Phosphorylation on PstP controls cell wall metabolism and antibiotic

tolerance in *Mycobacterium smegmatis*

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Running title: Phosphorylation of PstP affects the cell wall

Key words:

PstP, Serine/Threonine Phosphatase, peptidoglycan metabolism, mycolic acid

metabolism, antibiotic tolerance, Mycobacteria, cell wall metabolism, CwlM,

dephosphorylation

Abstract

Mycobacterium tuberculosis and its relatives have dynamic cell walls that respond to environmental stresses. Modulation of cell wall metabolism under stress is thought to be responsible for decreased cell wall permeability and increased tolerance to antibiotics. The signaling pathways that control cell wall metabolism under stress, however, are poorly understood. Here, we examine the signaling capacity of a cell wall master regulator, the Serine Threonine Phosphatase PstP, in the model organism Mycobacterium smegmatis. We studied how interference with a regulatory phosphorylation site on PstP affects growth, cell wall metabolism and antibiotic tolerance. We find that a phospho-mimetic mutation, pstP T171E, slows growth, misregulates both mycolic acid and peptidoglycan metabolism in different conditions, and interferes with antibiotic tolerance. We show that the peptidoglycan regulator CwlM is a substrate of PstP, and may be an important mediator of PstP's role in controlling peptidoglycan metabolism. These data suggest that phosphorylation on PstP affects its activity and is important in the transition between growth and stasis.

Importance

Regulation of cell wall assembly is essential for bacterial survival and contributes to pathogenesis and antibiotic tolerance in mycobacteria, including pathogens such as Mycobacterium tuberculosis. However, little is known about how the cell wall is regulated in stress. We describe a mechanism of cell wall modulation

in *Mycobacterium smegmatis* through the only essential Ser/Thr phosphatase

PstP. We showed that phosphorylation on PstP regulates peptidoglycan

metabolism in the transition to stasis and the mycolic acid metabolism in growth.

This regulation also affects antibiotic tolerance. This work helps us to understand

the phosphorylation/dephosphorylation-mediated cell wall regulation circuitry in

Mycobacteria. We propose PstP to be a cell wall master regulator that can be a

potential drug target.

Introduction

Tuberculosis (TB), an infectious disease caused by the bacterium

Mycobacterium tuberculosis (*Mtb*) is one of the leading infectious causes of

death (1). The fact that TB treatment requires at least a six month regimen with

four antibiotics is partly due to the intrinsic phenotypic antibiotic tolerance of *Mtb*

(2, 3). Stressed *Mtb* cells can achieve a dormant, non-replicating state exhibiting

antibiotic tolerance, cell wall thickening and altered cell-wall staining (4-7). The

changes in the cell wall and reduced permeability to antibiotics in stressed cells

(8) suggest that the regulation of the cell wall is a major contributor to antibiotic

tolerance.

The accepted cell wall core architecture of *Mtb* consists of a single mycolyl-

arabinogalactan-peptidoglycan molecule which is composed of three covalently

linked layers (9). A peptidoglycan (PG) layer surrounding the plasma membrane

is covalently bound to an arabinogalactan layer. A lipid layer composed of

mycolic acids surrounds the arabinogalactan layer, and the inner leaflet of this

layer is covalently linked to the arabinogalactan (10). The outer leaflet of the

mycolic acid layer contains free mycolic acids, trehalose mycolates and other

lipids, glycolipids, glycans and proteins (11). The mycolic acid layer is the major

contributor to impermeability of the cell wall (12-14).

While much is known about the cell wall structure of *Mtb*, little is known about its

regulation during stress, or how this contributes to antibiotic tolerance. The

signaling pathways regulating the *Mtb* cell wall likely help it survive in the host.

Reversible protein phosphorylation is a key regulatory tool used by bacteria for

environmental signal transduction to regulate cell growth (15-18). In *Mtb*,

Serine/Threonine phosphorylation is important in cell wall regulation (19). *Mtb*

has 11 Serine/Threonine Protein Kinases (STPKs) (PknA, PknB and PknD-L)

and only one Serine/Threonine protein phosphatase (PstP) (20, 21).

Among the STPKs, PknA and PknB are essential for *Mtb* growth and

phosphorylate substrates involved in cell growth and division (22-26). Some of

these substrates are enzymes whose activity is directly altered by

phosphorylation. For example, all the enzymes in the FAS-II system of mycolic

acid biosynthesis are regulated by threonine phosphorylation (27-33).

There are also cell wall regulators that are not enzymes but whose

phosphorylation by STPKs affects cell shape and growth. For example, the

regulator CwlM activates MurA (26), the first enzyme in PG precursor

biosynthesis (34), when it is phosphorylated by PknB. In the transition to

starvation, CwlM is rapidly dephosphorylated in *Mycobacterium smegmatis*

(*Msmeg)* (26). Misregulation of MurA activity increases sensitivity to antibiotics in

early starvation (26), implying that phospho-regulation of CwlM promotes

antibiotic tolerance. CwlM may also regulate other steps of PG synthesis (35). A

recent phosphoproteomic study showed that transcriptional repression of the

operon that contains both *pstP* and *pknB* leads to increased phosphorylation of

CwlM (36). While the effects of the individual genes were not separated (36), this

suggests that PstP could dephosphorylate CwlM.

PstP is essential in *Mtb* and *Msmeg* (37, 38)*.* It is a member of the Protein

phosphatase 2C (PP2C) subfamily of metal-dependent protein Serine/Threonine

phosphatases (39) which strictly require divalent metal ions for activity (40), (41).

PP2C phosphatases are involved in responding to environmental signals,

regulating metabolic processes, sporulation, cell growth, division and stress

response in a diverse range of prokaryotes and eukaryotes (42-47).

$PstP_{Mtb}$ shares structural folds and conserved residues with the human PP2Cα

(48), which serves as the representative of the PP2C family. $PstP_{Mtb}$ has an N-

terminal cytoplasmic enzymatic domain, a transmembrane pass and a C-terminal

extracellular domain (39) (Fig. 1A).

Many of the proteins known to be dephosphorylated by PstP (27, 39, 49-52) are

involved in cell wall metabolism; however, the effects of this activity differ. For

example, dephosphorylation of CwlM should decrease PG metabolism (26). But

dephosphorylation of all the FAS-II enzymes (27-32) should upregulate lipid

metabolism. As PG and lipid metabolism should be coordinated (53), PstP must

be able to minutely choose its substrates in growth and stasis. For example, we

expect that PstP should dephosphorylate KasA but not CwlM during growth, and

should switch this specificity in stasis.

PstP$_{Mtb}$ is itself phosphorylated on Threonine residues 137, 141, 174 and 290

(49). We hypothesize that phosphorylation of the threonine residues of PstP

might help coordinate activity against different substrates through changes in

access to substrates or binding affinity to substrates or regulators.

We report here that phospho-ablative and phospho-mimetic mutations at the

phospho-site T171 of PstP$_{Msmeg}$ alter growth rate, cell length, cell wall metabolism

and antibiotic tolerance. Strains of *Msmeg* with *pstP* T171E alleles grow slowly,

are unable to properly downregulate PG metabolism and upregulate antibiotic

tolerance in the transition to starvation. We observed that the same mutation has

nearly opposite effects on mycolic acid layer metabolism. We also report that

PstP$_{Mtb}$ dephosphorylates CwlM$_{Mtb.}$

Materials and Methods

Bacterial strains and culture conditions

All *Mycobacterium smegmatis* mc^{2}155 ATCC 700084 cultures were started in 7H9 (Becton, Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ) medium containing 5 g/liter bovine serum albumin (BSA), 2 g/liter dextrose, 0.003 g/liter catalase, 0.85 g/liter NaCl, 0.2% glycerol, and 0.05% Tween 80 and incubated at 37°C up to log. phase. Hartmans-de Bont (HdB) minimal medium made as described previously (54) without glycerol was used for starvation assays. Serial dilutions of all CFU counts were plated on on LB Lennox agar (Fisher BP1427-2).

E. coli Top10, XL1Blue and Dh5α were used for cloning and *E. coli* BL21 Codon Plus was used for protein expression. Antibiotic concentrations for *M. smegmatis* were 25 µg/ml kanamycin. 50 µg/ml hygromycin and 20 µg/ml zeocin. Antibiotic concentrations for *E. coli* were 50 µg/ml kanamycin, 25 µg/ml zeocin, 20 µg/ml chloramphenicol and 140 µg/ml ampicillin.

Strain construction

The PstP*Msmeg*-knockdown strain was made first by creating a merodiploid strain and then by deleting the native *pstPMsmeg* gene from its chromosomal location. The merodiploid strain was generated by introducing a constitutively expressing

pstP$_{Mtb}$ gene cloned on an StrR plasmid at the L5 attB integration site. The

pstP$_{Msmeg}$ gene (MSMEG_0033) at the native locus was then deleted by RecET-

mediated double stranded recombineering approach using a 1.53 kb loxP-hyg-

loxP fragment carrying a 125 bp DNA flanking the *pstP$_{Msmeg}$* gene, as described

(55). The recombineering substrate was generated by two sequential overlapping

PCR of the loxP-hyg-loxP substrate present in the plasmid pKM342. The

downstream flanking primer used in the first PCR also carried an optimized

mycobacterial ribosome binding site in front of the start codon of MSMEG_0032

to facilitate the expression of the genes present downstream of *pstP$_{Msmeg}$* *in* the

Msmeg pstP-pknB operon.

Deletion of the *pstP$_{Msme}$* gene was confirmed by PCR amplification and

sequencing of the 5' and 3' recombinant junctions, and the absence of an internal

wild-type *pstP$_{Msmeg}$* PCR product. The *pstP$_{Mtb}$* allele present at the L5 site was

then swapped, as described (56), with a tet-regulatable *pstP$_{Mtb}$* allele (RevTetR-

P750- *pstP$_{Mtb}$*-DAS tag-L5-Zeo plasmid). The loxP-flanked *hyg* marker present in

the chromosomal locus was then removed by expressing Cre from pCre-sacB-

Kan, and the Cre plasmid was subsequently cured from this strain by plating on

sucrose. We named this strain CB1175.

Different alleles of *pstP* were attained by swapping the Wild-type (WT) allele at

L5 site of CB1175 as described (57). In order to do so, the wild-type (WT) and

the phosphoablative alleles of *pstP$_{Msmeg}$* alleles were at first cloned individually

into a kanamycin resistant-marked L5 vector pCT94 under a TetO promoter to

generate vectors pCB1206-1208 and pCB1210, which would swap out the

zeocin-resistance marked vector at the L5 site in CB1175. The pTetO was a

strong promoter and we were having trouble getting transformants when CB1175

was transformed with these vectors.

So, the TetO promoter was excised from each these constructs and an

intermediate strength promoter p766TetON6 was cloned from the vector

pCB1030 (pGMCgS-TetON-6 sspB) into each of the vectors pCB1206-1208 and

pCB1210 to generate the L5 vectors pCB1282-85 now containing various *pstP*

alleles under p766tetON6. pCB1285 was used as the parent vector to clone in

the phosphomimetic *pstP* alleles under p766TetON6.

These kanamycin resistance-marked vector constructs were then used to swap

out the zeocin resistance-marked vector at the L5 site of CB1175 to attain

different allelic strains of *pstP* as described (57).

Growth Curve assay

Biological triplicates of each strain were grown in 7H9 media up to log. phase.

Growth curve experiment was performed in non-treated 96 well plate using plate

reader (BioTek Synergy neo2 multi mode reader) in 200ul 7H9 media starting at

OD_{600}=0.1 for 16 hours at 37°C. Data was analyzed using the software Prism

(version 7.0d).

Cell staining

For staining cells in log. phase, 100 µl culture in 7H9 was incubated at 37°C with

1ul of 10mM DMN-Tre for 30 minutes and 1µl of 10mM HADA for 15 minutes.

Cells were then pelleted and resuspended in 1x phosphate buffered saline (PBS)

supplemented with 0.05% Tween 80 and fixed with 10µl of 16%

parafolmaldehyde (PFA) for 10 minutes at room temperature. After spinning

down, cells were finally resuspended in PBS + Tween 80.

For starvation microscopy, cultures were shaken for 4 hours in HdB media

without glycerol at 37°C. 500µl of each culture were pelleted and concentrated to

100µl, then incubated at 37°C with 1µl of 10mM DMN-Tre for 1 hour and 3µl of

10mM HADA for 30 minutes. Cells were then washed and fixed as above. The

total time of starvation before fixation was 5.5 hours.

Microscopy and Image Analysis

Cells were imaged with a Nikon Ti-2 widefield epifluorescence microscope with a

Photometrics Prime 95B camera and a Plan Apo 100x, 1.45 numerical aperture

objective lens. The green fluorescence images for DMN-Tre staining were taken

with a 470/40nm excitation filter and a 525/50nm emission filter. Blue

fluorescence images for HADA staining were taken using 350/50nm excitation

filter and 460/50nm emission filter. All images were captured using NIS Elements

software and analyzed using FIJI and MicrobeJ (58)

Western Blots

Cultures were grown in 7H9 to OD_{600}=0.8 in 10ml 7H9 media, pelleted and

resuspended in 500µL PBS with 1mM PMSF and lysed (MiniBeadBeater-16,

Model 607, Biospec). Supernatants from the cell lysate were run on 12%

resolving Tris-Glycine gels and then transferred onto PVDF membrane (GE

Healthcare). Rabbit α-strep antibody (1:1000, Abcam, ab76949) in TBST buffer

with 0.5% milk and goat α-rabbit IgG (H+L) HRP conjugated secondary antibody

(1:10,000, ThermoFisher Scientific 31460) in TBST were used to detect PstP-

strep. For starvation experiments, cultures were first grown to log. phase, then

starved in HdB no glycerol media staring at OD=0.5 for 1.5 hour.

For Western blots of *in vitro* assays, samples were run on 12% SDS gel (Mini-

Protean TGX, Biorad, 4561046) and then transferred onto PVDF membrane (GE

Healthcare). Mouse α-His antibody (1:1000, Genscript A00186) in TBST buffer

with 0.5% BSA and goat α-mouse IgG (H+L) HRP conjugated secondary

antibody (1:10,000, Invitrogen A28177) were used to detect His-tagged proteins

253 on the blot. The blot was stripped off using stripping buffer (Thermo Scientific,

254 21059) and re-probed with Rabbit α-Phospho-Threonine antibody (1:1000, Cell

255 Signaling #9381) and goat α-rabbit IgG (H+L) HRP conjugated secondary

256 antibody (1:10,000, ThermoFisher Scientific 31460) to detect phosphorylation on

257 the blot.

259 **Antibiotic assays**

261 For antibiotic assays in log. phase, log. phase cultures were diluted in 7H9 media

262 to OD600= 0.05 before treatment. For starvation assays, cells were grown to

263 OD_{600}=0.5, pelleted, washed and resuspended in HdB starvation (with no

264 glycerol and 0.05% Tween) media at OD_{600}=0.3 and incubated at 37°C for a total

265 of five a half hours. The cultures were then diluted to OD_{600}=0.05 before antibiotic

266 treatment. 8 µg/ml and 45 µg/ml Meropenem was used for log. phase and

267 starved cultures, respectively. 10 µg/ml and 90 ug/ml Isoniazid was added to log-

268 phase and starved cultures, respectively. Samples from the culture were serially

269 diluted and plated on LB agar before and after treatment, and colony forming

270 units were calculated.

272 **Protein Purification**

274 All the proteins were expressed using *E. coli* BL 21 Codon Plus cells.

N-terminally his-MBP tagged PknB$_{Mtb}$ was expressed and purified as described

(59). His-PstP$_c$WT$_{Mtb}$ (1-300 amino acids of the cytosolic domain, (60)) and His-

SUMO-CwlM$_{Mtb}$ were both expressed overnight by IPTG induction, purified on Ni-

NTA resin (G-Biosciences, #786-940 in 5 ml Bio-Scale™ Mini Cartridges, BioRad

#7324661), then dialyzed, concentrated and run over size exclusion resin (GE

Biosciences Sephacryl S-200 in HiPrep 26/70 column) to obtain soluble proteins.

The buffer for His-SUMO-CwlM$_{Mtb}$ was 50mM Tris pH 8, 350mM NaCl, 1mM DTT

and 10% glycerol. The buffer for His-PstP$_c$WT$_{Mtb}$ was 50mM Tris pH 7.5, 350mM

NaCl, 1mM DTT and 10% glycerol. 20mM imidazole was added to each buffer for

lysis and application to the Ni-NTA column, and 250mM imidazole was added for

elution. His-PstP$_c$T174E$_{Mtb}$ was expressed and purified using the same conditions

and buffers used for His-PstP$_c$WT$_{Mtb}$.

***In vitro* Dephosphorylation assay**

Purified His-SUMO-CwlM$_{Mtb}$ was phosphorylated with the purified kinase His-

MBP-PknB$_{Mtb}$ for 1 hour at room temperature in presence of 0.5mM ATP, 1mM

MnCl$_2$ and buffer (50mM Tris pH 7.5, 250mM NaCl, and 1mM DTT). The amount

of kinase was one-tenth of the amount of substrate in the phosphorylation

reaction. To stop the kinase reaction by depleting ATP, 0.434 units of calf

intestinal alkaline phosphatase (Quick CIP, NEB, MO525S) per µg of His-SUMO-

CwlM$_{Mtb}$ was added to the reaction mixture and incubated for 1 hour at 37°C. The

reaction mixture was then divided into five parts for the different phosphatase

samples and a control with buffer.

Two individually expressed and purified batches of both His-PstP$_c$WT$_{Mtb}$ and His-

PstP$_c$T1714E$_{Mtb}$ were used as biological replicates to perform the

dephosphorylation assay. The reaction was carried out at room temperature for

up to 90 minutes in presence of phosphatase buffer (50mM Tris pH 7.5, 10mM

MnCl$_2$, and 1mM DTT). The amount of phosphatase used was half the amount of

His-SUMO-CwlM$_{Mtb}$.

Results

Phospho-site T171 of PstP$_{Msmeg}$ has an impact on growth

PstP is necessary for cell growth in *Msmeg* (36, 37) and phosphorylation

increases PstP$_{Mtb}$'s activity against small molecule substrates *in vitro* (36, 37, 49).

We wanted to see if the phosphorylations on PstP regulate cell growth.

Threonines T134, T138, and T171 in PstP$_{Msmeg}$ correspond to the phospho-sites

on PstP$_{Mtb}$ (49) (Fig. 1A). We constructed an *Msmeg* strain with one copy of *pstP*

at the L5 phage integrase site using recombineering (61). We then exchanged

the wild-type allele for either phospho-ablative (T>A) or phospho-mimetic (T>E)

alleles at each of the three conserved phosphorylation sites (57, 62).

We performed growth curves with several clones of each mutant allele. We found

that the biological replicates of the T134A, T134E, T138A and T138E mutant

strains had bi-modal distributions of doubling times (Fig. 1B). T134 and T138

map to the flap subdomain of PstP$_{Mtb}$ (Fig. 1A). This subdomain varies greatly in

sequence and structure across different PP2C family members and has been

FIG 1 Phosphosite T171 on PstP affects growth.

(A) Crystal structure of PstP from *M. tuberculosis (*PstP$_{Mtb}$) (48). The threonine (T) sites on

PstP$_{Mtb}$ phosphorylated by the kinases PknA and PknB (49) are highlighted on the structure: red-

PstP$_{Mtb}$ T137 (T134 in PstP$_{Msmeg}$), blue- PstP$_{Mtb}$ T141 (T138 in PstP$_{Msmeg}$) and green- PstP$_{Mtb}$

T174 (T171 in PstP$_{Msmeg}$).

(B) Doubling times of strains containing *pstP$_{Msmeg}$*WT, phosphoablative mutant alleles *pstP$_{Msmeg}$*

T134A, T138A and T171A and phosphomimetic mutant alleles *pstP$_{Msmeg}$* T134E, T138E and

T171E. Each dot is the mean of doubling times from two to three different experiments on

different dates of a single isolated clone. The error bars represent the standard deviation. P

value= 0.0009.

shown to be important in regulating substrate binding, specificity and catalytic

activity (48, 63-65). Particularly, T138A and T138E variants of the serine

threonine phosphatase tPphA from *Thermosynechococcus elongatus* showed

differences in substrate reactivity (63). This suggests that phosphorylation at

T134 and T138 could be very important in regulating the normal activity of

PstP*Msmeg* in the cell. We suspect that these mutations impaired growth so

severely that suppressor mutations formed in several of the biological replicates,

giving rise to the inconsistent growth rates.

The *Msmeg* strains with *pstP* T171A and T171E mutations showed consistent

and reproducible growth rates (Fig. 1B). The T171A mutants grew normally, but

the T171E grew more slowly than the wild-type. Since T171E mimics constitutive

phosphorylation, this result suggests that the continuous presence of a

phosphate on T171 inhibits cell growth.

Phospho-site T171 of PstP*Msmeg* regulates cell length

To assess how phosphorylation on T171 affects growth, we examined the cell

morphology of *Msmeg pstP* T171 mutants and wild-type (Fig. 2A and B).

FIG 2 Phosphosite T171 on PstP*Msmeg* is important in regulating the cell length.

(A) Quantification of cell lengths of isogenic *pstP* allele strains (WT, T17A and T171E) grown in

7H9 in log. phase. 100 cells from each of three biological replicates were measured. P values

were calculated by unpaired t-test. P value = 0.000005.

(B) Representative phase images of cells from (A).

(C) Quantification of cell lengths of isogenic *pstP* allele strains (WT, T17A and T171E) after

starvation in HdB with no glycerol for five and a half hours. 100 cells from each of three biological

replicates were measured. P values were calculated by unpaired t-test. P value= 0.000003.

(D) Representative phase images of cells from (C).

pstP T171A cells were about 0.5 µm shorter than the wild-type cells, on average.

Because this strain grew at the same rate as wild-type (Fig.1B), we assume that

the rate of cell elongation is the same, but that septation may be cued at shorter

cell lengths. The *pstP* T171E strain has cell lengths similar to the wild-type (Fig.

2A and B) despite the slower growth (Fig. 1B). This suggests that

phosphorylation on T171 may downregulate elongation and division equally.

PstP could promote the transition from growth to stasis by downregulating the

activity of PknA, PknB or CwlM (26, 36, 39, 49, 52). To test if the phospho-site

T171 of PstP$_{Msmeg}$ affects cell length in the transition to stasis, we transferred the

T171 allele variant strains from log. phase to minimal HdB media with Tween 80

as the only source of carbon, which leads *Msmeg* cells to reductively divide (66).

We aerated the cultures for 5.5 hours before imaging (Fig. 2C and D). The

effects of phospho-mutations of PstP$_{Msmeg}$ on starved cells were the inverse of

what we saw in the log. phase. *pstP*$_{Msmeg}$ T171E cells in starvation were longer

than the wild-type and T171A. These data imply that phosphorylation on

PstP$_{Msmeg}$ T171 either slows reductive division or inhibits the downregulation of

cell elongation in the transition to stasis. These data suggest that

phosphorylation on T171 of PstP$_{Msmeg}$ may alter PstP's activity towards cell

growth substrates.

Phospho-site T171 of PstP$_{Msmeg}$ regulates cell wall metabolism.

Since *pstP$_{Msmeg}$* T171 seem to play a role in regulating cell length in growth and

stasis, we hypothesized that it affects cell wall metabolism in different phases. To

test this, we used fluorescent dyes that are incorporated into either the PG or

mycolic acid cell wall layers and which preferentially stain metabolically active

cell wall (67-69). We stained T171 allele variant cells from log. phase and after

5.5 hours of carbon starvation with both the fluorescent D-amino acid HADA (67,

68) (Fig. 3A, C, D and F) and the fluorescent trehalose DMN-Tre (69) (Fig. 3B, C,

E and F).

The PG staining intensity between the strains was the same in log. phase (Fig.

3A). In starvation, the *pstP$_{Msmeg}$* T171E mutant stained much more brightly than

the other strains (Fig. 3D). This suggests that phosphorylation on PstP$_{Msmeg}$ T171

may inhibit the downregulation of PG synthesis in the transition to stasis, but that

this phospho-site is not important in PG metabolism during rapid growth.

FIG 3 Phosphosite T171 of PstP alters cell wall staining.

(A) and (B) Quantification of mean intensities of HADA (A) and DMN-Tre (B) signals of *pstP* allele

strains (WT, T17A and T171E) in log. phase cells. Signals from 100 cells from each of three

biological replicates were measured using MicrobeJ. P values were calculated by unpaired t-test.

P values of both WT vs. T171A and WT vs. T171E= 0.000001.

(C) Representative micrographs of log-phase cells from (A) and (B) stained with the fluorescent

dyes HADA (blue) and DMN-Tre (green). Corresponding phase images are shown on the bottom

panel. The scale bar applies to all images.

(D) and (E) Quantification of mean intensities of HADA and DMN-Tre signals of starved *pstP*

allele strains (WT, T17A and T171E) in HdB with no glycerol. Signal from 100 cells from each of

three biological replicates were measured using MicrobeJ. P values were calculated by unpaired

t-test. P value of WT vs. T171A= 0.0002 and WT vs. T171E = 0.000001.

(F) Representative micrographs of starved cells from (D) stained with the fluorescent dye HADA

(blue) and (E) stained with the fluorescent dye DMN-Tre (green). Corresponding phase images

are shown on the bottom panel. The scale bar applies to all images.

Staining with DMN-Tre, which correlates with assembly of the mycolic acid cell

wall layer (69), shows the inverse pattern. The strains stain similarly in starvation

(Fig. 3E). In log. phase, however, both mutants show a significant decrease in

DMN-Tre signal compared to the wild-type (Fig. 3B), though the $pstP_{Msmeg}$ T171E

mutant has weaker staining that $pstP_{Msmeg}$ T171A. These data imply that mycolic

acid synthesis is regulated by phosphorylation of PstP T171 in log. phase, but

not in starvation. Since all the FAS-II enzymes which make mycolic acids are

inhibited by threonine phosphorylation (27-32), we expect that activation of PstP

should increase mycolic acid synthesis. These data indicate that phosphorylation

on $PstP_{Msmeg}$ T171 regulates mycolic acid synthesis enzymes during growth, but

not in starvation.

Phospho-site T171 of $PstP_{Msmeg}$ affects antibiotic tolerance

Stresses that arrest cell growth can cause mycobacteria to become tolerant to

antibiotics (8, 70-73). We hypothesized that if *Msmeg* fails to downregulate PG

synthesis in starvation, (Fig. 3D), then it should be more susceptible to a PG

targeting drug. We treated $PstP_{Msmeg}$ wild-type, T171A and T171E strains in log.

phase and after 5.5 hours of starvation with meropenem, and quantified survival

using a CFU assay. We saw that the *pstP*$_{Msmeg}$ 171E strain was more tolerant to

meropenem in log. phase (Fig. 4A), but more susceptible in starvation, compared

to *pstP*$_{Msmeg}$ T171A and wild-type strains (Fig. 4B).

FIG 4 Phospho-site T171 of PstP plays a role in antibiotic sensitivity.

(A) Survival curve of *pstP* allele strains (WT, T17A and T171E) grown in 7H9 treated with 8ug/ml

of Meropenem.

(B) Survival curve of isogenic *pstP* allele strains starved in HdB (no Glycerol, 0.05% Tween) for

five and a half hours and then treated with 45ug/ml of Meropenem.

(C) Survival curve of *pstP* allele strains (WT, T17A and T171E) grown in 7H9 treated with

10ug/ml of Isoniazid.

(D) Survival curve of isogenic *pstP* allele strains starved in HdB (no Glycerol, 0.05% Tween) for

five and a half hours and then treated with 90ug/ml of Isoniazid.

The slower growth of the *pstP*$_{Msmeg}$ T171E strain in log. phase may account for

the greater tolerance in that condition. The apparent failure of the *pstP*$_{Msmeg}$

T171E strain to downregulate PG synthesis (Fig. 3D) likely makes it more

sensitive to PG inhibitors in starvation.

Next, we treated our wild-type and *pstP*$_{Msmeg}$ T171 mutant strains with isoniazid,

which targets InhA in the FAS-II pathway of mycolic acid synthesis (74). In log.

phase, we see that the *pstP*$_{Msmeg}$ T171E strain is more susceptible to isoniazid

than the *pstP*$_{Msmeg}$ T171A and the wild-type strains (Fig. 4C). Phosphorylation

inhibits the activity of InhA (30, 32). Our model is that, PstP might be the

phosphatase of InhA and the T171E phospho-form may dephosphorylate InhA~P

more slowly than the unphosphorylated form in log. phase. Thus the pool of

active InhA may be decreased in the T171E strain and the cells are sensitized to

further InhA inhibition by isoniazid. Another possibility is that PstP$_{Msmeg}$ T171E

likely cannot properly regulate its activity against the FAS-II enzymes, and the

misregulation of the pathway increases sensitivity to pathway inhibitors. We don't

see significant differences in isoniazid sensitivity between the strains in starvation

(Fig. 4D), which corroborates the observation that there is no difference in DMN-

Tre staining either in starvation (Fig. 3E). Thus, it seems that phosphorylation on

T171 affects PstP's activity against FAS-II enzymes in log. phase, but not

starvation.

PstP$_{Mtb}$ dephosphorylates CwlM$_{Mtb}$

Only a few endogenous substrates of PstP have been reported: some STPKs

including PknA and PknB, (39, 49, 51, 52), KasA and KasB (27, 49, 51), and

EmbR (50). The STPK PknB phosphorylates CwlM, which is a regulator of PG

biosynthesis (26). The phosphoform of CwlM interacts with and activates MurA

(26), the first enzyme in PG precursor synthesis pathway (34). CwlM is rapidly

dephosphorylated in transition to starvation in *Msmeg* (26), and becomes hyper-

phosphorylated when PstP is depleted in *Msmeg* (36).

FIG 5 PstP$_{Mtb}$ dephosphorylates CwlM$_{Mtb.}$

(A) α-P-Thr and α-His Western blots of *in vitro* phosphatase reactions with His-PstP$_c$WT$_{Mtb}$ (top

panel) and His-PstP$_c$T174E$_{Mtb}$ (bottom panel) and phosphorylated His-SUMO-CwlM$_{Mtb}$. Assay was

performed at least twice with two individually purified batches of each phosphatase, one set of

images is shown here.

(B) Quantification of relative intensities of α-P-Thr and α-His signal on Western blot using ImageJ.

The graph was plotted with relative intensities of α-P-Thr/relative intensities of α-His from assay

performed with different preparations of His-PstP$_c$WT$_{Mtb\ and}$ His-PstP$_c$T174E$_{Mtb.}$

To test whether PstP directly dephosphorylates CwlM, we performed an in *vitro*

biochemical assay with purified *Mtb* proteins. We purified His-MBP-PknB$_{Mtb}$, His-

SUMO-CwlM$_{Mtb}$ and the cytoplasmic region of PstPWT$_{Mtb}$ (His-PstP$_c$WT$_{Mtb}$). We

phosphorylated His-SUMO-CwlM$_{Mtb}$ by His-MBP-PknB$_{Mtb}$, stopped the

phosphorylation reaction with Calf Intestinal Phosphatase, and then added His-

PstP$_c$WT$_{Mtb}$ to His-SUMO-CwlM$_{Mtb}$~P. We found that the phosphorylation signal

on His-SUMO-CwlM$_{Mtb}$ started decreasing within 5 minutes after addition of His-

PstP$_c$WT$_{Mtb}$ and kept decreasing over a period of 90 minutes (Fig. 5A, top panel).

This is direct biochemical evidence that CwlM$_{Mtb}$ is a substrate of PstP$_{Mtb}$. These

data with *Mtb* proteins support our model that PstP regulates PG metabolism by

dephosphorylating CwlM.

Phosphosite T174 of PstP$_{Mtb}$ does not affect rate of dephosphorylation of

CwlM$_{Mtb}$ in vitro

Our data in Fig. 3D suggest that phosphorylation on PstP$_{Msmeg}$ T171 impacts PG

metabolism in starvation, possibly by downregulating PstP's dephosphorylation

activity against CwlM~P. We wanted to see if phosphorylation on the

corresponding phosphosite T174 in PstP$_{Mtb}$ affected its activity in

dephosphorylating CwlM$_{Mtb}$ in *vitro*.

PstP can dephosphorylate itself (49), so the purified form is unphosphorylated.

We performed a phosphatase assay with His-PstP$_c$T174E$_{Mtb}$ and His-SUMO-

CwlM$_{Mtb}$ (Fig. 5A, bottom panel). We observed that the WT and T174

phosphomimimetic forms of PstP$_{Mtb}$ have similar rates of activity against His-

SUMO-CwlM$_{Mtb}$ *in vitro* (Fig. 5B).

Discussion

Previous studies on mycobacterial phospho-regulation suggest that PstP could

play a critical role in modulating cell wall metabolism in the transition between

growth and stasis (26, 27, 36, 49, 52, 53, 71, 75). In this work, we explored how

the phosphorylation of PstP contributes to this regulation. We report here that the

phospho-site T171 of PstP$_{Msmeg}$ impacts growth, cell wall metabolism and

antibiotic tolerance. We found that the PG master regulator CwlM$_{Mtb}$ is a

substrate of PstP$_{Mtb}$.

Our findings indicate that the phosphorylation on PstP affects PG metabolism in

stasis and the mycolic acid metabolism during growth.

PstP's phospho-site T171 helps regulate reductive cell division. The cell length of

Msmeg has been observed to decrease from ~5µm to ~1.5µm in certain carbon

starvation conditions (66). It is assumed that this is due to reductive cell division

(68, 76), wherein the relative activity of division increases compared to

elongation. We consider this an increase in division/elongation. In *Mtb*, cell length

increases in chronic infection through destabilization of FtsB (77); this involves

decreasing division/elongation activity. Thus, both *Msmeg* and *Mtb* change their

relative division and elongation activities depending on environment, leading to

changes in cell length. We understand very little about the factors that control this

regulation. In *E. coli* and *B. subtilis*, cell length is increased in nutrient rich

conditions through inhibition of the assembly of division factor FtsZ (78, 79).

How might PstP help regulate the division/elongation balance in mycobacteria?

In *Mtb*, FtsZ's GTPase activity and polymerization is inhibited by phosphorylation,

catalyzed by PknA (80). If PstP is the phosphatase for FtsZ, its activity should

promote division. In the transition to starvation, *Msmeg* increases

division/elongation, and we might expect that PstP would be even more active

against FtsZ, thus promoting division. Or, PstP could decrease elongation. RodA,

which is likely to be a elongative PG transglycosylase (81, 82) seems to be

activated by phosphorylation in *Mtb* (82). So, PstP could dephosphorylate RodA

to slow elongation, thus increasing division/elongation. Our data show that the

PstP$_{Msmeg}$ T171 phospho-mimetic strain fails to reductively divide (Fig. 2C) in

stasis. If PstP's putative activity against FtsZ or RodA is critical for this reductive

cell division, then phosphorylation on T171 may inhibit PstP's activity against

both FtsZ and RodA. PstP has not yet been shown to dephosphorylate FtsZ or

RodA, but it is known to dephosphorylate PknA (49), the kinase for FtsZ and

PknB the kinase for RodA (82).

PstP seem to control PG and mycolic acid metabolism differently in growth and

the transition to stasis. Our data suggest that PstP T171 mainly regulates PG in

the transition to stasis (Fig. 3D and F) while its role in mycolic acid metabolism

may be restricted to log. phase (Fig. 3B and C). PG is activated by

phosphorylation at several points along the biosynthesis pathway (26, 35, 82,

83). PknB likely serves as a master regulator and checkpoint in this pathway by

detecting periplasmic lipid II (84), and changing its phosphorylation of PG factors

in response. PstP may not be very active against these factors in log. phase,

which would explain why the mutations at T171 of PstP do not affect PG

metabolism in growth (Fig. 3A and C).

Synthesis of the various cell wall layers must be synchronized to maintain cell

wall integrity. We think that PknB is a big player in connecting PG and mycolic

acid metabolism during growth. If PG metabolism is slowed, PknB could sense

the accumulation of periplasmic lipid II (84) and signal to halt mycolic acid

biosynthesis by inactivating the FAS-II enzymes and the trehalose monomycolate

transporter MmpL3 (85) via phosphorylation (27-32, 85). Our data imply that PstP

helps balance the effects of these inhibitory phosphorylations to allow

coordinated growth in log. phase (Fig. 3B and C). Misphosphorylation of PstP

likely disrupts this coordination and seems to decrease mycolic acid metabolism.

It is likely that other regulatory systems such as transcriptional control by SigB,

Rel, SigE or MtrA (71, 86-89), (90) predominate over phosphorylation in

controlling mycolic acid synthesis in the transition to stasis (Fig. 3E and F).

The phosphorylation of PstP may govern its interaction with other proteins or

localization in order to control substrate specificity. Our data (Fig. 3D) show that

the PstP$_{Msmeg}$ T171 phosphomimetic strain fails to downregulate PG in starvation

in vivo. We expect that PstP's activity against the PG master regulator CwlM (Fig

5A, top panel) should be critical for this downregulation because it should de-

activate MurA, the first enzyme in PG precursor synthesis (26, 34). In view of the

in vivo data, we expected that the PstP$_{Msmeg}$ T174E phosphomimetic variant

would dephosphorylate CwlM more slowly *in vitro*, but we observed no difference

in dephosphorylation rate (Fig. 5B). Why does this phosphosite not affect PstP's

activity *in vitro*? The proximity of a phosphosite to the substrate binding site of an

enzyme may affect the catalytic activity directly (91) but T174 maps to the β-

sheet core (β8) in PstP$_{Mtb}$, which is distant from the active site (Fig. 1A) (48). *In*

vivo, it is possible that phosphorylation at this site may affect PstP's interaction

with other regulatory proteins (92) that could affect activity against different

substrates, or it could affect access to substrates via localization changes.

Nevertheless, the effect of this phospho-site on PstP's catalytic activity need to

be tested on more substrates in future studies.

We see that PstP regulates antibiotic tolerance in *Msmeg* in both growth and

stasis. Our staining experiments imply that PstP T171 influences mycolic acid

synthesis in growth (Fig. 3B and C) and PG synthesis in starvation (Fig. 3D and

F). Our tests of tolerance to killing by mycolic acid-targeting (Fig. 4C) and PG-

targeting (Fig. 4B) antibiotics corroborate the staining data. We propose that

PstP may be an Achilles' heel of *Mtb*. It is an essential enzyme, so inhibiting it should kill growing *Mtb* directly. But, it is also a master regulator of antibiotic tolerance under stress, so inhibiting PstP should misregulate the cell wall and increase permeability to other antibiotics.

Acknowledgment

This work was supported by grant 1R15GM131317-01 from the National Institutes of Health, and by startup funds from the University of Texas at Arlington. We thank Kenan Murphy for the plasmids pDE54MCZD and pKM55 and Dirk Schnappinger for pDE43-MCS and RevTetR promoter plasmids used in this study.

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998   Figure S1

Expression of allelic variants of strep-tagged PstP$_{Msmeg}$

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1001   Figure S1: α-strep Western blots of allelic variants of strep-tagged PstP$_{Msmeg}$ in log (left

1002   panel) and starvation phase (right panel). A non-specific band at the bottom in all strains

1003   was seen in the blots.

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