material from the

periplasm to the cytoplasm and AmpD degrades transported cell wall material to provide

building blocks for lipid II synthesis[28]. We attempted to delete *cdnL* in a Δ*ampG* background, but

were unable to obtain clones with deletions in both *ampG* and *cdnL*, supporting the genetic

interaction suggested from the Tn-Seq. Since lipid II levels are low in Δ*cdnL*, the cell apparently

relies on pathways that allow for recycling of the existing cell wall material for survival.

In addition to PG metabolic genes, we found putative synthetic lethal interactions

between capsule (exopolysaccharide) biosynthetic genes and *cdnL* (Figure 6a,b, Supplementary

table 4). During capsule synthesis, saccharide precursors are synthesized on the lipid anchor

undecaprenyl phosphate (Und-P) in the cytoplasm, flipped to the periplasmic space, and

assembled into a polysaccharide that is exported to the outer surface of the cell[29]. Thus, PG

synthesis and capsule synthesis each use Und-P as a lipid carrier for synthesis and export into the

periplasmic space. Previous work in *Escherichia coli* and *Bacillus subtilis* has shown that

disruption of pathways that use Und-P can lead to Und-P sequestration and cause severe growth

and morphological defects by inhibiting lipid II synthesis[30–32]. Similarly, we propose that

disrupting the capsule biosynthesis pathway in *Caulobacter* may sequester Und-P in dead-end

intermediates, limiting lipid II synthesis. We attempted to delete each of the capsule genes

predicted by Tn-Seq to genetically interact with *cdnL* in Δ*cdnL* cells. We were unsuccessful with

the exception of *CCNA_00164*, which encodes a putative O-antigen polymerase ligase and which

had the weakest predicted genetic interaction with *cdnL* of the capsule genes (Figure 6a, b and

Supplementary table 4). Nevertheless, deletion of both *cdnL* and *CCNA_00164* resulted in cells

with morphological defects that are more severe than Δ*cdnL* alone (Figure 6d). Moreover, these

double mutant cells grew more slowly than Δ*cdnL* (Figure 6c). Deletion of *CCNA_00164* by

itself had no obvious effect on growth or morphology. Our data support the model that mutations

in the capsule biosynthesis pathway sequester Und-P and limit its availability for lipid II

synthesis, exacerbating the existing lipid II deficiency of Δ*cdnL* cells to a lethal level.

Collectively, our transcriptomic data, biochemical analyses, and genetic interaction results

indicate that CdnL is required to maintain adequate availability of the PG precursor lipid II to

support normal growth and morphology.

<u>Discussion</u>

In this work, we unveil a new role for the conserved, global transcriptional regulator

CdnL in mediating transcription of biosynthetic genes required for metabolic homeostasis in

Caulobacter. We show that in Δ*cdnL* cells, transcription of many classes of biosynthetic genes is

downregulated, with physiologically critical defects in glutamate and lipid II metabolism, in

particular. These changes in metabolic pools affect growth and morphology directly by limiting

macromolecules required for cell growth and envelope expansion, and indirectly by influencing

morphogenetic proteins. Downregulation of genes involved in biosynthetic and bioenergetics

pathways in Δ*cdnL* cells, an altered metabolic landscape in Δ*cdnL*, and the reliance of Δ*cdnL*

cells on exogenous glutamate, which is a central node in multiple biosynthetic pathways,

establish CdnL as a global regulator of genes required for central metabolism and

macromolecular synthesis[33,34].

Previously, CdnL has been shown to directly bind to RNAP and stabilize the open

promoter complex required for transcription of rRNA promoters in *Mycobacteria* and *M.*

xanthus[3,5]. Similarly, *Caulobacter* CdnL has been shown to bind RNAP and regulate

transcription from an rRNA promoter[11]. Here, we demonstrate that loss of CdnL has global

effects on various aspects of bacterial metabolism. Interestingly, however, transcriptomic

changes that occur during loss of CdnL in *Caulobacter* are, in many aspects, the opposite of what

is observed in *Mycobacterium smegmatis*. CarD depletion in *M. smegmatis* leads to upregulation

of genes encoding the translation machinery and enzymes in metabolic pathways such as amino

acid biosynthesis and to downregulation of genes involved in degradation of amino acids, fatty

acid metabolism and membrane proteins[2]. Although loss of CdnL generally has opposite effects

on expression of metabolic genes in these two divergent bacteria, CdnL-mediated effects on the

transcriptome impact proliferative and metabolic processes and are thereby essential for proper

growth in *Caulobacter* and viability in *Mycobacteria*.

In *Caulobacter*, loss of CdnL causes aberrant morphogenesis, at least in part, by limiting

production of lipid II. The effects of *cdnL* deletion are in some ways reminiscent of loss of the

master regulator and RNA chaperone Hfq in *Caulobacter*[35]. Deletion of *hfq* alters the levels of

several metabolites, including glutamate and components of the TCA cycle. Importantly, this

includes accumulation of α-ketoglutarate which, in turn, causes reduced synthesis of lipid II and

pleiotropic cell shape defects[35]. Though both Hfq and CdnL are required to maintain sufficiently

high levels of lipid II to support growth and stereotyped cell shape, CdnL has a distinct shape

phenotype, likely mediated by additional impacts on MreB and CtpS.

In recent years, a growing number of factors have been described that link the metabolic

status of the cell to morphology through cytoskeletal proteins [8,34,36]. The best-studied examples

of this employ moonlighting functions of metabolic enzymes to couple metabolism to

morphology. For example, the glucosyltransferases UgtP and OpgH in *B. subtilis* and *E. coli,*

respectively, alter FtsZ dynamics and affect cell size in a UDP-glucose dependent manner[37,38].

Similarly, in *Caulobacter* GdhZ and KidO alter FtsZ assembly in a glutamate-dependent manner,

coupling metabolism to cell division[26,39]. In the case of CdnL, its impact on the localization of

the cytoskeletal proteins MreB and CtpS may be metabolite-mediated rather than protein-

mediated. Polymerization of CtpS into filaments that negatively regulate cell curvature is

dependent on CTP, which is predicted to be present in low amounts in Δ*cdnL* cells by both our

transcriptomic and metabolomic analyses (Fig. 4a and Supplementary table 1). It is unclear how

MreB localization is regulated in *Caulobacter*, though it appears to be linked to its ATP-

dependent polymerization cycle[17] and may involve cell wall precursors. Thus, we propose that

374 the disruption of metabolic homeostasis that arises from loss of CdnL impacts morphology

375 through metabolite-mediated effects on cytoskeletal proteins in addition to reduced levels of lipid

376 II.

377  Interestingly, depletion of CdnL in *M. xanthus* results in cell filamentation, consistent

378 with a conserved impact on morphogenesis[6]. The effects, if any, of CarD depletion in

379 *Mycobacteria* on cell morphology have not been reported, nor have the effects of CdnL depletion

380 on the *M. xanthus* transcriptome or metabolome. Future work in diverse organisms will reveal if

381 the role of CdnL as a global regulator of both morphogenesis and metabolism is conserved

382 across bacteria.

Methods

Bacterial strains, plasmids, growth conditions

Caulobacter crescentus NA1000 strains were grown in peptone yeast extract medium (PYE) ,

M2G[40], M2GG (M2G with 0.15% sodium glutamate), or Hutner base imidazole-buffered glucose

glutamate medium (HIGG)[41]. Xylose was used at 0.3% for induction experiments. EG1415 and

JC874 were used for RNA-Seq and microarray experiments, respectively. All other experiments

with Δ*cdnL* were performed using EG1447 (clean, in-frame deletion of *cdnL*) or EG1898 (*cdnL*

coding sequence replaced with *aacC1,* conferring gentamicin resistance) or derivatives thereof.

JC874, EG1447, and EG1898 contain the 50 kb region that is deleted in EG1415. Growth curves

were performed at 30 °C in a Tecan Infinite M200 Pro plate reader, 100 µL culture volume, with

each strain monitored in biological triplicate at OD_{600} every 30 min with intermittent shaking.

Antibiotics for growing *Caulobacter* and cloning and *E. coli* were used at concentrations in

liquid (solid) media as described in Woldemeskel *et al* 2017[42]. *C. crescentus*: kanamycin 5 (25)

µg/mL, gentamicin 1 (5) µg/mL. *E. coli:* ampicillin 50 (100) µg/mL, kanamycin 30 (50) µg/mL,

gentamicin 15 (20) µg/mL, and spectinomycin 50 (50) µg/mL.

Phase contrast, ensemble fluorescence microscopy and image analysis

Cells in exponential phase of growth were spotted on 1% agarose pads and imaged using a Nikon

Eclipse Ti inverted microscope equipped with a Nikon Plan Fluor 100X (NA1.30) oil Ph3

objective and Photometrics CoolSNAP HQ[2] cooled CCD camera. Chroma filter cubes ET-EYFP

and ET-dsRED were used for Venus and mCherry, respectively. Images were processed using

Adobe Photoshop and demographs were made using Oufti[43]. Principal component analysis to

identify shape variations were performed using CellTool[13] after phase contrast images were

converted to binary masks in ImageJ[44] and edited in Adobe Photoshop to remove overlapping

cells. Full-width at half-maximum (FWHM) calculations of midcell MreB signal from Oufti[43]

output were performed using a custom MATLAB script which fit the normalized signal output

from Oufti[43] into an eighth term Fourier series model. Cells for which the fit had adjusted R

square value greater than 0.85 were chosen for FWHM calculation. Cells that have midcell

localized MreB were selected for FWHM determination based on cell length bins guided by

demographs.

Immunoblotting to assess CdnL levels

His$_6$-SUMO-CdnL was overproduced in Rosetta (DE3) pLysS *E.coli* cells from pEG1129 by

inducing for 3 h at 30 °C with 0.5 mM IPTG at OD$_{600}$ of 0.5. Cells were harvested by

centrifugation, resuspended in lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 300 mM KCl, 20 mM

imidazole, and 10% glycerol), lysed with 1 mg/mL lysozyme, sonicated and centrifuged at 4 °C

for 30 min at 15000 x g. Supernatant was loaded onto a HisTrap FF 1 mL column (GE Life

Sciences) and eluted with lysis buffer with 300 mM imidazole, cleaved with His$_6$-Ulp1 (SUMO

protease) at 1:500 (protease: fusion) molar ratio overnight while dialyzing into lysis buffer.

Sample was reloaded onto HisTrap FF 1mL and flow through collected to separate His$_6$-SUMO

and His$_6$-Ulp1 from CdnL. CdnL fraction was dialyzed into PBS prior to antibody production.

Cells in log phase were isolated and lysed in SDS-PAGE loading buffer by boiling for 5 min.

Standard procedures were used for SDS-PAGE and transfer to nitrocellulose membrane. CdnL

antisera was generated by immunizing a rabbit with CdnL purified as above (Pocono Rabbit

Farm & Laboratory). Specificity was determined using cell lysates with deleted or overexpressed

cdnL. CdnL antisera was used at 1:5000.

RNA-Seq preparation

Cultures of three independent colonies of WT (EG865) and Δ*cdnL* (EG1415, Δ50kb) cells were

grown in PYE and harvested at OD$_{600}$ of 0.45 and total RNA was extracted using PureLink RNA

Mini Kit from Thermo Fisher using the protocol provided with the kit. Briefly, cells were

harvested, lysed, and homogenized using lysozyme, SDS, provided Lysis buffer, and homogenizer.

Nucleic acids were extracted with ethanol and loaded onto the provided spin cartridge. DNA-free

total RNA was extracted using the on-column PureLink DNAse Treatment protocol. PureLink

DNAse mixture was directly added on to the spin cartridge membrane, incubated for 15 min and

washed using provided wash buffers and RNA was eluted with RNAse-free water. Finally, RNA

quality was quantified using a bioanalyzer and rRNA was removed using the Ribo-Zero rRNA

Removal Kit (Gram-Negative Bacteria). RNA-Seq libraries were prepared using the Illumina

TruSeq stranded RNA kit and sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq 2500. Data analysis was performed

using the Illumina's CASAVA 1.8.2, Bowtie2 (v 2.2.5), and Bioconductor's DESeq package.

rRNA clean up, quality control analysis, library prep, sequencing and analysis was performed by

the Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine Next Generation Sequencing Center.

Microarray preparations

Biological triplicates of WT (JC450) and Δ*cdnL* (JC784) cultures grown in PYE were harvested

at OD$_{660}$ of 0.3. RNA was extracted with Trizol, purified using Ambion PureLink RNA mini-kit

according to manufacturer's protocol. Double stranded cDNA was prepared with Roche Double

Stranded cDNA synthesis kit. Microarray analysis was performed on Nimblegen custom chips

following the manufacturer's protocol for labeling, hybridization on 4-plex chips, and washing.

Scanning was performed with Agilent microarray scanner at 3 μm and normalization was

performed with Nimblescan implemented RMA algorithm (3 x 4-plex chips in total, all samples

from the same culture conditions). The statistical analysis of significance was performed with R

using the Significance of Analysis of Microarrays (SAM) method implemented in the library

siggenes.[45]

DAVID analysis and functional clustering

Genes with a two-fold change in transcript levels in both RNA-Seq and microarray analysis were

functionally categorized using DAVID[22] with a medium classification stringency and default

parameters.

Transposon library preparation, sequencing, and analysis

Two Tn-Seq libraries each were generated for WT (EG865) and Δ*cdnL* (EG1447). 1L PYE

cultures were harvested at OD_{600} of 0.4-0.6, washed 5 times with 10% glycerol, and

electroporated with the Ez-Tn5 <Kan-2> transposome (Epicentre). Cells were recovered for 90

minutes at 30 °C with shaking, and plated on PYE-Kan plates. WT libraries were grown for 5

and 6 days and Δ*cdnL* libraries were grown for 6 and 10 days. Colonies were scraped off plates,

combined, resuspended to form a homogeneous solution in PYE, and flash frozen in 20%

glycerol. Genomic DNA for each library was extracted from an aliquot using the DNeasy Blood

and Tissue Kit (Qiagen). Libraries were then prepared for Illumina Next-Generation sequencing

through sequential PCR reactions. The first PCR round used arbitrary hexamer primers with a

Tn5 specific primer going outward. The second round used indexing primers with unique

identifiers to filter artifacts arising from PCR duplicates. Indexed libraries were pooled and

sequenced at the University of Massachusetts Amherst Genomics Core Facility on the NextSeq

550 (Illumina).

Sequencing reads were first demultiplexed by index, each library was concatenated and clipped

of the molecular modifier added in the second PCR using Je[46]:

java -jar /je_1.2/je_1.2_bundle.jar clip F1=compiled.gz LEN=6

Reads were then mapped back to the *Caulobacter crescentus* NA1000 genome (NCBI Reference

Sequence: NC_011916.1) using BWA[47] and sorted using Samtools[48]:

bwa mem -t2 clipped.gz | samtools sort -@2 - > sorted.bam

Duplicates were removed using Je[46] and indexed with Samtools[48] using the following command:

java -jar /je_1.2/je_1.2_bundle.jar markdupes I=sorted.bam O=marked.bam M=METRICS.txt

MM=0 REMOVE_DUPLICATES=TRUE

samtools index marked.bam

The 5' insertion site of each transposon were converted into .wig files comprising of counts per

position and visualized using Integrative Genomics Viewer (IGV)[49,50]. Specific hits for each

library were determined with coverage and insertion frequency using a bedfile containing all

open reading frames from NC_011916.1 and the outer 20% of each removed to yield a clean and

thorough insertion profile. This was determined using BEDTools[51,52] and the following

commands:

bedtools genomecov -5 -bg marked.bam > marked.bed

bedtools map -a NA1000.txt -b marked.bed -c 4 > output.txt

Library comparisons were performed using the edgeR package in the Bioconductor suite using a

quasi-likelihood F-test (glmQLFit) to determine the false discovery rate adjusted p-values

reported here.

Lipid II extraction and analysis

Precursor extraction was performed as described previously and performed in triplicates[53].

Briefly, 500 mL of WT and $\Delta cdnL$ were grown in PYE to OD_{600} of 0.45. Cells were harvested,

resuspended in 5 mL PBS and poured into 50 mL flasks containing 20 mL $CHCl_3$:Methanol

(1:2). The mixture was stirred for 1 h at room temperature and centrifuged for 10 min at 4000 x g

at 4 °C. The supernatant was transferred to clean 250 mL flasks containing 12 mL $CHCl_3$ and 9

mL PBS, stirred for 1 h at room temperature and centrifuged for 10 min at 4000 x g at 4 °C. The

interface fraction (between the top aqueous and bottom organic layers) was collected and

vacuum dried. To remove lipid tail, samples were resuspended in 100 μL DMSO and 800 μL

H_2O, 100 μL ammonium acetate 100 mM pH 4.2 were added. This mixture was boiled for 30

min, dried in vacuum and resuspended in 300 μL H_2O. Samples were analyzed by UPLC

chromatography coupled to MS/MS analysis, using a Xevo G2- XS QTof system (Waters

Corporation, USA). The separation method used is identical to the one used for muropeptide

separation explained below. A library of compounds was used to target the identification of

peptidoglycan precursors and possible intermediates, although only lipid II (lipid II-penta) was

detected in these samples. Lipid II amounts were calculated based on the integration of the peaks

(total area), normalized to the culture OD.

Peptidoglycan (PG) purification and analysis

PG samples were analyzed as described previously[54,55]. Briefly, 50 mL of WT and Δ*cdnL* cells

were grown to an OD_{600} of 0.5 in PYE, harvested, and boiled in 5% SDS for 2 h. Sacculi were

repeatedly washed with MilliQ water by ultracentrifugation (110,000 rpm, 10 min, 20 °C) until

total removal of the detergent and finally treated with muramidase (100 μg/mL) for 16 hours at

37 °C. Muramidase digestion was stopped by boiling and coagulated proteins were removed by

centrifugation (10 min, 14,000 rpm). For sample reduction, the pH of the supernatants was

adjusted to pH 8.5-9.0 with sodium borate buffer and sodium borohydride was added to a final

concentration of 10 mg/mL. After incubating for 30 min at room temperature, pH was adjusted

to 3.5 with orthophosphoric acid.

UPLC analyses of muropeptides were performed on a Waters UPLC system (Waters

Corporation, USA) equipped with an ACQUITY UPLC BEH C18 Column, 130Å, 1.7 μm, 2.1

mm X 150 mm (Waters, USA) and a dual wavelength absorbance detector. Elution of

muropeptides was detected at 204 nm. Muropeptides were separated at 45 °C using a linear

gradient from buffer A (formic acid 0.1% in water) to buffer B (formic acid 0.1% in acetonitrile)

in an 18-minute run, with a 0.25 mL/min flow. Relative total PG amounts were calculated by

comparison of the total intensities of the chromatograms (total area) from three biological

replicates normalized to the same OD_{600} and extracted with the same volumes. Muropeptide

identity was confirmed by MS/MS analysis, using a Xevo G2-XS QTof system (Waters

Corporation, USA). Quantification of muropeptides was based on their relative abundances

(relative area of the corresponding peak) normalized to their molar ratio.

Metabolomics sample preparation and analysis

4 mL of each strain was grown to an OD_{600} of 0.3 and filtered through 0.22 μm nylon filters

(Millipore GNWP04700). The filter was placed upside down in a 60 mm dish containing 1.2 mL

pre-chilled quenching solution (40:40:20 Acetonitrile:methanol:H_2O + 0.5% formic acid) and

incubated at -20 °C for 15 minutes. Cells were washed off the filter by pipetting the quenching

solution over the filter, transferred to chilled bead beating tubes containing 50 mg of 0.1 mm

glass beads and neutralized with 100 μL 1.9M NH_4HCO. Cells were lysed on a beat beater using

a Qiagen Tissulyzer at 30Hz for 5 minutes. Samples were spun at 4 °C for 5 min at max speed

and transferred to pre-chilled tubes to remove debris.

LC-MS analysis of cellular extract was conducted on Q Exactive PLUS Hybrid Quadrupole-

Orbitrap mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific) using hydrophilic interaction

chromatography. The Dionex UltiMate 3000 UHPLC system (Thermo Fisher Scientific) with

XBridge BEH amide column (Waters, Milford, MA) and XP VanGuard Cartridge (Waters,

Milford, MA) were used for LC separation. The LC gradient, comprising solvent A (95%:5%

H2O:acetonitrile with 20 mM ammonium acetate, 20 mM ammonium hydroxide, pH 9.4) and

solvent B (20%:80% H2O:acetonitrile with 20 mM ammonium acetate, 20 mM ammonium

hydroxide, pH 9.4), corresponded with the following solvent B percentages over time: 0 min,

100%: 3 min, 100%; 3.2 min, 90%; 6.2 min, 90%; 6.5 min, 80%; 10.5 min, 80%; 10.7 min, 70%;

13.5 min, 70%; 13.7 min, 45%; 16 min, 45%; 16.5 min, 100%. Chromatography flow rate was at

300 µL/min and injection volume 5 µL. Column temperature was maintained at 25 °C. MS scans

were set to negative ion mode with a resolution of 70,000 at m/z 200, in addition to an automatic

gain control target of 3 x 10^6 and scan range of 72 to 1000. Metabolite data was obtained using

the MAVEN software package[56].

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Author contributions

SAW and EDG conceived the study. SAW, LA, RZ, DG, JC, PC, FC, and EDG designed the

experiments. SAW performed the majority of experiments and analysis, except as noted. LA

performed muropeptide analysis and lipid II quantification. SAW, AKD, RZ, and PC performed

and/or analyzed Tn-Seq experiments. AB wrote custom software to analyze MreB distribution.

DG performed and analyzed microarray experiments. EDG purified CdnL, generated strains, and

performed CellTool analysis of shape. JC, PC, FC, and EDG supervised the research. SAW and

EDG wrote the manuscript with support and editing from all authors.

Figure and Legends

Figure 1: Cells lacking CdnL have pleiotropic morphological and growth defects. a. Growth

of WT (EG865) and Δ*cdnL* (EG1447) cells in the indicated media. **b.** Phase contrast images of

WT and Δ*cdnL* cells grown in the indicated media. Arrows indicate ghost cells. Bar = 2 μm. **c.**

PCA of cell shape for WT and Δ*cdnL* shown in **b.** Scatter plots of shape modes 1, 2 and 3

approximately correspond to length, curvature and width. Contours on the left of scatter plots

indicate mean cell shape and standard deviations (s.d) from the mean. **d.** Mean shapes of WT and

Δ*cdnL* cells grown in the indicated media. **e.** Membrane staining of WT (EG865) and Δ*cdnL*

(EG1447) cells with FM4-64 after growth in HIGG media with and without phosphate. **f.** Stalk

lengths measured using ImageJ's[44] line tool. Mean and SEM included for plots in **c.** and **f.**

Statistical analysis in **c.** and **f.** performed using one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's Multiple

Comparison Test, n = 500 for each in **c.** n = 150, 127, 168, 155, 162, 172 from left to right in **e.**

*** = $p < 0.001$, * = $p < 0.05$, ns = not significant.

Figure 2: MreB localization is aberrant in Δ*cdnL* cells. a, b & c. Merged phase contrast (blue)

and fluorescence (yellow) images of WT (EG1795) and Δ*cdnL* cells (EG2465) expressing *venus-*

mreB for 2 hrs from the *xylX* promoter in the indicated media. Bar = 2 μm. **d, e & f.** Demographs

of images shown in **a, b &c.** n = 850 cells for each. **g, h & i.** Scatter plots of full width at half

maximum (FWHM) values of midcell-localized MreB. Cell length range used for FWHM

calculation of midcell-localized MreB was determined from demographs shown in **d-f**. For PYE,

WT and Δ*cdnL*, cells 2 – 3 μm long have MreB localized at midcell and were selected for

FWHM calculations. For M2GG, WT and Δ*cdnL* cells between lengths of 3 – 3.75 μm and 2 – 3

μm, respectively, were selected for FWHM calculations. For HIGG, WT and Δ*cdnL* cells

between lengths of 3 – 3.5 μm and 2 – 3 μm, respectively, were selected for FWHM

calculations. Statistical analysis performed using unpaired t test. *** = p < 0.001. n = 140 each

for PYE and HIGG and n = 383 each for M2GG.

Figure 3: Hypercurvature of Δ*cdnL* cells is dependent on crescentin and may involve CTP

synthase. a. Phase contrast images of WT (EG865), Δ*creS* (EG1903), Δ*cdnL::gentR* (EG1898)

and Δ*creS* Δ*cdnL::gentR* (EG1912). **b.** Scatter plot depicting shape mode 2 (~curvature) from

PCA of cell shape for cells shown in **a**. Mean and SEM values are indicated. n = 447, 615, 734,

574 from left to right. Contours on the left of scatter plots indicate mean cell shape and standard

deviations (s.d) from the mean. Statistical analysis performed using one-way ANOVA with

Bonferroni's Multiple Comparison Test. *** = p < 0.001, ns = not significant. **c.** Demographs of

748   images from Supplementary Figure 3 of WT (EG1902) and ΔcdnL (EG1958) cells expressing

749   *mCherry – ctpS* from the *xylX* locus grown in indicated media. n = 400 cells for each.

Figure 4: CdnL is required for metabolic homeostasis in *Caulobacter*

a. Graph showing significantly altered metabolites (p < 0.05) in Δ*cdnL* compared to WT grown

in PYE from Supplementary table 3. **b.** Summary figure depicting changes in glucose

metabolism and TCA cycle in Δ*cdnL* cells as compared to WT. Genes and metabolites shown in

red are downregulated and in green are upregulated. Underlined metabolites are changed across

all media types, whereas those in black are unchanged. * indicates metabolites not detected. n =

3 for each strain in each condition.

Figure 5: CdnL impacts cell wall precursor synthesis and cell wall metabolism. a. Heatmap

showing changes of the indicated transcripts involved in lipid II synthesis and cell wall

remodeling in WT (EG865) and Δ*cdnL* (EG1415) using RNA-Seq. **b. & c.** Relative amount of

lipid II and peptidoglycan in WT (EG865) and Δ*cdnL* (EG1447) cells. **d.** Indicated muropeptide

species from WT (EG865) and Δ*cdnL* (EG1447). X-axis shown in **d** are (1-6 anhydro) N-acetyl

muramic acid (anhydro), Gly containing muropeptides (Gly), and pentapeptides (penta). Values

in **b, c, & d** are from three independent cultures and mean and SEM are indicated. Statistical

analysis performed using unpaired t test. *** = $p < 0.001$, ** = $p < 0.01$, * = $p < 0.05$.

Figure 6: Mutations in cell wall recycling and capsule biosynthetic genes are synthetic

lethal with ΔcdnL. a. Volcano plot representation of Tn-Seq analysis, WT/ΔcdnL. Negative

$\log_{10}$ of the false discovery rate (-log(FDR)) is plotted against $\log_2$ of the fold change in number

of unique transposon insertions in each gene in WT (EG865) vs ΔcdnL (EG1447). Genes that

become essential in the ΔcdnL background and are discussed in this study are color-coded. **b.**

Transposon insertion profile for selected genes from **a. c & d.** Growth curves and phase contrast

777   images for WT (EG865), Δ*cdnL* (EG1447), Δ*CCNA_00164* (EG2604) and *cdnL::gentR*

778   Δ*CCNA_00164* (EG2804). Bar = 2 μm.

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