A broad-host-range CRISPRi toolkit for silencing gene expression in *Burkholderia*

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Abstract

Genetic tools are critical to dissecting the mechanisms governing cellular processes, from fundamental physiology to pathogenesis. Members of the genus *Burkholderia* have potential for biotechnological applications but can also cause disease in humans with a debilitated immune system. The lack of suitable genetic tools to edit *Burkholderia* GC-rich genomes has hampered the exploration of useful capacities and the understanding of pathogenic features. To address this, we have developed CRISPR interference (CRISPRi) technology for gene silencing in *Burkholderia*, testing it in *B. cenocepacia*, *B. multivorans* and *B. thailandensis*. Tunable expression was provided by placing a codon-optimized *dcas9* from *Streptococcus pyogenes* under control of a rhamnose-inducible promoter. As a proof of concept, the *paaABCDE* operon controlling genes necessary for phenylacetic acid degradation was targeted by plasmid-borne sgRNAs, resulting in near complete inhibition of growth on phenylacetic acid as the sole carbon source. This was supported by reductions in *paaA* mRNA expression. The utility of CRISPRi to probe other functions at the single cell level was demonstrated by knocking down *phbC* and *fliF,* which dramatically reduces polyhydroxybutyrate granule accumulation and motility, respectively. As a hallmark of the mini-CTX system is the broad host-range of integration, we putatively identified 67 genera of Proteobacteria that might be amenable to modification with our CRISPRi toolkit. Our CRISPRi tool kit provides a simple and rapid way to silence gene expression to produce an observable phenotype. Linking genes to functions with CRISPRi will facilitate genome editing with the goal of enhancing biotechnological capabilities while reducing *Burkholderia'*s pathogenic arsenal.

Keywords

CRISPRi, *Burkholderia*, gene silencing, genetic tool

Author contributions

STC conceived the idea and design of the research; AMH designed and cloned the dCas9
constructs; AMH and ASMZ designed the sgRNAs, assessed knockdown phenotypes, processed
data, and wrote and edited the manuscript; TJL performed RT-qPCR analysis and edited the
manuscript; STC supervised the work and provided financial support.

Graphical Abstract

The genus *Burkholderia* comprises a diverse group of Gram-negative bacteria

characterized by a remarkable biotechnological potential, with species that can be exploited for

bioremediation purposes, production of bioactive compounds, and agricultural growth promotion.

Perhaps due to the phylogenetic diversity of the genus, some species of *Burkholderia* can also pose

a threat to human health [1]. Within the multiple deep-branching groups of the *Burkholderia*

phylogenetic tree [2], one branch contains the clades known as the *Burkholderia cepacia* complex

(Bcc) and the *B. pseudomallei* group. The Bcc group comprises species that cause severe infections

in people with the genetic disease cystic fibrosis and other patients with a compromised immune

system [3]. *B. cenocepacia* and *B. multivorans* are two relevant species of this group, which are

prevalent in cystic fibrosis patients [4]. The *B. pseudomallei* group contains the risk group 3 members

B. mallei, *B. pseudomallei*, and its close relative *B. thailandensis*, the last one being a frequent

surrogate used in *B. pseudomallei* and *B. mallei* research [5]. Other branches, such as the *B.*

xenovorans group comprise species isolated from diverse environmental sources, like polluted

soils, and plant rhizospheres [2]. While species with and without pathogenic potential tend to cluster

separately in most phylogenetic trees, the genetic characteristics that define the pathogenic

potential of *Burkholderia* are poorly understood. Environmental species can cause serious

infections [6], calling for caution in the use of *Burkholderia* strains for biotechnological applications.

The incomplete understanding of *Burkholderia* pathogenic potential may be related to the limited

tools available to link gene to function. Due to high resistance to the antibiotics typically used as

genetic markers [7], and the high GC content of their large genomes, most genome editing methods

designed for Gram-negative bacteria are inefficient and need to be adapted for use in *Burkholderia*.

Tools that facilitate controlled gene expression are necessary for interrogation of gene

function. Programmable control of gene expression by promoter replacement is a valuable tool to

link gene to phenotype [8]. Yet, promoter replacement implies that the natural regulatory circuitry

of the target gene is interrupted. Instead, clustered regularly interspaced short palindromic repeats

interference (CRISPRi) [9] is a method of silencing native gene expression, which is based on a dead

Cas9 (dCas9) and a nuclease-inactive version of the RNA-guided endonuclease Cas9 [10]. In

CRISPRi, a single guide RNA (sgRNA) designed towards the 5' end of the target gene and the

dCas9 protein form an RNA-protein complex that recognizes the target region by base-pairing,

and sterically blocks transcription initiation, if targeting the promoter, or elongation if targeting

downstream of the promoter, by the RNA polymerase [9]. Initially developed in *Escherichia coli*,

CRISPRi technology has been adapted to a wide range of bacterial strains to address focused

efforts such as metabolic rewiring and antimicrobial characterization [11–15], and broader efforts to

functionally characterize genomes [16–18]. To achieve fine control of gene expression, a wide range

of dCas9 expression levels are necessary, which can be provided by expressing *dcas9* with strong

inducible promoters [18] or by providing multiple copies of *dcas9* engineered in a plasmid [16].

Limitations to the success of these efforts are the proteotoxicity of dCas9 when expressed at high

levels [19] and the necessity of customizing CRISPRi delivery tools across bacteria. Recently, the

use of Tn*7* transposon mutagenesis, which specifically delivers genetic constructs close to a single

glmS site [20,21] was applied to deliver a mobile CRISPRi system across bacteria [22]. However, the

Tn*7* system is less suitable for *Burkholderia* species as their genomes contain multiple copies of

glmS, requiring additional steps to confirm the site of chromosomal integration [23].

In this work, we employ a mini-CTX-derived mutagenesis system [24] to achieve specific

chromosomal delivery of *dcas9* in three species of *Burkholderia*, *B. cenocepacia*, *B. thailandensis*

and *B. multivorans*. By placing the chromosomal copy of *dcas9* under the control of the *E. coli*

rhamnose-inducible promoter [25], we demonstrate durable and tunable control of endogenous gene

expression in *Burkholderia* species, which affects cellular function producing observable

phenotypes. We extend the usability of our CRISPRi tool kit by exploring other bacterial genomes

for putative mini-CTX insertion sites.

Results

Construction of the CRISPRi system

The dCas9 from *Streptococcus pyogenes* has been shown to provide robust gene repression

in diverse bacteria [9,18,22]; we therefore selected it as our first approach. To function, the dCas9

binds a sgRNA and, by complementary base pairing, is guided to target and silences a gene of

interest by sterically blocking the RNA polymerase [9]. However, the genome of *S. pyogenes* has

low GC-content (~40%), and from inspection of the *dcas9* gene, we expected poor codon usage in

high GC-content organisms such as *Burkholderia* (67%) and subsequently low levels of

expression. We first attempted to express the native gene from *S. pyogenes* in single copy in the

chromosome under control of the rhamnose-inducible promoter, which is known to yield robust

and tightly-regulated expression in *Burkholderia* [25]; however, we did not observe detectable levels

of dCas9 protein expression by immunoblot (Supplemental Figure 1). Upon codon optimization

for *B. cenocepacia*, we first introduced the gene into a multicopy plasmid under the control of the

rhamnose-inducible promoter [25]; however, we observed a severe growth defect upon induction,

except at minute concentrations of rhamnose (Supplemental Figure 2A). Growth inhibition was

not observed in the vector control (Supplemental Figure 2B) and it remains unclear if the inhibitory

effect of dCas9 expression on growth was caused by metabolic load from expression of a large

protein in multicopy, or from proteotoxicity [26].

A single chromosomal copy of *dcas9* may provide sufficient levels of expression as

observed previously [18,22,27]. Using the mini-CTX system, we introduced a single copy of *dcas9*

under control of the rhamnose-inducible promoter into *B. cenocepacia* K56-2 (Supplemental

Figure 3A and B). We observed titratable dCas9 expression at various levels of rhamnose by

immunoblot (Figure 1A and Supplemental Figure 4). At rhamnose concentrations up to 1% there

was no growth defect in K56-2::dCas9 (Figure 1B) or K56-2::dCas9 with non-genome targeting

sgRNA (pgRNA-non-target) (Figure 1C) compared to the vector control mutant (Figure 1D).

Tunable and durable CRISPRi silencing of paaA suppresses growth on phenylacetic acid

To evaluate the utility of the CRISPRi system for gene repression in *B. cenocepacia* K56-

2, we first chose to target the *paaA* gene, which encodes phenylacetate-CoA oxygenase subunit

PaaA [28]. This gene, and the rest of the *paaABCDE* operon, enable growth with phenylacetic acid

(PA) as a sole carbon source in *B. cenocepacia* K56-2 [29], with the lack of growth being a clearly

observable phenotype when the *paaA* gene is disrupted. In addition, as this is the first

characterization of CRISPRi in *Burkholderia*, we also wished to assess the effect on repression

efficiency when targeting the non-template (NT) and template (T) strands, as previous studies have

demonstrated profound differences [9,30]. We therefore designed five sgRNAs: three sgRNAs

targeted the promoter elements and adjacent to the transcription start site (TSS) on the NT strand

(sgRNA 1, 2 and 3), one sgRNA targeted near the start codon of *paaA* on the NT strand (sgRNA

4), and one sgRNA targeted near the start codon of *paaA* on the T strand (sgRNA 5) (Figure 2A).

For phenotypic characterization of the *paaA* mutants harbouring the codon-optimized

dcas9, we used M9 minimal medium with PA (M9+PA) as the sole carbon source. Upon induction

of dCas9, the growth of all mutants (except the controls) was suppressed approximately 30-fold

(Figure 2B) to the same level of a Δ*paaABCDE* mutant, which is unable to utilize PA as a sole

carbon source [29]. We observed only moderate repression (up to ~6-fold) when using the native

dcas9 (Supplemental Figure 5). Furthermore, in the absence of rhamnose all of the mutants grew

at or near wild-type levels, suggesting that *dcas9* expression is tightly repressed in non-inducing

conditions. Phenotypically, we did not observe a differential effect of placement of the sgRNA-

binding site, as the growth of all mutants was suppressed equally. We also found there were no

differences in control strains; mutants expressing dCas9 and either a guideless or non-targeting

sgRNA displayed the same levels of growth. However, RT-qPCR demonstrated that while growth

was suppressed equally in the mutants, there were sgRNA-dependent differences in gene

expression levels (Figure 2C). At 0.2% rhamnose, sgRNA4, targeting near the start codon of *paaA*

on the NT strand, was the most effective in repressing *paaA* mRNA expression (at least 114-fold

repression), whereas sgRNA1 and sgRNA5 only had ~63-fold and ~51-fold repression,

respectively (Figure 2C). In the absence of rhamnose there was no difference in gene expression

levels between the mutants and wild type confirming that the *dcas9* is tightly regulated in non-

inducing conditions.

Next, we sought to determine the tunability of our CRISPRi system in *Burkholderia*.

Tuning is useful to control the level of transcriptional inhibition when precision is required, such

as in the study of essential genes. To that end, we examined the growth of the dCas9 mutant of *B.*

cenocepacia K56-2 with the sgRNA1 (targeting *paaA*), using PA as a sole carbon source in the

presence of various concentrations of rhamnose. The results showed that our CRISPRi system is

tunable, exhibiting growth reduction in a dose-dependent manner with variable repression across

sub-saturating rhamnose concentrations (between 0.005% and 0.05% rhamnose) (Figure 2D). This

trend was confirmed by RT-qPCR (Supplemental Figure 6). We observed a nearly 30-fold

repression in OD_{600nm} at concentrations well below maximum induction as identified by

immunoblot, suggesting our system produces more dCas9 than is required for maximum repression

as observed by this phenotype. Contrary to what had been observed in rich medium (Figure 1B

and C), all dCas9 mutants (with or without the sgRNA) showed a growth defect in M9+PA above

0.2% rhamnose (Figure 2D). A similar phenomenon was also seen in M9+glycerol (data not

shown). Intermediate levels of growth were observed in concentrations of rhamnose between

0.005% and 0.05%. For consistency, we therefore used 0.2% rhamnose for dCas9 induction in all

experiments.

Although once rhamnose is removed from the culture, expression of dCas9 is no longer

induced, it remained possible that the dCas9 already synthesized may persist and cause long-term,

or durable, silencing. To address this, the mutant strains harbouring sgRNAs targeting *paaA,* were

grown overnight in rich medium with 0.2% rhamnose, effectively priming the cells with dCas9.

Strikingly, when grown in M9+PA with and without rhamnose, we again observed strong

repression of growth (~30-fold) in all conditions regardless of the presence of rhamnose in the

M9+PA, and at levels similar to the Δ*paaABCDE* mutant (Figure 2E). This suggests that after the

inducer is removed, dCas9 is either slowly degraded in K56-2 or is present at high enough levels

in the cells for durable repression in growth inhibiting conditions. Moreover, the lack of growth is

not simply due to a loss in cell viability, as CFU/mL of the cultures did not decrease over time

(Supplemental Figure 7). We likely observed a durable knockdown in this scenario due to the

conditional essentiality of *paaA*. Due to the strong interaction of the dCas9:sgRNA complex with

its target, repression cannot be easily relieved except by the DNA polymerase machinery (Jones

et al. 2017). When transferred to medium with PA as the sole carbon source, cell growth would

halt from lack of a carbon source, therefore ensuring *paaA* expression remained repressed.

Figure 1. Development of CRISPRi in *B. cenocepacia* K56-2. A) dCas9 was expressed from the chromosome of K56-2 under a rhamnose inducible promoter. Cells were grown to OD_{600nm} of 0.6 then induced with rhamnose for three hours. The soluble protein fraction was run on an 8% SDS gel. dCas9 was detected by an α-dCas9 antibody followed by a second antibody linked to alkaline phosphatase. The lane labelled Cas9+ was loaded with 5 ng of purified Cas9. B, C and D) Growth curves of *B. cenocepacia* K56-2::dCas9 (B), dCas9 expressed with a non-genome targeting sgRNA (dCas9/pgRNA-non target) (C) and K56-2::CTX1-rha, the vector control plasmid for the integration (D) in LB media show that expression of the chromosomally-encoded dCas9 induced with rhamnose up to 1% does not affect growth.

Figure 2. Targeting *paaA* with CRISPRi effectively suppresses growth in phenylacetic acid as the sole carbon source in *B. cenocepacia* K56-2. A) Positions of the sgRNAs targeting different regions upstream of and on *paaA*. sgRNAs 1, 2, and 3 were designed to target the promoter elements (-35 and -10 boxes) on the non-template (NT) strand. gRNA4 targeted the start codon on the NT strand and gRNA5 targeted the downstream region adjacent to the start codon on the T strand. B) CRISPRi blocks transcription in a strand non-specific manner. WT, a mutant of the *paaABCDE* operon (Δ*paaABCDE*), K56-2::CTX1-rha (-dCas9) and K56-2::dCas9 (+dCas9) harboring pgRNA with or without specific gRNAs were grown for 24 hours in minimal medium with PA (M9+PA) without (-Rha) or with 0.2% rhamnose (+Rha). C) RT-qPCR revealed a ~114-

fold reduction in paaA mRNA, demonstrating a robust knockdown of *paaA* expression in K56-2.

D) Expression of the dCas9 can be controlled by varying the amount of inducer added to the

medium, providing tunability to the CRISPRi system. However, high level induction of dCas9

with rhamnose (0.4% and beyond) was lethal for the non-genome targeting mutant

(dCas9/pgRNA-non-target) expressing dCas9. E) Cells were grown overnight in LB medium with

0.2% rhamnose to induce expression of dCas9. Then cells were transferred to M9+PA and grown

for 24 hours with (+/+ Rha) and without (+/- Rha) 0.2% rhamnose. All the values are the average

of three independent biological replicates; error bars represent arithmetic mean ± SD.

    Single-cell analysis reveals an 'all or none' effect in B. cenocepacia K56-2

While at the culture level the effect of CRISPRi is tunable, we further explored the effect

of maximum dCas9 induction at the single-cell level. We therefore targeted *fliF,* a gene encoding

a transmembrane protein that forms both the S and M rings (MS ring) of the basal body complex

of the flagellum [31]. Silencing *fliF* should result in non-flagellated cells as FliF is required for

flagellum formation [32]. We targeted *fliF* by introducing four sgRNAs designed to bind near the

putative promoter and start codon on the NT strand (Supplemental Figure 8A). Our goal was to

assess individual cell flagellation and compare it with swimming motility at the population level.

While we observed an approximately 5-fold reduction in swimming motility compared to controls

in a plate-based assay (Supplemental Figure 8B and C), we were unable to observe flagella in any

of the mutants harbouring gRNAs targeting *fliF* (Supplemental Figure 8D). It is possible that

interfering with *fliF* expression rendered fragile flagella that could not remained attached to the

cell during the staining process, while still being functional when grown in culture [33]. In contrast

to the swimming motility of the CRISPRi mutants we confirmed that insertional inactivation of

fliF (*fliF*::pAH26) completely ablates swimming motility, as seen previously [34].

To further elucidate the effect of CRISPRi at the single cell level, we targeted *phbC,* a gene

encoding poly-β-hydroxybutyrate polymerase, an enzyme required for PHB synthesis. To repress

phbC expression, we designed three sgRNAs to target the region up to 50 bp before the start codon

on the NT strand, at the putative promoter site (Figure 3A). Polyhydroxyalkanoate (PHA) granule

accumulation was assessed by fluorescence microscopy with Nile Red staining after overnight

induction with rhamnose. For comparison to a null phenotype, we created a *phbC* insertional

mutant (*phbC*::pAH27) which was unable to produce PHA granules (Figure 3B and D). Compared

to the wild-type and non-target controls, markedly few cells harbouring sgRNAs targeting *phbC*

contained PHA granules, ranging from 17-70% depending on the sgRNA (Figure 3B). sgRNA6

rendered the strongest level of repression, with only 17.1% of cells containing PHA granules in

contrast to 86.9% for the wild-type (Figure 3B). Interestingly, although few cells possessed PHA

granules, the granules were of identical size to those in wild-type cells, averaging 0.65μm in

diameter (Figure 3C and 3D). As shown by the insertional mutant, inactivation of *phbC* ablates

PHA granule accumulation; therefore, the presence of granules of the same size in the dCas9

mutants as in the wild-type suggests an 'all-or-none' effect in *B. cenocepacia* K56-2, where most

cells display the silenced phenotype, but some manage to at least temporarily escape the effect of

CRISPRi.

Broad host range of the mini-CTX system extends applicability to other species

Having shown that the *S. pyogenes* dCas9 renders strong gene repression in *B. cenocepacia*

K56-2, we next turned our attention to other important species of *Burkholderia.* We introduced the

codon-optimized *dcas9* gene into the chromosome of *B. multivorans* ATCC 17616 and targeted

the *paaA* and *phbC* genes by designing three sgRNAs for each centered around the putative

promoter (Figures 4A and C). Targeted repression of *paaA* by each of the three sgRNAs strongly

suppressed growth in M9+PA by approximately 25-fold (Figure 4B), very similar to the activity

observed in *B. cenocepacia* K56-2. However, we were unable to detect robust expression of dCas9

by immunoblot in *B. multivorans* ATCC17616 (Supplemental Figure 9A) despite the observed

phenotype being indicative of expression of dCas9 and effective gene silencing. Expression of

dCas9 in the presence of the non-targeting sgRNA did not affect growth in *B. multivorans* ATCC

17616 (Supplemental Figure 9B). Following this, targeting

Figure 3. Targeting *phbC* with CRISPRi reduces polyhydroxyalkanoate (PHA) granule accumulation in K56-2. A) Positions of the sgRNAs targeting different regions upstream of *phbC*. sgRNAs 6, 7, and 8 were designed to target the promoter elements (-35 and -10 boxes) on the non-template (NT) strand. B) CRISPRi reduces but does not completely abrogate the number of cells with PHA granules. WT, an insertional mutant of the *phbC* gene (*phbC::*pAH27), K56-2::CTX1-rha (-dCas9) and K56-2::dCas9 (+dCas9) harboring pgRNA with or without specific gRNAs were grown overnight without (-Rha) or with 0.2% rhamnose (+Rha). Cells were washed and stained with Nile Red, and observed by fluorescence microscopy. One to two-hundred cells were counted and the % of cells with PHA granules was calculated. C) PHA granules that remain are identical to those in the WT. Strains were grown and processed as for B and the diameter of the PHA granules was measured. Thicker areas of the violin bars represent more granules with that diameter.

271   The mean in each condition is shown by a black dot. D) The strains were grown and processed as

272   for B). Dashes indicate cell boundaries and the scale bar is 5 μm.

274   *phbC* rendered relatively poor inhibition of PHA granule accumulation with between 35-50% of

275   cells containing PHA granules, depending on the sgRNA (Figure 4C and 4D). In contrast to what

276   was seen in *B. cenocepacia* K56-2, we observed granules of reduced size (Figure 4E and 4F).

277   Members of the *B. pseudomallei* group are phylogenetically distinct from the Bcc [1], but

remain of interest due to the ability to cause infection (such as melioidosis and glanders) and for

their remarkable capacity for secondary metabolite production [35]. *B. thailandensis* is a commonly

used model for the pathogenic members of the *B. pseudomallei* group, we therefore also introduced

the codon-optimized *dcas9* gene into the chromosome of *B. thailandensis* strain E264. When

induced with rhamnose, dCas9 was highly expressed (Supplemental Figure 9A) and did not impair

growth in the presence of a non-targeting sgRNA (Supplemental Figure 9B). Similarly, as for *B.*

cenocepacia K56-2 and *B. multivorans* ATCC 17616, we designed three sgRNAs targeting the

putative promoters of the *paaA* and *phbC* genes (Figure 5A and C). Upon induction of dCas9 with

0.2% rhamnose, growth of the mutants harbouring the *paaA*-targeting sgRNAs was suppressed in

M9+PA to varying levels ranging from 3-fold (sgRNA19) to 25-fold (sgRNA20) (Figure 5B).

Lastly, for the sgRNAs targeting *phbC*, the results mirror those seen in ATCC 17616, as depending

on the sgRNA there was variation in the percent of cells with PHA granules (10-40%) and the

diameter of the granules (overall decrease in size) (Figure 5C- F). Though the exact genetic

contributions to PHA synthesis in E264 remain unclear, it has been previously suggested that PhbC

is not the only polyhydroxyalkanoate polymerase in E264 [36].

Figure 4. CRISPRi in *B. multivorans* ATCC17616 effectively represses *paaA* and *phbC*. A) Positions of the sgRNAs targeting upstream regions of *paaA*. sgRNAs12 and 13 were designed to target the -35 and -10 boxes of the promoter, while sgRNA14 targeted the 5' region of the ORF. All sgRNAs targeted the NT strand. B) Targeting *paaA* suppressed growth on PA as a sole carbon source. WT, ATCC 17616::dCas9 (+dCas9) with or without sgRNAs in A) were grown for 24 hours in M9+PA without (-Rha) or with 0.2% rhamnose (+Rha). C) Positions of the sgRNAs targeting upstream regions of *phbC*. All sgRNAs were designed to target the -35 or -10 elements of the promoter on the NT strand. D) Targeting *phbC* reduces the overall number of cells with PHA granules. Strains were grown overnight without (-Rha) or with 0.2% rhamnose (+Rha). Cells

were washed and stained with Nile Red, and observed by fluorescence microscopy. One to two-

hundred cells were counted and the % of cells with PHA granules was calculated. E) PHA granules

that remain are smaller than those in the WT. Strains were grown and processed as for D); however,

the diameter of the PHA granules was measured, with thicker areas representing more granules

with that diameter. The mean in each condition is shown by a black dot. F) The strains were grown

and processed as for D). Dashes indicate cell boundaries and the scale bar is 5 μm.

Figure 5. CRISPRi in *B. thalandensis* E264 effectively represses *paaA* (BTH_I3097) and *phbC*. Positions of the sgRNAs targeting upstream regions of *paaA* (BTH_I3097). sgRNAs 18 and 19 were designed to target the -35 and -10 boxes of the promoter, while sgRNA 20 targeted the 5' region of the ORF. All sgRNAs targeted the NT strand. B) Targeting *paaA* suppressed growth on PA as a sole carbon source. WT, E264::dCas9 (+dCas9) with or without sgRNAs in A) were grown for 48 hours in M9+PA without (-Rha) or with 0.2% rhamnose (+Rha). C) Positions of the sgRNAs targeting regions of *phbC*. sgRNA 21 targeted just upstream of the -35 box, sgRNA22 and 23

targeted just downstream of the -10 box, all on the NT strand. D) Targeting *phbC* reduces the

overall number of cells with PHA granules. Strains were grown overnight without (-Rha) or with

0.2% rhamnose (+Rha). Cells were washed and stained with Nile red, and observed by

fluorescence microscopy. One to two-hundred cells were counted and the % of cells with PHA

granules was calculated. E) PHA granules that remain are smaller than those in the WT. Strains

were grown and processed as for D); however, the diameter of the PHA granules was measured,

with thicker areas representing more granules with that diameter. The mean in each condition is

shown by a black dot. F) The strains were grown and processed as for D). Dashes indicate cell

boundaries and the scale bar is 5 μm.

The integration vector we implemented to deliver *dcas9* to the chromosome of various

species of *Burkholderia* relies on the expression of the φCTX integrase and recombination using

the plasmid-borne *attP* site with the chromosomal *attB* site [24]. φCTX is a *Pseudomonas*-infecting

phage, and the mini-CTX integration system was originally designed for use in *P. aeruginosa* [24].

The mini-CTX integration system has been used successfully in other species; however, this has

been mostly limited to members of *Burkholderia* [37,38]. The utility in *Burkholderia* has been

comparable to *P. aeruginosa*, in part owing to efficient integration. In the species used in this

study, we observed the integration efficiencies to be 6×10^{-7} in K56-2, 6×10^{-8} in E264, and 5×10^{-9}

in ATCC 17616 (Supplemental Figure 10A), compared to 10^{-7} to 10^{-8} observed previously in *P.*

aeruginosa [24]. To further broaden the scope of the applicability of our CRISPRi system, we used

NCBI BLAST to search all published genomes for putative *attB* sites. While the full-length *attB*

site is 30 nt, integration is known to occur if only the 5' 19 nt are completely complementary, such

as for many species of *Burkholderia*. This shorter *attB* site was therefore used as a BLAST query,

resulting in 1760 hits with 100% alignment (Supplementary Table 5). Enterobacteria were

excluded from the search as the pMB1 *oriR* in the mini-CTX system is functional is these species;

therefore, integrants cannot be easily isolated. Furthermore, the search parameters were modified

to only include species of Proteobacteria, as there were few hits of non-Proteobacterial species

with 100% alignment (data not shown). Overall, there were 168 unique species from 67 genera.

As expected, the most abundant hit corresponded to species and strains of *Pseudomonas* (480 hits),

then followed by *Acinetobacter* (443 hits), *Burkholderia* (276 hits), *Neisseria* (170 hits), and

Ralstonia (146 hits), with members of the other 62 genera comprising the remaining 245 hits. A

summary of the major hits and species of interest (pathogenic, environmental, biotechnological,

etc.) can be found along with the genomic context in Table 1. We note that the hit table comprises

species with both high and low GC-content genomes, and while the GC-rich codon-optimized

dcas9 (in pAH-CTX1-rhadCas9) may be better suited for species with high GC-content genomes,

such as those in the families *Pseudomonadaceae* and *Alcaligenaceae*, the native *dcas9* (in pAH-

CTX1-rhadCas9-native) may have better functionality in species with low GC-content genomes,

such as those in the families *Moraxellaceae* and *Neisseriaceae*.

A further consideration for use of our CRISPRi system is that the pFLPe recombinase-

expressing plasmids might not be functional in all species. In which case, the *int* gene along with

the *oriT*, pBM1 *oriR,* and the *tet* gene would not be excised. Continued expression of the integrase

could cause instability of the integrated DNA and loss of the dCas9 gene over time. To explore

this possibility, we assessed the stability of the mini-CTX integration in K56-2, ATCC 17616, and

E264 in serial passages over four days without tetracycline selection. For all species over the entire

experiment we determined CFU counts on agar with and without tetracycline selection and found

equal recovery of tetracycline-resistant colonies as total colonies (Supplemental Figure 10B-D),

suggesting the integration containing the dCas9 is stable.

Table 1. Putative host range of the mini-CTX system and genomic context of selected hit sites

Class	Order	Family	Genus and Species	Strain	%GC	tRNA^Ser ( ) Genomic Context
Gammaproteobacteria	Pseudomonadales	Pseudomonadaceae	*Pseudomonas aeruginosa*	PAO1	66.6	PA2603 — PA2603.1 — PA2604
			Pseudomonas fluorescens	NCTC 10783	65.9	EL286_RS07725 — EL286_RS07730 — EL286_RS07735
			Pseudomonas mendocina	NK-01	64.7	MDS_RS12060 — MDS_RS12065 — MDS_RS12070
		Moraxellaceae	*Acinetobacter baumannii*	ATCC 17978	39	AUO97_RS02215 AUO97_RS02215 AUO97_RS02220 fadH AUO97_RS12570 AUO97_RS12570
			Acinetobacter nosocomialis	NCTC 8102	38.7	DIW83_RS04465 DIW83_RS04470 DIW83_RS04475 DIW83_RS13465 DIW83_RS13470 fadH
	Xanthomonadales	Xanthomonadaceae	*Xylella fastidiosa*	M12	51.9	XFASM12_RS11770 — XFASM12_RS07835 — XFASM12_RS07840
Betaproteobacteria	Burkholderiales	Alcaligenaceae	*Achromobacter xylosoxidans*	NCTC 10808	67.4	DQO23_RS06440 — DQO23_RS06445 — DQO23_RS06450
			Bordatella bronchiseptica	D448	68.1	CS344_RS23895 — CS344_RS23900 — CS344_RS23905
			Alcaligenes faecalis	DSM 30030	56.6	CPY64_RS11990 — CPY64_RS11995 — CPY64_RS12000
		Burkholderiaceae	*Ralstonia pickettii*	DTP0602	65.9	N234_04430 — N234_04435 — N234_04440
			Burkholderia cenocepacia	K56-2	67	WQ49_RS02320 — WQ49_RS02325 — WQ49_RS02330
			Burkholderia multivorans	ATCC 17616	66.7	BMULJ_RS32145 BMULJ_RS04140 — BMULJ_RS04145
			Burkholderia thailandensis	E264	67.7	BTH_RS32930 — BTH_RS20275 — BTH_RS20280
			Burkholderia mallei	NCTC 10229	68.5	BMA10229_RS30760 — BMA10229_RS21960 — BMA10229_RS21965
			Burkholderia pseudomallei	NCTC 13178	67.9	BBJ_RS32360 — BBJ_RS01310 — BBJ_RS01315
			Burkholderia oklahomensis	EO147	66.9	DM82_RS11255 — DM82_RS11260 — DM82_RS11265
			Cupriavidus necator	NH9	65.5	BJN34_RS05080 — BJN34_RS05085 — BJN34_RS05090
			Pandoraea apista	AU2161	62.6	AA956_RS16715 — AA956_RS16720 — AA956_RS25505
			Lautropia mirabilis	NCTC 12852	65.5	EL249_RS10610 — EL249_RS10615 — EL249_RS10620
		Oxalobactericeae	*Collimonas fungivorans*	Ter6	59	CFter6_RS10510 — CFter6_RS10515 — CFter6_RS25055
		Commamonadaceae	*Rhodoferax antarcticus*	DSM 24876	58.9	RA876_RS18910 — RA876_RS18915 — RA876_RS18920
			Polaromonas naphthalenivorans	CJ2	61.7	PNAP_RS04840 — PNAP_RS04845 — ureG
	Neisseriales	Neisseriaceae	*Neisseria meningitidis*	NCTC 10026	51.4	EL323_RS06235 — EL323_RS06240 — yaaA
			Neisseria gonorrheae	NCTC 13484	52.5	EL177_RS06240 — EL177_RS06245 — yaaA
			Neisseria sicca	FDAARGOS_260	50.9	A6J88_RS26510 — A6J88_RS26515 — A6J88_RS26520
			Chromobacterium violaceum	CV1197	65.6	CR207_RS10565 CR207_RS10570 — CR207_RS10575
	Nitrosomonadales	Nitrosomonadaceae	*Nitrosomonas communis*	Nm2	44.7	AAW31_RS16120 — AAW31_RS16125 — AAW31_RS16130
Hydrogenophilalia	Hydrogenophilales	Hydrogenophilaceae	*Hydrogenophilus thermoluteolus*	TH-1	61.7	HPTL_RS08770 — HPTL_RS08775 — HPTL_RS08780
Alphaproteobacteria	Rhodospirillales	Rhodospirillaceae	*Haematospirillum jordaniae*	H5569	55.6	AY555_RS08435 — AY555_RS08440 — AY555_RS08445

Discussion

Genetic tools are necessary to dissect the molecular mechanisms governing cellular

processes. Here, we report the development of a CRISPRi system for efficient repression of gene

expression in *Burkholderia*. By mobilizing the *dcas9* gene that was codon-optimized for the GC-

rich *Burkholderia* on a broad host range mini-CTX1 integration vector, we demonstrate robust,

tunable, and durable repression of endogenous genes. While others have shown effective

repression using the native *dcas9* gene in *E. coli* [9], *B. subtilis* [18], *Staphylococcus aureus*, and

Acinetobacter baumannii [22], codon-optimization was a necessary step for K56-2, as expression of

the native *dcas9* gene was not detectable in K56-2. Indeed, for expression in species with high

GC-content, codon optimization appears to be necessary. In *P. aeruginosa* (66.3% GC) both the

S. pyogenes dCas9 [22] and the *S. pasteurianus* dCas9 [13] were not expressed unless first codon-

optimized, albeit for *Homo sapiens* (optimized at 50.2% GC) or *Mycobacterium* (~67% GC),

respectively. Additionally, the *S. thermophilus* dCas9 was codon-optimized for *Mycobacterium*

for efficient expression in *M. tuberculosis* and *M. smegmatis* [26].

Upon codon-optimizing the *dcas9* gene, we observed a severe growth defect when

expressed from a multicopy pBBR1-origin plasmid. At this time, we are unsure if this was caused

by a metabolic burden of expressing a large protein from a multicopy plasmid or from direct

proteotoxicity. Previous studies have demonstrated that expression of the canonical *S. pyogenes*

dCas9 causes toxicity in *M. smegmatis*, *M. tuberculosis* [26], and *E. coli* [39], which provides rationale

for developing a system with low-enough levels of dCas9 expression to maintain cell viability

without sacrificing repression activity. While this effort has spurred the exploration of alternative

dCas9 orthologues [26], we found that introducing *dcas9* in single copy in the chromosome provided

a balance of repression activity without affecting growth. Furthermore, while other systems display

up to 3-fold repression in the absence of inducer [13,18], our application of the tightly regulated

rhamnose-inducible promoter from *E. coli* did not display a leaky phenotype in any of the three

species tested. While we did observe increased dCas9 expression at rhamnose concentrations of

0.5% and 1.0% with no inhibitory effect on growth in LB (Figure 1C and D), the increased level

of dCas9 expression was accompanied by a substantial growth defect in M9 minimal media with

PA (Figure 2D) or glycerol (data not shown) as the sole carbon source. As the growth rate is

decreased in minimal media, it is possible that growth inhibitory, off-target effects that are

alleviated in fast growing cells by dilution of dCas9 bound DNA sites with newly replicated ones,

are more evident in slowly growing cells. While the RNA polymerase is largely incapable of

displacing the dCas9:sgRNA complex, the DNA replication machinery is not blocked by dCas9.

In fact, it has been observed that the dissociation of the dCas9:sgRNA complex correlates well

with the generation time in *E. coli* [40]. This is an important consideration for understanding the

durability of growth suppression we observed when using PA as a sole carbon source. Cells primed

by pre-incubation with rhamnose are unable to grow in M9+PA, creating a condition where *paaA*

is an essential gene and its absence would arrest cell division and replication. Hence, the DNA

replication machinery would not displace the dCas9:sgRNA from the *paaA* gene, resulting in long-

term growth suppression. By extension, we predict that strong knockdown of any (conditionally)

essential gene that causes a halt in DNA replication would be durable in this manner. This is a

useful aspect of CRISPRi that we are investigating further.

Although it has been reported that the CRISPRi system is less effective in silencing gene

expression when the template strand (T) is targeted compared to the non-template (NT) strand, our

results demonstrated nearly 30-fold suppression of growth irrespective of the *paaA* target strand

(Figure 2B). This suggests that the efficiency of the CRISPRi system might not be strand specific

at all loci, supporting the findings from Guo et al. [41]. However, this effect might have been masked

by the strong repression we observed, as it is difficult to compare across null phenotypes. Our

findings are also supported by the RT-qPCR that demonstrated differential repression of gene

expression based on the targeted location. Interestingly, our data suggests that, for *paaA,* targeting

near the start codon of the NT strand (gRNA4) was more effective than targeting near the start

codon of the T strand (gRNA5). Additionally, sgRNAs targeting different regions of the 5' region

of *paaA* produced a strong 25 to 30-fold repression in the three species studied here. Therefore,

the observed knockdown efficiency appears to be largely unaffected by sgRNA placement on

targeting regions overlapping or adjacent to the −35 and −10 promoter elements, at least for

phenotypes where complete repression of gene expression is not required. The cause of this is

likely due to the large dCas9:sgRNA complex that when bound to the promoter sterically interferes

with RNA polymerase binding. Indeed, the ~160 kDa dCas9 enzyme has an average DNA footprint

of 78.1 bp, much larger than most promoter regions [42]. This could explain why Cui et al. [19], and

our results for *paaA*, demonstrate strong repression when the template strand is targeted a short

distance downstream of the transcription start site.

Single cell level analysis of our system suggested a unimodal 'all or none' effect in K56-2

with ~17% cells escaping the silenced phenotype when targeting *phbC* compared to an insertion

mutant, which did not possess any PHA granules. The PHA granules in these cells were of identical

diameter to wild type. The 'all or none' effect might be attributed to an uneven distribution of

sugar transporters after cell division as observed previously for arabinose-inducible expression [43].

If a similar mechanism involved transporting rhamnose into the cell, some cells could escape the

rhamnose-mediated *dcas9* induction to silence the target gene. We hypothesize any escape would

be temporary as the transporter would be expressed in growing cells, allowing rhamnose uptake.

However, a rhamnose transporter in *Burkholderia* has so far not been described. Interestingly,

targeting *phbC* in *B. multivorans* ATCC17616 and *B. thailandensis* E264 resulted in a mixed

phenotype with a reduced number of cells with granules as well as an overall decrease in granule

size. Even though some of the cells appeared to have escaped the repression (up to 35% in

ATCC17616 and 6% in E264), more than 90% of the cells contained granules of reduced size.

This suggests that there is an unelucidated secondary PHA synthesis pathway in *B. thailandensis*

E264 and *B. multivorans* ATCC17616. Funston et al. [36] have observed similar results in *B.*

thailandensis E264 where transposon mutants in *phb* genes (*phbA*, *phbB* and *phbC*) retained the

ability to synthesize PHA, albeit at lower levels.

One of the hallmarks of CRISPRi is the broad-range amenability in diverse bacteria,

enabling synthetic biology and mechanistic investigations into many dozens of species in

innovative ways. We wished to apply our CRISPRi system in this manner and therefore mobilized

both the native *dcas9* gene, suitable for low/medium GC-content organisms, and the *dcas9* gene,

codon-optimized for GC-rich *Burkholderia*, on the mini-CTX1 integration vector. Our analysis of

putative hosts (with *attB* sites near the 3' end of the serine tRNA) identified 168 unique species in

67 genera, mostly from the β- and γ-Proteobacteria. Previous works have mobilized *dcas9* on

broad host-range integrative plasmids [13,22]; however, both systems use the mini-Tn*7* system, which

has multiple insertion locations in certain genomes, such as many species of *Burkholderia*.

Together, our work contributes to the available genetic toolkit for rapid functional analysis of

bacteria.

Methods

Strains, selective antibiotics, and growth conditions

All strains and plasmids are found in Supplemental Table 1. All strains were grown in LB-

Lennox medium (Difco). *B. cenocepacia* K56-2 and strains of *E. coli* were grown at 37°C, while

B. thailandensis E264 and *B. multivorans* ATCC 17616 were grown at 30°C. The following

selective antibiotics were used: chloramphenicol (Sigma; 100 μg/mL for *B. cenocepacia,* 20

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

coli), tetracycline (Sigma; 50 μg/mL for all strains of *Burkholderia*, 20 μg/mL for *E. coli*),

kanamycin (Fisher Scientific; 250 μg/mL for *B. thailandensis*, 150 μg/mL for *B. multivorans*, 40

μg/mL for *E. coli*), ampicillin (Sigma; 100 μg/mL for *E. coli*), gentamicin (Sigma; 50 μg/mL for

all strains of *Burkholderia*).

Construction of pSC-rhadCas9, pAH-CTX1-rhadCas9, pAH-CTX1-rhadCas9-native, and dCas9

insertional mutants

The endogenous *cas9* gene from *S. pyogenes* has low GC content (averaging 34.1%) and

subsequently poor codon usage for GC-rich organisms (http://www.kazusa.or.jp/codon/). The

nuclease-inactive variant (*dcas9*) was therefore codon optimized for *B. cenocepacia* by purchasing

the optimized gene in two fragments from IDT (2462 bp and 1849 bp, Supplemental Table 2), each

with 38 bp overlapping regions. Strong, rho-independent terminators were added following the

gene. The full-length gene (with terminal *Nde*I and *Hind*III cut sites) was synthesized by overlap-

extension PCR using Q5 polymerase with high GC buffer (NEB) and primers 979 and 987

(Supplemental Table 2). The first ten rounds of PCR were performed without primers to synthesize

the full-length product using the overlap regions; primers were added for the following 25 cycles.

The cycle parameters are as follows: 98°C for 30 sec, (98°C for 10 sec, 67.5°C for 20 sec, 72°C for

2.5 min)x10 cycles, 72°C for 5 min, 98°C for 30 sec, (98°C for 10 sec, 62.5°C for 20 sec,72 $^{\circ}$C for

2.5 min)x25 cycles, 72°C for 10 min. The 4267 bp product was gel-purified (Qiagen) and

introduced into pSCrhaB2 by restriction cloning using *Nde*I and *Hind*III (NEB). The resulting

plasmid, pSC-rhadCas9, was transformed into *E. coli* DH5α, and trimethoprim-resistant colonies

were screened by colony PCR with primers 954 and 955. Triparental mating with *E. coli*

MM290/pRK2013 as a helper was performed as previously described [44].

To introduce the optimized *dcas9* into the mini-CTX1 insertion plasmid [24] serial restriction

cloning was used (Supplemental Figure 3A). Briefly, the rhamnose-inducible promoter from

pSC201 [45] was first PCR amplified with Q5 polymerase and primers 976 and 1071, containing

*Hind*III and *Spe*I restriction sites, respectively. This fragment was introduced into mini-CTX1, to

create pAH-CTX1-rha, and tetracycline-resistant *E. coli* DH5α were screened by colony PCR

using primers 957 and 1074. The fragment containing the dCas9 gene was PCR amplified as above,

but instead using primers 1072 and 1073, introducing *Spe*I and *Not*I restriction sites, respectively.

This fragment was introduced into pAH-CTX1-rha, to create pAH-CTX1-rhadCas9, and

tetracycline-resistant *E. coli* DH5α colonies were screened by colony PCR using primers 954 and

955.

The native (non codon-optimized) *dcas9* was also introduced into pAH-CTX1-rha. The

native *dcas9* and transcriptional terminators were PCR amplified from pdCas9-bacteria (Addgene

plasmid # 44249) with Q5 polymerase (NEB) using primers 1216 and 1217. The PCR product was

cloned into pAH-CTX1-rha (creating pAH-CTX1-rhadcas9-native) using *Not*I and *Spe*I restriction

sites then transformed into *E. coli* DH5α. Tetracycline-resistant colonies were screened by PCR

using primers 954 and 1218.

pAH-CTX1-rha, pAH-CTX1-rhadCas9, and pAH-CTX1-rhadCas9-native were

introduced into *Burkholderia* species by triparental mating using *E. coli* MM290/pRK2013 as a

helper as above. Tetracycline-resistant colonies were screened by colony PCR using primer 954

(for pAH-CTX1-rha) or 1075 (for pAH-CTX1-rhadCas9) or 1219 (for pAH-CTX1-rhadcas9-

native) and 1008 (for *B. cenocepacia*), 1167 (for *B. multivorans*), or 1168 (for *B. thailandensis*).

To remove the tetracycline resistance and integrase genes from the insertional mutants

constructed with pAH-CTX1-rhadCas9 and pAH-CTX1-rha (Supplemental Figure 3), the

Flannagan method [46] was used for *B. cenocepacia* K56-2, while the pFLPe system [47] was used for

B. multivorans ATCC 17616 and *B. thailandensis* E264. To remove the regions flanking the *FRT*

sites in *B. cenocepacia* K56-2, a fragment with 475 bp overlapping the upstream and downstream

regions of the *FRT* sites was designed and synthesized (IDT) with *Kpn*I and *Eco*RI restriction sites,

respectively. The fragment was ligated into pGPI-*Sce*I [46] via the *Kpn*I and *Eco*RI restriction sites,

creating pAH18, and transformed into *E. coli* SY327. Trimethoprim-resistant colonies were

screened for the insertion of the fragment with primer 153 and 154. pAH18 was introduced into

the mutant backgrounds via triparental mating, as described above. Trimethoprim-resistant K56-2

were screened by PCR for both possible integration orientations using primers 154 and 1126, or

153 and 1133. To initiate the second recombination, an *Sce*I-expressing plasmid is required;

however, the conventional plasmid, pDAI-*Sce*I, confers tetracycline resistance and could not be

selected for in the mutant background. Therefore, the tetracycline resistance cassette was removed

by digestion with *Age*I and *Xho*I. The chloramphenicol resistance gene *cat* was PCR amplified

from pKD3 [48] using primers 1084 and 1150, then ligated into the *Age*I and *Xho*I-digested pDAI-

*Sce*I backbone and transformed into *E. coli* DH5α, creating pAH25-*Sce*I. Chloramphenicol-

resistant colonies were screened with primers 1091 and 1150. pAH25-*Sce*I was introduced into the

mutant backgrounds by triparental mating as described above. Chloramphenicol-resistant colonies

were screened for sensitivity to trimethoprim (indicating excision of pAH18) and tetracycline

(indicating excision of the genes between the *FRT* sites), and then screened by PCR with primers

1126 and 1133, which bridge the excision.

The pFLPe system was used to remove the tetracycline resistance and integrase genes in

the dCas9 mutants in *B. multivorans* ATCC 17616 and *B. thailandensis* E264. Triparental mating

to introduce pFLPe4 into the strains was performed as for K56-2 above, except 0.2% rhamnose

was added to the mating and antibiotic selection plates. Tetracycline-sensitive colonies were

screened by PCR using primers 957 and 1194 (for *B. multivorans*) or 1195 (for *B. thailandensis*).

pFLPe4 has a temperature-sensitive origin of replication; therefore, mutants were grown overnight

in LB without antibiotics at 37°C. Single colonies were then tested for kanamycin sensitivity and

then by colony PCR for pFLPe4 using primers 1128 and 1129.

Design and construction of the sgRNA-expressing plasmids

PAM sequences closest to the 5' end of the transcription start site (TSS) were first

identified on both the non-template and template strands. We extracted 20-23 nucleotides adjacent

to the PAM sequence to design the base-pairing region of the sgRNAs in the following format: 5'-

CCN-N$_{(20-23)}$-3' for targeting the non-template strand and 5'-N$_{(20-23)}$-NGG-3' for the template

strand. To score the specificity and identify off-target binding sites, the 5' end of the 20-23nt

variable base-pairing sequences were trimmed one base at a time and the remaining base-pairing

region was searched against the appropriate organism's reference genome. This was repeated until

only 10 nt were used as a search query. Potential sgRNAs were discarded if off-target sites were

discovered in this manner.

The expression vector pSCrhaB2 [25] was chosen as the method of sgRNA expression due

to the broad host range of the pBBR1 origin of replication. The sgRNA cassette from pgRNA-

bacteria [9] (Addgene plasmid # 44251) was introduced into pSCrhaB2 by restriction cloning with

*Eco*RI and *Hind*III (NEB) to create pSCrhaB2-sgRNA. To remove *rhaS* and *rhaR*, inverse PCR

was performed using Q5 polymerase (NEB) and primers 847 and 1025. The resulting fragment

was ligated by blunt-end ligation using 1 μL of PCR product incubated with 0.5 μL *Dpn*I, 0.5 μL

T4 polynucleotide kinase, and 0.5 μL T4 ligase (NEB) with quick ligation buffer (NEB) at 37°C

for 30 minutes. The resulting plasmid, pSCB2-sgRNA, was screened using primers 781 and 848,

which span the ligated junction. Individual sgRNAs were introduced into pSCB2-sgRNA using

inverse PCR as previously described [9] (Supplemental Table 3).

Construction of insertional mutants K56-2 fliF::pAH26 and K56-2 phbC::pAH27

Inactivation of *fliF* was performed with the mutagenesis system of Flannagan et al. [49].

Briefly, a 322 bp internal fragment of *fliF* was PCR amplified from the K56-2 genome using

primers 1156 and 1157 and Q5 polymerase (NEB). The fragment and pGPΩ-Tp were double

digested with *Kpn*I and *Eco*RI (NEB) and ligated with T4 ligase (NEB). The resulting plasmid,

pAH26, was electroporated into *E. coli* SY327, and trimethoprim-resistant colonies were screened

by colony PCR for the *fliF* fragment. Triparental matings were performed as above. Trimethoprim-

resistant exconjugants, were screened by motility assay (below).

Inactivation of *phbC* (WQ49_RS30385) was performed as for *fliF*. Briefly, a 328 bp

internal fragment of *phbC* was PCR amplified from the K56-2 genome using primers 1196 and

1197 and Q5 polymerase (NEB). The plasmid, pAH27, created from ligating the fragment into

pGPΩ-Tp using *Kpn*I and *Eco*RI (NEB) restriction sites, was electroporated into *E. coli* SY327

and trimethoprim-resistant colonies were screened by colony PCR for the *phbC* fragment.

Triparental matings were performed as above, and trimethoprim-resistant exconjugants were

screened by staining for polyhydroxyalkanoate granule accumulation (below).

Assays for integration efficiency and stability of the mini-CTX1-based system

To assess integration efficiency, triparental matings were started as above. However, after

the mating on LB agar, the pellicles were serially diluted and plated for CFU/mL on LB agar with

50 μg/mL gentamicin and LB agar with 50 μg/mL tetracycline and 50 μg/mL gentamicin.

To assess stability of the integration, cultures of the dCas9 mutants (containing the

tetracycline resistance cassette) were serial passaged over 4 days without antibiotics. Each day, a

fresh culture was started with a 1:2500 dilution of the previous day's stationary phase culture. In

addition, the cultures were serially diluted and plated for CFU/mL on LB agar without antibiotics

and LB agar with 50 μg/mL tetracycline.

Growth assay with phenylacetic acid as the sole carbon source

Overnight cultures, started from isolated colonies, of the appropriate strains were washed

at 4000 xg for 4 minutes and resuspended in PBS (2.7 mM KCl, 136.9 mM NaCl, 1.5 mM KH_2PO_4,

8.9 mM Na_2HPO_4, pH 7.4) to remove growth medium. The OD_{600nm} of the cultures was normalized

to 0.01 in M9 medium supplemented with 5 mM phenylacetic acid, 100 μg/mL trimethoprim, and

0.2% rhamnose as required. The culture was added to wells of a 96-well plate and incubated with

continuous shaking at 37^oC (*B. cenocepacia* K56-2) or 30^oC for *B. multivorans* ATCC 17616 and

B. thailandensis E264). The OD_{600nm} of the cultures was measured after 24 hours for *B.*

cenocepacia K56-2 and *B. multivorans* ATCC 17616, or 48 hours for *B. thailandensis* E264.

Fluorescent microscopy and polyhydroxyalkanoate granule detection

Overnight cultures of the appropriate strains with or without rhamnose were first washed to remove growth medium and resuspended in PBS. Cells were fixed in 3.7% formaldehyde + 1% methanol at room temperature for 10 minutes (*B. cenocepacia* K56-2) or 20 minutes (*B. multivorans* ATCC 17616 and *B. thailandensis* E264) then quenched by the addition of an equal volume of 0.5 M glycine. The cells were washed and resuspended in PBS with 0.5 µg/mL Nile Red (Carbosynth) and stained at room temperature in the dark for 20 minutes, after which the cells were washed to remove excess stain and resuspended in PBS. The cells were mounted on 1.5% agarose pads and imaged by fluorescence microscopy at 1000x total magnification on an upright AxioImager Z1 (Zeiss). Nile Red was excited at 546/12 nm and detected at 607/33 nm.

Plate-based motility assay

Assays were performed as previously described [50], with some modifications. Briefly, strains were grown on LB agar with the appropriate antibiotics and single colonies were stab-inoculated into motility medium consisting of nutrient broth (Difco) with 0.3% agar. Medium was supplemented with rhamnose (Sigma) as appropriate. Plates were incubated right-side up for 22 hours at 37°C.

Flagellum staining

Staining was performed as previously described [50]. Briefly, an overnight culture was rested statically at room temperature for 20 minutes. Gently, a 1 in 10 dilution was prepared in water and rested statically for a further 20 minutes. A small drop of the diluted culture was placed on a clean glass slide and rested for 20 minutes. A coverglass was gently applied and one side was flooded with Ryu flagellum stain (Remel), then allowed to dry for 2 hours at room temperature. Slides

were observed by light microscopy at 1000x total magnification on an upright AxioImager Z1

(Zeiss).

SDS-PAGE and Immunoblotting

Cells from an overnight culture were subcultured into fresh medium and grown at 37°C

(30°C for *B. thailandensis*) to an OD_{600nm} of 0.4, then exposed to various concentrations of

rhamnose for 3 hours. Soluble protein was isolated first by sonicating the cells in TNG Buffer (100

mM Tris-HCl, 150 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, pH 7.4) then by centrifugation at 15 000g for 20

minutes. Following boiling denaturation in SDS loading buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, 2% SDS, 0.2%

bromophenol blue, 20% glycerol, 100 mM DTT, pH 6.8), samples were run on an 8% Tris/glycine

gel. To ensure equal loading, 20 μg protein was loaded per well (as determined by NanoDrop) and

gels were run in duplicate (one for immunoblot, and another for Coomassie staining). Protein was

transferred by iBlot to a PVDF membrane, blocked in 5% skim milk-TBST (150 mM NaCl, 10

mM Tris-HCl, 0.5% Tween-20, pH 7.5) at room temperature for 1 hour, then probed with a 1:2

000 dilution of primary α-Cas9 antibody (ThermoFisher 10C11-A12) in 5% skim milk-TBST

overnight at 4°C. Following washes, the blot was probed with a 1:20 000 dilution of secondary

antibody linked to alkaline phosphatase (ThermoFisher G-21060) in 5% skim milk-TBST for 1

hour at room temperature. Protein was detected by incubation with a solution of NBT/BCIP

(Roche) as per the manufacturer's protocol.

RNA extraction and Reverse Transcription quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) analysis

Cells from an overnight culture were subcultured at an OD_{600nm} of 0.01 into fresh medium

with antibiotic and rhamnose, as necessary, and grown for 8 hours. Cells were harvested by

centrifugation (3 minutes at 4600xg) and pellets were stored at -80°C until RNA extraction. RNA

was purified and DNAse treated using the Ribopure bacteria kit (Ambion) with extended DNAse

treatement (2 hours). RNA quality was verified by running on a 2% agarose gel. cDNA was

synthesized with the iScript Reverse Transcriptase kit (Bio-Rad) and qPCR was performed using

iQ SYBR Green mastermix (Bio-rad) on a CFX96 Touch Real-Time PCR Detection System (Bio-

Rad). Primer efficiency was determined for each primer set and efficiencies between 95% and

105% were deemed acceptable. Data was analyzed using the comparative C_T method [51,52]. Genes

were normalized to a commonly used reference gene, the RNA polymerase sigma factor *sigE*

(BCAM0918) [53,54].

Plasmid availability

648   The following plasmids have been deposited to Addgene for distribution: pAH-CTX1-rha

649   (#129390), pAH-CTX1-rhadCas9 (#129391), pAH-CTX1-rhadCas9-native (#129392), pAH25-

650   SceI (#129389), pSCB2-sgRNA (#129463), pgRNA-guideless (#129464), and pgRNA-non-target

651   (#129465).

Acknowledgements

This work was financially supported by grants from the Cystic Fibrosis Foundation, Cystic

Fibrosis Canada, and the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada (NSERC)

to STC; AMH was supported by grants from the Canadian Institutes of Health Research (CIHR)

and Cystic Fibrosis Canada.

The authors are grateful to Eric Déziel from the Institut National de la Recherche

Scientifique – Institut Armand-Frappier for providing the miniCTX1 integration vector.

Conflict of Interest Statement

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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