A Division of Labor in the Recruitment and Topological Organization of a
Bacterial Morphogenic Complex

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Abstract

Bacteria come in an array of shapes and sizes, but the mechanisms underlying diverse

morphologies are poorly understood. The peptidoglycan (PG) cell wall is the primary

determinant of cell shape. At the molecular level, much of the studied morphological

variation results from the regulation of PG synthesis enzymes involved in cell elongation

and division. These enzymes are spatially controlled by cytoskeletal scaffolding

proteins, such as FtsZ, MreB, and DivIVA, that both recruit and organize the PG

synthesis complex. How then do cells define alternative morphogenic processes that

are distinct from cell elongation and division? To address this question, we have turned

to the specific morphotype of Alphaproteobacterial prosthecae, or "stalks". Stalk

synthesis is a specialized form of zonal growth, which requires PG synthesis in a

spatially constrained zone to extend a thin cylindrical projection of the cell envelope

devoid of DNA and ribosomes. The morphogen SpmX defines the site of stalk PG

synthesis, but SpmX is a PG hydrolase. How then does a non-cytoskeletal protein,

SpmX, define and constrain PG synthesis to form stalks? Here we report that SpmX

and the bactofilin BacA act in concert to regulate stalk synthesis in *Asticcacaulis*

biprosthecum. We show that SpmX acts to recruit BacA to the site of stalk synthesis.

BacA then serves as a stalk-specific topological organizer that organizes PG synthesis

activity, including its recruiter SpmX, to the base of the stalk, where stalk PG synthesis

occurs. In the absence of BacA, cells produce "pseudostalks" that are the result of

unconstrained PG synthesis correlated with the mislocalization of SpmX. Finally, we

show that BacA is required to inhibit PG synthesis associated with cell

elongation/division and to prevent DNA entry at the site of stalk synthesis defined by

SpmX. Therefore, the protein responsible for recruitment of a morphogenic PG

remodeling complex, SpmX, is distinct from the protein that topologically organizes the

complex, BacA.

Introduction

Introduction

Bacterial cells come in a panoply of shapes and sizes, from the ubiquitous rods and

cocci to hyphal, star-shaped, and appendaged bacteria [1]. In addition to shapes that

are reproduced faithfully across generations, bacterial cells can dynamically change

shape in response to environmental conditions or through a programmed life cycle [1-3].

The shape of most bacteria is determined by the peptidoglycan (PG) cell wall, and the

resulting morphology is the product of complex interactions between the proteins and

regulatory elements that compose the PG biosynthetic machinery. Much morphological

variation results from the differential regulation of divisome or elongasome proteins. For

example, the suppression of divisome proteins allows ovococcoid bacteria to form rods

under certain biofilm conditions or pathogenic rod-shaped bacteria to filament during

infection [3-6]. Filamentous Streptomycetes form branching hyphae by localizing the

same elongation machinery in different places [3, 7]. How then do cells define a new

morphological process that is distinct from the elongasome or divisome, but still

operates in the context of those critical PG synthesis modes? To address this question,

we have turned to the specific morphotype of Alphaproteobacterial prosthecae.

Prosthecae, or "stalks," are non-essential extensions of the bacterial cell body thought

to play a role in nutrient uptake [8, 9]. Stalk synthesis requires PG synthesis in a

spatially constrained zone in order to extend a thin cylindrical projection of the cell

envelope. The stalk is compartmentalized from the cytoplasm, as it is devoid of DNA

and ribosomes and excludes even small cytoplasmic proteins such as GFP [9].

Asticcacaulis biprosthecum, a gram negative Alphaproteobacterium from the

Caulobacteraceae family [10], produces two bilateral stalks whose synthesis depends

on PG synthesis at the base of the incipient stalk structures (red arrows in Figure 1A)

[11]. How do cells harness PG synthesis machinery to produce stalks while preventing

its typical function of cell elongation or division?

Here we report how a recently identified class of bacterial cytoskeletal protein, known as

"bactofilin" (BacA), plays a dual role by defining the topography of PG synthesis for the

synthesis of stalks and by inhibiting a default cell elongation mode at that same site in

A. biprosthecum. Bactofilins are conserved throughout the bacterial kingdom and are

characterized by the presence of a central conserved DUF583 (or "bactofilin") domain

flanked by N- and C-terminal regions of variable length and sequence (Figure 1B) [12].

Bactofilins are involved in cell shape determination in a number of species. For

example, in the helical *Helicobacter pylori* and *Leptospira biflexa*, bactofilins are

required for proper helical shape generation [13, 14]. In *Caulobacter crescentus*,

bactofilins optimize the rate of stalk synthesis at the cell pole by a yet unknown

mechanism [12]. A bactofilin mutant of *C. crescentus* still synthesizes stalks normally in

a complex medium and exhibits a 50% reduction in stalk length under phosphate

starvation where stalk elongation is strongly stimulated. While bactofilin recruits PbpC,

whose mutant leads to a similar modest reduction in stalk length, a bactofilin mutant still

exhibits strong PG synthesis activity similar to wild-type cells, indicating that *C.*

crescentus bactofilin is not required for stalk PG synthesis. Therefore, it is not well

understood how bactofilins exert an effect on morphology, but a common theme

appears to be association or direct interaction with PG modifying enzymes.

The best studied bacterial cytoskeletal proteins (MreB, FtsZ, and DivIVA) serve dual

roles as both recruiters and organizers of the proteins for their respective PG synthesis

complexes. In contrast, we show that the roles of recruiter and organizer of PG

synthesis have undergone a division of labor in *A. biprosthecum* stalk synthesis, where

a morphogen, SpmX, recruits its own organizing cytoskeletal protein, BacA. Our prior

work established that the recruitment of the stalk PG synthesis machinery is performed

by the modular morphogen SpmX: changing SpmX location is sufficient to drive stalk

synthesis at a new site [11], much like changing the position of FtsZ changes the

location of the site of cell division. However, SpmX is a PG hydrolase, not a cytoskeletal

protein [11, 15]. How then does a non-cytoskeletal protein, SpmX, define and constrain

PG synthesis to form stalks? In this work, we identify BacA as a cytoskeletal scaffolding

protein that provides topological specificity to stalk PG synthesis, including to the

recruiter SpmX itself. We apply genetics, cell biology, microscopy, chemical labeling,

and quantitative analysis to examine the interconnected roles of the morphogen SpmX

and the bactofilin BacA in *A. biprosthecum* stalk synthesis. We present evidence that

SpmX and BacA act in a coordinated fashion to initiate and regulate stalk synthesis.

SpmX acts as the recruiter of the stalk synthesis complex, including BacA. BacA then

serves as a stalk-specific cytoskeletal scaffolding protein that anchors the putative

synthesis complex, including SpmX, to the base of the stalk, and defines the width of

the complex. In the absence of BacA, cells produce abnormal "pseudostalks" that are

the result of unconstrained PG synthesis correlated with the mislocalization of SpmX.

Finally, we show that BacA is required to block PG synthesis involved in cell elongation

and division, as well as DNA, from the site of stalk synthesis defined by SpmX.

Therefore, the protein responsible for recruitment of a morphogenic PG remodeling

complex, SpmX, is different than the protein that topologically organizes the complex,

BacA. Such separation of the recruitment and scaffolding activities in two different

proteins may prove more versatile for morphogenetic events that do not simply involve

modulation of cell elongation or division.

Results

A. biprosthecum encodes a single bactofilin gene whose product self-polymerizes *in vitro*

A. biprosthecum has proven to be a better system than *C. crescentus* to identify genes required for stalk synthesis because: 1) with the exception of a *C. crescentus* MreB-mCherry sandwich fusion that acts through an unknown mechanism to block stalk synthesis [16], the *A. biprosthecum spmX* mutant is the only known stalkless mutant in any Caulobacterales species whose phenotype is not bypassed by phosphate starvation [11, 17, 18], which stimulates stalk synthesis [11, 19-21]; 2) *A. biprosthecum* stalks are located at midcell, away from the myriad of polarly localized proteins involved in *C. crescentus* development and cell cycle progression [22-25], eliminating any potentially confounding co-localization or interaction data; and 3) many of the genetic tools developed for *C. crescentus* work in *A. biprosthecum*. In *C. crescentus*, deletion of the bactofilin genes *bacA* and *bacB* (for clarity, these will be referred to as "*bacA_{Cc}*" and "*bacB_{Cc}*") leads to a slight reduction in the length of otherwise normal stalks [12, 26, 27]. Only one bactofilin homolog was found in the *A. biprosthecum* genome, which we have named "*bacA*" due to its bidirectional best hit in *C. crescentus* being *bacA_{Cc}* (Figure 1C). The genomic arrangement of the *A. biprosthecum bacA* locus is similar to that of *C. crescentus bacA_{Cc}*, with a putative M23 family metallopeptidase gene (CC1872/ABI_34190) directly upstream and overlapping the *bacA_{Cc}/bacA* coding regions, and a putative peroxiredoxin gene (CC1871/ABI_34200) further upstream (Figure 1C). Downstream of and convergent to *bacA* lies a hypothetical gene (Figure 1C). BacA exhibits high sequence and predicted structural similarity to the *C. crescentus* bactofilins, with a central DUF583 domain composed of repeating β strands flanked by proline-rich N- and C-termini, suggesting similar biochemical properties (Figure 1D).

Indeed, BacA$_{Cc}$ can self-assemble *in vitro* into filaments, filament bundles, and sheets

[12, 28]. To test if *A. biprosthecum* BacA is a self-polymerizing protein, we

overexpressed and purified both BacA$_{Cc}$ and BacA in *Escherichia coli* and visualized the

purified proteins via transmission electron microscopy (TEM) (Figure 1E). While BacA$_{Cc}$

readily polymerized in various environments (salt, pH, chaotropic agent), under similar

conditions BacA formed proteins aggregates instead of filaments. While most conditions

tested did not improve BacA solubility, addition of high detergent concentration (10%

Triton X-100) allowed filament formation. The TEM micrographs show that both

bactofilin proteins, BacA$_{Cc}$ and BacA, self-polymerize *in vitro* to form protofilament

bundles, with BacA forming 90 nm wide filaments made of single filaments stacked

together through lateral-lateral interactions*,* similar to BacA$_{Cc}$ (Figure 1E; red arrows

indicate BacA protofilaments).

BacA is required for stalk synthesis

In *C. crescentus*, deletion of the bactofilin homologs *bacA$_{Cc}$* and/or *bacB$_{Cc}$* does not

abrogate stalk synthesis or impact stalk ultrastructure, but results in a slight reduction in

stalk length under stalk synthesis-stimulating, phosphate-limited conditions, and does

not impact the strong PG synthesis activity at the base of the stalk [12]. This suggests

that, in *C. crescentus*, deletion of *bacAB$_{Cc}$* affects only stalk longitudinal extension and

to a limited extent [12]. Strikingly, ~95% of *A. biprosthecum* Δ*bacA* mutant cells were

completely stalkless when grown in the rich medium PYE, with a small proportion of

cells exhibiting bump-like protrusions at the midcell where stalks would normally be

found (Figure S1). Since growth in rich medium may mask latent stalk phenotypes [11,

21], the Δ*bacA* mutant was studied under phosphate starvation, which stimulates stalk

synthesis [11, 19-21].

In low phosphate medium, more than half (58% ± 12%) of WT cells possessed a visible

cell body extension, all of which were stalks (Figure 2). In the ∆bacA mutant, only 3% ±

2% of total cells produced a stalk (Figure 2). Instead of synthesizing wildtype stalks, the

∆bacA mutant produced short, wide protrusions at the bilateral positions where stalks

are normally synthesized, which we have termed "pseudostalks" (Figure 2A and red

arrows in Figure 2B). Under phosphate starvation, the stalks produced by WT cells were

7.3 ± 3.7 µm long and 171 ± 13 nm in diameter at the base (Figure 2). Pseudostalks

were significantly shorter than stalks at 0.9 ± 0.5 µm long (~88% decrease in length

compared to WT), were more variable in diameter, and were often branched or

"frazzled" at the ends (Figure 2). Pseudostalks were significantly wider in diameter at

the base, 392 ± 73 nm or an ~129% increase in width compared to WT (Figure 2).

The presence of a low-copy plasmid encoding bacA expressed from its native promoter

restored stalk diameter a to WT levels (178 ± 20 nm vs. 171 ± 13 nm, respectively),

suggesting that BacA plays a key role in determining and maintaining stalk width (Figure

2). In addition, 28% ± 6% of complemented ∆bacA cells produced WT-like stalks, a 10-

fold increase over the mutant (Figure 2). Complemented ∆bacA cells produced stalks

2.4 ± 2.0 µm long that, while shorter than WT stalks, were significantly longer than

∆bacA pseudostalks (Figure 2). It is unlikely that the less efficient complementation of

stalk number and length are due to polarity effects of the mutation since the gene

downstream of bacA is transcribed in the opposite direction (Figure 1C). Dosage effects

may explain why complementation is not fully achieved for these phenotypes; however,

we are unable to test this at this time due to a lack of BacA antibodies. Taken together,

these data show that BacA is required for stalk synthesis in A. biprosthecum.

189 **BacA localizes to the site of stalk synthesis after SpmX localization**

190 While the localization of SpmX is known, the pattern of BacA localization is not. The

191 stalk morphogen SpmX localizes to the future site of stalk synthesis in predivisional

192 cells of *Asticcacaulis*, where it marks the site of stalk synthesis, which occurs after cell

193 division and swarmer cell differentiation in the next cell cycle (Figure 1A) [11]. To

194 investigate the subcellular localization of BacA in WT cells, we fused BacA to mVenus

195 at the native locus and performed fluorescence microscopy. This fusion is functional,

196 and cells expressing BacA-mVenus produced normal stalks at a similar frequency as

197 WT cells expressing the native protein (Figure S2).

198 We first performed time-lapse fluorescence microscopy to determine the timing of BacA

199 localization during the cell cycle (Figure 3A and Movies S1 & S2). The first four panels

200 of Figure 3A (0-84 min) show the elongation of a predivisional mother cell as it produces

201 an incipient swarmer daughter cell, where BacA is already localized at bilateral positions

202 in the stalked half of the cell. In contrast to SpmX, which localizes before cell division at

203 the future sites of stalk synthesis, we were unable to detect new BacA foci in

204 predivisional cells. After cell division (the transition from 84-112 min), a BacA-mVenus

205 focus appeared at a lateral position in the incipient swarmer cell. While only one BacA-

206 mVenus focus is visible in the overlay from 112 to 140 min, a second focus is clearly

207 visible in the overlay at 168 and 196 min. This process of BacA localization after cell

208 division is repeated in later panels with a second daughter cell (196-252 min).

209 Therefore, SpmX localizes before cell division (Figure 4A), whereas BacA localizes after

210 cell division, significantly after SpmX (Figure 3C). We then sought to quantify BacA-

211 mVenus localization at the population level, rather than single cells. Overall, BacA-

212 mVenus localized to bilateral positions at the base of the stalks (Figure 3D). A

population-level heatmap of the subcellular localization of BacA-mVenus foci exhibited a

localization pattern similar to that of SpmX (Figure 4D) [11], with foci clustering in a

bilateral manner at the midcell (Figure 3E).

SpmX is required for BacA localization

Considering that 1) both SpmX and BacA are required for WT stalk synthesis; 2) that

both proteins localize to the site of stalk synthesis; and 3) that SpmX localizes to the site

of stalk synthesis prior to BacA, we hypothesized that SpmX is required for BacA

localization. In order to test the role of SpmX in BacA localization, we constructed a

strain with a *bacA-mVenus* fusion at the native locus in the Δ*spmX* background.

As reported above in the WT background, BacA-mVenus localized to the base of the

stalk (Figure 3D, top) with foci clustering in a bilateral manner at the midcell (Figure 3E,

top). In the Δ*spmX* mutant, BacA-mVenus was often mislocalized toward the poles

(Figure 3D, bottom), and the population-level heatmap of the subcellular localization of

BacA-mVenus foci in the Δ*spmX* mutant showed that BacA-mVenus was randomly

distributed throughout the cell body (Figure 3E, bottom). However, these images

represent only a snapshot of BacA-mVenus localization at a single time point. To further

investigate BacA-mVenus dynamics in WT and Δ*spmX* strains, we performed time-

lapse fluorescence microscopy (Figures 3A & 3B and Movies S1-S4) and used particle

tracking to follow movement and velocity changes for individual foci (Figures 3F & 3G).

In WT cells, BacA-mVenus foci were constrained bilaterally at sites of stalk synthesis

and remained relatively static once they appeared (Figures 3A, 3F, & 3G and Movies S1

& S2). Conversely, in the Δ*spmX* mutant, BacA-mVenus foci moved randomly

throughout the cell body and exhibited start-stop patterns of spikes and drops in velocity

(Figures 3B, 3F, & 3G and Movies S3 & S4). Taken together, these data show that

SpmX is required for BacA localization.

BacA is required to constrain SpmX at the base of the stalk

Cytoskeletal scaffolding proteins can be loosely defined as proteins that physically

organize the molecular components of a biological process or pathway [3]. Because 1)

SpmX acts in a modular fashion to define the site of stalk synthesis [11]; 2) SpmX is

required for BacA localization; and 3) BacA is required to constrain stalk diameter, we

hypothesized that BacA organizes PG synthesis enzymes, and perhaps SpmX, at the

site of stalk synthesis. To test SpmX localization in the absence of BacA, we

constructed strains with a *spmX-eGFP* fusion at the native locus in both WT and Δ*bacA*

backgrounds.

Consistent with previously published results [11], fluorescence microscopy showed that

SpmX-eGFP first appears in the incipient swarmer compartment of predivisional cells of

A. biprosthecum where it localizes bilaterally to mark the site of stalk synthesis, which

occurs after cell division and swarmer cell differentiation [11] (Figures 1A, 4A, 4C, & 4D

and Movie S5). Interestingly, SpmX localized to the future bilateral site of stalk synthesis

even in the absence of BacA (Figures 4B-4D and Movie S6). However, in the Δ*bacA*

mutant SpmX-eGFP often localized to the tips of pseudostalks rather than the base of

stalks as it does in WT cells (Figure 4C). When stalk synthesis was restored in the

Δ*bacA* mutant by the expression of BacA from a plasmid, SpmX localization to the base

of the stalk was restored as well (Figure 4C). This defect of SpmX localization is further

revealed by the localization heatmaps, where, rather than a tight localization close to

the cell envelope in WT, there is a diffuse localization at the midcell that radiates away

from the cell body in the Δ*bacA* mutant (Figure 4D). Indeed, quantification of the

orthogonal distance of SpmX-eGFP maxima from the medial axis of the associated cell,

showed a significant increase in Δ*bacA* cells compared to WT, a defect that was

rescued in the complementation strain (Figure 4E). It should be noted that when stalk

synthesis is restored by exogenous expression of BacA, SpmX localization to the base

of the stalk is also restored in these cells (Figure S3). While global SpmX protein levels

according to Western blot are similar between WT and Δ*bacA* strains (Figure S4), the

area of the SpmX-eGFP maxima significantly increased in the Δ*bacA* mutant compared

to WT, a defect that was restored in the complementation strain (Figure 4F). This

suggests that BacA may play a role in regulating the number of SpmX molecules that

comprise the stalk synthesis complex. These results indicate a scaffolding role for BacA

during stalk synthesis whereby BacA is required to constrain SpmX in a tight area at the

base of the stalk. The above results suggest that SpmX acts upstream of BacA, which

was confirmed by the Δ*spmX* Δ*bacA* double mutant, which phenocopied Δ*spmX* (Figure

4G).

BacA and SpmX colocalize *in vivo* and interact in a bacterial two-hybrid system
Since SpmX is required for BacA localization (Figure 3) and BacA is required to

constrain SpmX at the base of the stalk (Figure 4), we wondered whether this could be

due to a direct interaction between the two proteins. To address this, we first

simultaneously expressed SpmX-mCherry and BacA-mVenus fusions in *A.*

biprosthecum. Cells produced stalks, indicating that the fusions are functional when

expressed together. Both BacA-mVenus and SpmX-mCherry formed foci at the midcell

that often overlapped (Figure 5), and there was a positive correlation between the

localization of the two fusion proteins (Pearson's Correlation Coefficient = 0.48 ± 0.23; n

= 179). We note that in many cases, one of the co-localized BacA focus was much

weaker than the other, with some cells having only detectable co-localized BacA with

one of the two SpmX foci. This may be an indication that relatively few molecules of

BacA are required to constrain SpmX at the base of stalks or that the BacA-SpmX

interaction is transitory and becomes less important as the stalk synthesis matures.

We then asked whether SpmX and BacA interact *in vivo* using bacterial adenylate

cyclase two-hybrid (BACTH) assays [29]. We tested all combinations of T18 and T25

fusions for SpmX and BacA (Figure 6). Serving as an internal control, both SpmX and

BacA showed self-interactions (Figure 6), consistent with previous results showing that

C. crescentus SpmX forms oligomers [30] and confirming our results showing BacA is a

self-polymerizing protein (Figure 1E). Notably, we also observed SpmX-BacA

interactions (Figures 6C & 6D), although the only interactions we observed were when

BacA was fused with the T25 fragment on the N-terminus (T25-BacA). These results

make sense in the context of recent work showing that the N-terminal tail of *Thermus*

thermophilus bactofilin is required for membrane binding [31]. If the BacA N-terminal tail

is also involved in membrane binding, the fact that we only detect SpmX-BacA

interactions when the C-terminal tail is unencumbered by a fusion suggests that the C-

terminal region of BacA is involved in protein-protein interactions with SpmX.

Pseudostalks are composed of PG and formed through dispersed PG synthesis
A. biprosthecum stalks extend through the addition of newly synthesized PG at the base

of the stalk and are composed of PG throughout [11]. Indeed, isolated PG sacculi

maintain the shape of the bacterial cell, including PG-containing stalks [32]. To test if

pseudostalks are composed of PG, we first isolated sacculi from *A. biprosthecum* WT

and ∆*bacA* cells. As expected, *A. biprosthecum* WT sacculi exhibited long and thin

bilateral extensions of stalk PG (Figure 7A). Sacculi purified from ∆*bacA* cells showed

sac-like bilateral extensions of PG that mimicked the morphology of pseudostalks

(Figure 7A), confirming that pseudostalks are composed of PG.

There are several modes of PG synthesis that could result in pseudostalks. For

example, they could be synthesized 1) from the base like WT stalks, albeit with a wider

and variable area of extension; 2) via polar growth similar to vegetative growth of the

filamentous Streptomycetes [3], with PG remodeling occurring through polar tip

extension; or 3) be the result of dispersed PG synthesis throughout the pseudostalk,

similar to lateral elongation of some rod-shaped cells [3].

To test these possibilities, we employed various methods of Fluorescent D-Amino Acid

(FDAA) [33] labeling to visualize active PG synthesis during growth in low-phosphate

medium. Cells were first subjected to short labeling pulses (45 min or ~20% of doubling

time) of a red FDAA (TADA) (Figure 7B). If pseudostalks are synthesized from the base,

the FDAA should label the cell and stalk-to-cell body junction, but not the pseudostalk

itself. In WT cells, labeling was diffuse throughout the cell, but absent from the stalks,

except from the stalk-to-cell body junction where stalk PG is synthesized (Figure 7B),

consistent with previous results [11]. In contrast, ∆*bacA* cells showed strong labeling

throughout the pseudostalks, indicating that these structures are not solely synthesized

from the base as in WT stalks (Figure 7B). Because the labeling time was short relative

to the time required for pseudostalk growth, we hypothesized that pseudostalk PG

synthesis occurs through PG synthesis dispersed throughout the structure rather than

by tip PG synthesis. To obtain better spatiotemporal resolution of PG remodeling and to

correlate SpmX localization with PG remodeling, we performed virtual time-lapse FDAA

labeling, where short successive pulses of different colored FDAA probes are used for

spatiotemporal labeling of areas of PG synthesis. *A. biprosthecum* WT SpmX-eGFP and

Δ*bacA* SpmX-eGFP cells were first labeled with a blue FDAA (HADA) for 6 min followed

by a red FDAA (TADA) for 3 min, with the dye being washed away after each respective

incubation (Figure 7C). Cells were then imaged via 3D-SIM (Structured Illumination

Microscopy). For WT cells, the HADA and TADA signals overlapped both in the cell

body and at the base of the stalk, colocalized with the SpmX-eGFP focus and

consistent with stalk PG synthesis at the base and no PG synthesis along the stalk

length (Figure 7C). In contrast, the HADA and TADA signals overlapped in both the cell

body and the pseudostalks of Δ*bacA* cells and with SpmX-eGFP localizing to the tips of

the pseudostalks (Figure 7C), indicating that pseudostalks are formed via dispersed PG

synthesis throughout the structure.

BacA inhibits the default elongation and division modes of PG synthesis as well

as DNA entry at sites of stalk synthesis

While the FDAA labeling techniques used above (Figures 7B & 7C) show that new PG

is incorporated into the pseudostalk, it does not distinguish *per se* if PG is being

incorporated from the base, as in WT stalks, or if PG incorporation is distributed

throughout the pseudostalk. To determine the PG incorporation pattern for Δ*bacA*

pseudostalks, we performed pulse-chase FDAA labeling (Figure 7D). *A. biprosthecum*

WT and Δ*bacA* cells were first labeled with a red FDAA (TADA) for ~12-14 hours (~3-

3.5 cell cycles) to ensure whole-cell labeling, including stalks and pseudostalks. Cells

were then washed twice to remove the FDAA and time-lapse fluorescent microscopy

was performed. As the *A. biprosthecum* WT cells grew, FDAA signal disappeared from

the cell body, but was retained in the stalk (Figure 7D), with a slight clearing near the

base as stalk PG was synthesized from its base (Figure 7D, yellow triangles). In

contrast, Δ*bacA* cells lost FDAA signal throughout both the cell body and the

pseudostalks at a similar rate (Figure 7D), consistent with PG synthesis throughout the

pseudostalk. Strikingly, 49% (42/85) of Δ*bacA* cells observed were able to extend and

divide from the pseudostalks and produced cell-like extensions that continued to

elongate after cytokinesis (Figure 7E, yellow triangles), suggesting that cell growth was

occurring at sites usually reserved for stalk synthesis. These results suggested that

BacA might be required to prevent entry of chromosomal DNA that would be required

for continued growth of these lateral cell extensions. To determine if Δ*bacA*

pseudostalks contained DNA, we stained live cells with DAPI. In WT cells, DAPI

staining was constrained to the cell body, but in Δ*bacA* cells, pseudostalks stained

strongly for DNA (Figure 7F). It should be noted that we were unable to determine the

viability of the cell-like structures produced from the pseudostalks, but, qualitatively,

there is no discernable difference between the growth of WT and Δ*bacA* strains in liquid

culture or on plates. Taken together, these data indicate that, in addition to providing a

scaffold for proper stalk PG synthesis at its base, BacA inhibits not only unwanted PG

synthesis involved in cell elongation and division, but also the entry of DNA at sites of

stalk synthesis.

Discussion

Intricate biological processes underlie even the simplest of shapes. The ubiquitous rod- and sphere-shaped bacteria can be generated through multiple strategies [34, 35], but the final observed form is the result of finely tuned gene expression, metabolic processes that regulate PG precursor and subunit levels, and the spatiotemporal localization of PG-modifying enzymes. The study of shape generation and maintenance has uncovered a common theme of scaffolding proteins such as MreB, FtsZ, and DivIVA that recruit and organize PG synthesis to specific subcellular locations at specific times. Here we present evidence that the paradigm of a cytoskeletal scaffolding protein serving the dual roles of recruitment and organization in PG synthesis is not always true. In *A. biprosthecum*, the roles of recruitment and organization for the stalk synthesis PG remodeling complex are performed by two distinct proteins, SpmX and BacA, respectively. Furthermore, BacA prevents cell elongation and division associated PG synthesis from being activated at the site of stalk PG synthesis. Finally, BacA also prevents the entry of DNA into stalks.

Previous work has shown that SpmX appears early in *Asticcacaulis* spp. cell cycle, where it localizes in pre-divisional daughter cells to mark the future site of stalk synthesis [11]. Here we show that BacA operates downstream of SpmX for subcellular localization in the *A. biprosthecum* stalk synthesis pathway but acts upstream of SpmX for the topological organization of SpmX and the PG synthesis machinery. In the absence of SpmX, cells are stalkless and BacA-mVenus forms foci that move randomly throughout the cell body, indicating that SpmX recruits BacA, and presumably other PG remodeling enzymes that remain to be discovered, to the site of stalk synthesis (Figure 7A). In a ΔbacA ΔspmX double mutant, cells phenocopy the ΔspmX mutant and fail to

397 produce stalks or pseudostalks (Figure 4G). This supports the conclusion that BacA

398 operates downstream of SpmX

399 Interestingly, once stalk synthesis is initiated, BacA serves as a scaffolding protein that

400 constrains PG synthesis at the base of the stalk, allowing for WT stalk elongation and

401 maturation (Figure 8A). Based on current knowledge, this is the first reported

402 morphogenic PG remodeling process in which the protein responsible for recruitment of

403 the complex is different from the scaffolding protein that organizes the complex. The

404 stalkless phenotype of *spmX* and *bacA* mutants in *A. biprosthecum* is striking compared

405 to *C. crescentus*, where neither gene is required for stalk synthesis. Deletion of $bacA_{Cc}$

406 does not impact stalk synthesis in the complex PYE medium and leads to a mild

407 reduction of stalk length only under the strong stalk elongation stimulating conditions of

408 phosphate starvation [12, 16, 36]. In *A. excentricus*, which has a single sub-polar stalk,

409 *spmX* is required for sub-polar stalk synthesis, but phosphate starvation results in polar

410 stalk synthesis in the *spmX* mutant [11]. Perhaps the synthesis of non-polar stalks has

411 additional topological constraints that are more easily solved by the separation of the

412 recruitment and scaffolding processes into two different proteins as we have described

413 here, as this separation may be more adaptable for generating unique morphologies.

414 Comparative analysis of the requirements for stalk synthesis in these three species

415 provides an excellent model to determine how evolution can solve different

416 morphological constraints.

417 Many questions remain regarding prosthecae synthesis in both *A. biprosthecum*

418 specifically and the stalked Alphaproteobacteria in general. Even among closely related

419 species there are phenotypic differences, such as the number and placement of stalks,

as well as differences in the genes involved in stalk synthesis. Furthermore, in many

stalked marine species, the stalk serves a reproductive function, with a budding

daughter cell produced from the tip of the stalk [37-40]. How have these stalk synthesis

pathways evolved? Are there core genes that are shared amongst bacteria that produce

stalks? There are certainly differences, specifically between *C. crescentus* and

A. biprosthecum (Table S1) [11], but what other genes are involved in *A. biprosthecum*

stalk synthesis? ABI_34190, the gene that lies upstream and overlaps *bacA* (Figure

1C), is a putative M23 family metallopeptidase (Pfam 01551) whose predicted

endopeptidase activity would cleave PG crosslinks. Thus, ABI_34190 provides an

intriguing candidate for both its predicted function in PG remodeling and its genomic

association with *bacA*. How do bactofilins function in stalk synthesis? Presumably, the

ability to self-polymerize is important to bactofilin function in general but, to date, there

have been no studies showing that non-polymerizing mutants lead to a phenotypic

change. The terminal regions flanking the conserved bactofilin domain often vary

between species. Do the N- and C-terminal domains serve any specific purposes? Work

on *T. thermophilus* bactofilin showed that the N-terminal region is involved in membrane

binding [31]. We used high detergent levels, a high micellization condition, to get

purified BacA to form filaments *in vitro*. Our BACTH results suggest that the C-terminus

is important for BacA-SpmX interaction. It seems likely that these N- and C- terminal

regions play important roles in membrane and protein interactions.

This study has also revealed an unexpected role for a scaffold protein in inhibiting

default modes of PG synthesis. In the absence of BacA, cells produce what we have

termed "pseudostalks", which are significantly shorter and wider than stalks. In addition,

BacA is required to constrain SpmX at the base of the stalk (Figure 8A), as observed by

the mislocalization of SpmX-eGFP in the absence of BacA (Figure 8B). Pseudostalks,

like WT stalks, are composed of PG. However, unlike WT stalks, which are synthesized

from the base of the stalk (Figure 8A), pseudostalks are the result of dispersed PG

remodeling throughout the structure (Figure 8B). We find a parallel for this phenomenon

with the cytoskeletal scaffolding protein DivIVA in the Actinobacterium *Mycobacterium*

smegmatis. Normal, rod-shaped *M. smegmatis* undergo asymmetric bipolar growth, and

DivIVA focuses this cell envelope assembly at the poles [41]. When DivIVA is depleted,

PG synthesis persists, but in a disorganized manner throughout the cell, leading to

spherical cells [42]. Similarly, in the absence of BacA, PG synthesis persists, but in a

disorganized manner leading to pseudostalks.

Strikingly, we show that the pseudostalks that form in the absence of BacA can

incorporate the default cell elongation and cell division modes, forming cell body

extensions that contain DNA and can divide. These results suggest that the cytoskeletal

bactofilin BacA not only organizes and constrains PG synthesis to specific subcellular

locations (Figure 8A) but also inhibits PG synthesis associated with cell elongation and

division and DNA entry at the site of stalk synthesis defined by SpmX. The decoupling

of the recruitment and scaffolding roles for proteins that localize the PG synthesis

complex may facilitate safeguarding against establishment of cell elongation and

division at those morphogenetic sites. However, removal of a single layer of regulation

(in this case, *A. biprosthecum* BacA) can lead to unregulated growth, with *A.*

biprosthecum becoming a branching organism via pseudostalks. This follows an

emerging theme of bacterial morphogenesis in which morphological variation results

from the differential regulation of PG remodeling [3, 43, 44]. In other words, much like

the Actinobacteria *Streptomyces* spp., *A. biprosthecum* localizes PG synthesis at

specific places with different morphological results: branching hyphae and stalks,

respectively. Furthermore, this result suggests that at least some of the PG synthesis

enzymes used for stalk synthesis are the same as those used for cell elongation and

division, which may explain why we have yet to identify a PG synthesis enzyme used

specifically for stalk synthesis.

Methods

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

Methods

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

All freezer stocks were maintained in 10% DMSO at -80°C.

A. biprosthecum strains used in this study were grown in liquid PYE medium at 26°C

supplemented with antibiotics or supplements as necessary (kanamycin 5 µg ml^{-1},

gentamicin 0.5 µg ml^{-1}, spectinomycin 25 µg ml^{-1}, streptomycin 5 µg ml^{-1}, and 0.3 mM

diaminopimelic acid). Strains were maintained on PYE plates at 26°C supplemented

with antibiotics or supplements as necessary (kanamycin 5 or 20 µg ml^{-1}, gentamicin 2.5

µg ml^{-1}, spectinomycin 50 µg ml^{-1}, streptomycin 20 µg ml^{-1}, 3% sucrose, and 0.3 mM

diaminopimelic acid). For phosphate starvation, cells were grown in <u>H</u>utner base-

<u>i</u>midazole-buffered-<u>g</u>lucose-<u>g</u>lutamate (HIGG) medium [45] containing 30 µM phosphate

(phosphate-limited), supplemented with biotin at 40 ng ml^{-1} and antibiotics where

appropriate. For microscopy of PYE grown samples, strains were inoculated in PYE

from colonies and grown at 26°C with shaking until mid- to late-exponential phase

(OD$_{600}$ ≥ 1.0) before imaging. For microscopy of HIGG grown, phosphate-limited

samples, strains were inoculated in PYE from colonies and grown at 26°C with shaking

until late-exponential phase. Cultures were then washed 2X with deionized distilled H$_2$O

(ddH$_2$O), diluted 1:20 in HIGG, and grown at 26°C with shaking for 72h before imaging.

E. coli strains used in this study grown in liquid <u>l</u>ysogeny <u>b</u>roth (LB) medium at 37°C (or

30°C for BACTH assays) supplemented with antibiotics or supplements as necessary

(ampicillin 100 µg ml^{-1}, kanamycin 30 µg ml^{-1}, gentamicin 15 µg ml^{-1}, spectinomycin 100

µg ml^{-1}, streptomycin 30 µg ml^{-1}, 0.3 mM diaminopimelic acid, and X-gal 40 µg ml^{-1}).

Strains were maintained on LB plates at 37°C (or 30°C for BACTH assays)

supplemented with antibiotics or supplements as necessary (ampicillin 100 µg ml^{-1},

kanamycin 25 or 50 µg ml^{-1}, gentamicin 20 µg ml^{-1}, streptomycin 30 or 100 µg ml^{-1}, 0.3

mM d<u>ia</u>mino<u>p</u>imelic acid (DAP), X-gal 40 µg ml^{-1}, and 0.5 mM IPTG).

Electroporation of *A. biprosthecum* was performed as previously described [46].

Outgrowth was performed for 8-24h at 26°C. For electroporation with replicating

plasmids, 100 µl of outgrowth culture was plated on PYE plates with appropriate

selection at dilutions of 10^1, 10^0, and 10^{-1}. For electroporation with integrating plasmids,

outgrowth was divided into volumes of 100, 300, and 600 µl and plated on PYE plates

with appropriate selection.

In-house stocks of chemically competent BL21lDE3 (YB1000), DAP auxotroph WM3064

(YB7351), XL-1 Blue (YB0041), and BTH101 (YB9171) *E. coli* cells were prepared as

previously described [47, 48].

Recombinant DNA Methods
DNA amplification, Gibson cloning, and restriction digests were performed according to

the manufacturer. Restriction enzymes and Gibson cloning mix were from New England

Biolabs. Cloning steps were carried out in *E. coli* (alpha-select competent cells, Bioline

or XL1-Blue, Stratagene) and plasmids were purified using Zyppy Plasmid Kits (Zymo

Research Corporation). Sequencing was performed by the Indiana Molecular Biology

Institute and Eurofins MWG Operon Technologies with double stranded plasmid or PCR

templates, which were purified with a DNA Clean & Concentrator kits (Zymo Research

Corporation). Chromosomal DNA was purified using the Bactozol Bacterial DNA

Isolation Kit (Molecular Research Center).

Plasmids were introduced into all *E. coli* strains using chemical transformation

according to the manufacturer's protocols. Electroporation of *A. biprosthecum* was

performed as previously described [46]. Outgrowth was performed for 8-24h at 26°C.

For electroporation with replicating plasmids, 100 μl of outgrowth culture was plated on

PYE plates with appropriate selection at dilutions of 10^1, 10^0, and 10^{-1}. For

electroporation with integrating plasmids, outgrowth was divided into volumes of 100,

300, and 600 μl and plated on PYE plates with appropriate selection. Mating of plasmids

into *A. biprosthecum* was performed using the *dap⁻ E. coli* strain WM3064 (YB7351)

[49].

Allelic exchange and deletions were achieved using a two-step sucrose

counterselection procedure with pNPTS138/pNPTS139. Insertional fusions of eGFP

and mVenus were made using pGFPC-1 and pVENC-4, respectively [50]. BACTH

plasmids were made using the Euromedex BACTH System Kit (Euromedex Cat. No.

EUK001).

Plasmid Construction

All PCR, including insert fragments for Gibson assembly, was performed using iProof

High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc., Cat. No. 1725302)

according to the manufacturer's instructions. All plasmids were constructed via Gibson

assembly using NEBuilder HiFi DNA Assembly Master Mix (New England Biolabs, Inc.,

Cat. No. E2621X) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Prior to use in cloning,

all restriction enzyme digested plasmids were treated with Calf Intestinal Alkaline

Phosphatase (New England Biolabs, Inc., Cat. No. M0290S) according to the

manufacturer's instructions. All primers for Gibson assembly were designed using

NEBuilder Assembly Tool (New England Biolabs, Inc.). For the *bacA* complementation

vector, we fused the promoter region, comprising 236 bp immediately upstream of

ABI_34190, to the coding region of *bacA* and placed the promoter/gene fusion on the

low copy plasmid pMR10. The promoter/gene fusion is placed in the opposite

orientation of the lacZ promoter. The restriction enzymes used are as follows for

pNPTS138/pNPTS139-based vectors (*Eco*RV or *Sph*I/*Nhe*I), pET28a+ (*Sal*I/*Sac*I),

pMR10 (*Eco*RV), pVENC-4 *(Nde*I/*Kpn*I), and BACTH plasmids (*Kpn*I/*Eco*RI).

Bioinformatics
Genomic and protein sequence data were obtained from the Integrated Microbial

Genomes (IMG) database [51]. Multiple sequence alignment of bactofilin sequences

was performed using Jalview [52] with a MAFFT alignment using the L-INS-i preset. The

C. crescentus BacB$_{Cc}$ protein sequence used for alignment is a translation of an open

reading frame in CC3022 that initiates at a downstream ATG codon, as described

previously [12]. The predicted structure of *A. biprosthecum* BacA (ABI_34180) was

modeled using SWISS-MODEL [53] with the structure of *C. crescentus* BacA (CC1872;

PBD code 2N3D) as a template. Alignment was then processed using the ESPript

server [54]. Percent identity (PID) was calculated from pairwise MAFFT alignments

using the L-INS-i preset. $PID = \left(\frac{\#\ identical\ positions}{\min\ (TG_A, TG_B)} \right) \times 100$, where *TG$_A$* and *TG$_B$* are the

sum of the number of residues and internal gap positions in sequences A and B in the

alignment [55].

Microscopy
Light Microscopy and Fluorescence Imaging
For light microscopy analysis, cells were spotted onto pads made of 1% SeaKem LE

Agarose (Lonza, Cat. No. 50000) in PYE and topped with a glass coverslip. When

appropriate, the coverslip was sealed with VALAP (<u>va</u>seline, <u>la</u>nolin, and <u>pa</u>raffin at a

1:1:1 ratio). Images were recorded with inverted Nikon Ti-E microscopes using either 1)

a Plan Apo 60X 1.40 NA oil Ph3 DM objective with DAPI/FITC/Cy3/Cy5 or

CFP/YFP/mCherry filter cubes and an iXon X3 DU885 EMCCD camera or 2) a Plan

Apo λ 100X 1.45 NA oil Ph3 DM objective with DAPI/FITC/Cy3/Cy5 or

CFP/YFP/mCherry filter cubes and a Photometrics Prime 95B sCMOS camera. Images

were processed with NIS Elements software (Nikon). To visualize DNA, cells were

grown in HIGG medium for 72h as described above. Cells were washed 1x with PYE

and 1 μl of cell suspension was spotted onto a coverslip and topped with an agar pad.

Cells were monitored via phase microscopy for ~1h to ensure they were growing and 20

μl of 1 mg/ml of 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole dihydrochloride (DAPI) was spotted on

top of the agar pad. DAPI was allowed to diffuse through the pad to the cells and cells

were imaged.

Structured Illumination Microscopy

3D-SIM images were collected on a DeltaVision OMX system (Applied Precision Inc.,

Issaquah, USA) equipped with a 1.4NA Olympus 100X oil objective. A 405 nm laser

source and 419-465 nm emission filter were used for collecting HADA signal. A 488 nm

laser source and 500-550 nm emission filter were used for collecting GFP signal. A 568

nm laser source and 609-654 emission filter were used for collecting TADA signal. The

z-axis scanning depth was 2 μm. Immersion oil with refraction index of 1.514 was used.

SIM images were reconstructed using softWoRx.

Electron Microscopy

10 μl cell or sacculi suspension was applied to an electron microscopy grid

(Formvar/Carbon on 300 mesh; Ted Pella Inc., Cat. No. 01753-F) for 5 min at room

temperature. Excess liquid was removed with Whatman filter paper. Cells or sacculi

were then negatively stained with 10 μl 1% uranyl acetate (UA) and excess UA liquid

was immediately removed with Whatman filter paper. Grids were allowed to dry, stored

in a grid holder in a desiccation chamber, and imaged with a kV JEOL JEM 1010

transmission electron microscope (JEOL USA Inc.). Protein visualization was performed

as sacculi suspension except protein was applied to the grid for 1 min and stained with

2% UA before imaging.

Sacculi purification

Strains were inoculated in 3 ml PYE from colonies and grown at 26°C with shaking until

late-exponential phase. Cultures were then washed 2X with ddH$_2$O, diluted 1:50 in

HIGG, and grown at 26°C with shaking for 72h. Cells were harvested by centrifugation

(7,000 g, 4°C, 15 min) and resuspended in 10 ml ddH$_2$O. Cell suspension was added

dropwise to 20 ml boiling 7.5% SDS in a 125 ml flask with a stir bar. Once cells addition

was complete, the SDS cell suspension was boiled for 30 min with stirring and then

allowed to cool to room temperature. Suspension was then washed 6X with ddH$_2$O

using centrifugation (100,000 g, 25°C, 30 min) to isolate the sacculi pellet and

resuspended in 5 ml ddH$_2$O before imaging.

Protein purification

Recombinant plasmids overproducing His$_6$-BacA protein were transformed into BL21 *E.*

coli strain. Transformants were grown, in LB medium supplemented with kanamycin (50

µg ml^{-1}), at 37°C until the OD$_{600}$ = 0.6. Expression was induced by adding 0.5 mM IPTG

(isopropyl β-D-thiogalactopyranoside) and incubation was continued either 3h at 30°C

or overnight at 20°C. Cells pellets were resuspended in 1/25 volume of Buffer A

(TrisHCl at pH 8, 300 mM NaCl, 2 mM β-mercaptoethanol) and lysed by sonication (20

sec On / 40 sec Off, 5 min, Misonix S4000). Cells debris were pelleted by centrifugation

at 36,000 g for 30 min at 4°C. The supernatant was loaded on a Ni-NTA resin (Qiagen)

on an AKTA FPLC pure system. After washing with Buffer A, the protein was eluted with

a linear gradient of Buffer B (50 mM TrisHCl at pH 8, 300 mM NaCl, 2 mM β-

mercaptoethanol, 500 mM imidazole). Elution fraction was loaded on SDS page gel and

peak fractions containing the protein were pooled. Upon purification, His_6-BacA protein

was used for polymerization assay. Polymerization assay were performed by dialyzing

His_6-BacA in Buffer C (25 mM TrisHCl at pH 8, 250 mM NaCl, 2 mM β-mercaptoethanol)

supplemented with 10% Triton X-100 in the case of BacA.

Western blots

All strains were grown until OD=1.0 before being centrifuged and resuspended in 100 μl

of 1xPBS supplemented with 0.1 μl of Universal Nuclease (Pierce #88700) sonicated for

3 times for 10sec at 50% intensity (Misonix S4000). Protein concentration was

measured and normalized if needed before addition of laemmli buffer. 15 μl of each

sample was loaded onto 4-20% precast polyacrylamide gels (BioRad) before being

transferred on a nitrocellulose membrane according to manufacturer's instructions.

Loading was controlled by Ponceau's staining before immunoblotting was performed by

addition of an anti-GFP polyclonal antibody (MBL #598) as the primary antibody and a

goat anti-rabbit HRP (Pierce) as secondary antibody. Transferred blots were visualized

with SuperSignal West Pico substrate (ThermoFisher Scientific) using a Bio-Rad

Chemidoc.

Image analysis

Stalk length and stalk percentage data was obtained using FIJI (Fiji Is Just ImageJ) [56].

Briefly, phase micrographs were imported into FIJI and stalks were manually traced

using the "Freehand Line" tool. Stalks lengths were determined from the manual trace

using the "Measure" function, calibrated to the μm/pixel scale of the original micrograph.

The percentage of stalked cells per image was calculated by manually counting the

number of stalked and non-stalked cells per image. Subcellular localization of SpmX-

eGFP and BacA-mVenus foci and subsequent localization heatmaps were generated

using the ImageJ plugin MicrobeJ [57]. SpmX-eGFP maxima area and intensity were

determined using the ImageJ plugin MicrobeJ [57]. Area was first generated as pixel

area and converted to nm^2 based on the pixel to µm ratio for the images. Intensity is

defined as the average gray value measured on the channel used to detect the particle.

Analysis of BacA-mVenus time-lapse movies and BacA-mVenus foci dynamics was

performed using the ImageJ plugin TrackMate [58]. Colocalization analysis was

performed by using MicrobeJ [57] to detect all cells that contained both BacA-mVenus

and SpmX-mCherry foci and then measure colocalization by Pearson correlation

coefficient. All statistical analysis and data visualization was generated in R version 3.5

[59] and using the ggplot2 [60] and ggsignif [61] packages.

Cell silhouettes and cell body outlines were produced by importing the phase

micrograph into Adobe Illustrator CC 2015.2.1 (Adobe Inc.) and manually tracing the

silhouette or outline.

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Author contributions

Conceptualization, P.D.C. and Y.V.B.; Methodology, P.D.C., M.J., and Y.V.B.;

Investigation, P.D.C. and M.J.; Resources, Y.V.B. and fluorescent D-amino acids

(FDAAs) from M.S.V.; Writing – Original Draft, P.D.C; Writing – Review and Editing,

P.D.C., M.J., and Y.V.B.; Visualization, P.D.C.; Supervision, Y.V.B.; Funding

Acquisition, Y.V.B.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional Information

All bacterial mutant strains generated during this study are available from the

corresponding author upon request.

Table 1 – Plasmids used in this study

Plasmid	Genotype/description	Reference/source
Basic vectors		
pMR10	RK2-based, broad-host-range low copy cloning vector, Kan^R	R. Roberts and C. Mohr, unpublished
pNPTS138	sacB-containing Litmus 38 derivative suicide vector used for double homologous recombination, Kan^R	M.R.K. Alley, unpublished
pNPTS139	sacB-containing Litmus 39 derivative suicide vector used for double homologous recombination, Kan^R	M.R.K. Alley, unpublished
pGFPC-1	Integration plasmid used for creating C-terminal fusions to eGFP, Spec/Strep^R	[50]
pVENC-4	Integration plasmid used for creating C-terminal fusions to mVenus, Gent^R	[50]
pKT25	BACTH plasmid for generating in-frame fusions at the C-terminal end of the T25 fragment, Kan^R	EuroMedex
pKNT25	BACTH plasmid for generating in-frame fusions at the N-terminal end of the T25 fragment, Kan^R	EuroMedex
pUT18	BACTH plasmid for generating in-frame fusions at the N-terminal end of the T18 fragment, Amp^R	EuroMedex
pUT18C	BACTH plasmid for generating in-frame fusions at the C-terminal end of the T18 fragment, Kan^R	EuroMedex
pET28a+	His$_6$-tag expression vector, Kan^R	Novagen
Plasmids		
pKT25-zip	pKT25 derivative in which the leucine zipper of GCN4 yeast protein is genetically fused in frame to the T25 fragment. BACTH positive control; Kan^R	EuroMedex
pUT18C-zip	pUT18C derivative in which the leucine zipper of GCN4 yeast protein is genetically fused in frame to the T18 fragment. BACTH positive control; Amp^R	EuroMedex
pGFPC-1-spmX$_{AB}$	pGFPC-1 bearing the C-terminal fragment of *spmX* (ABI_31540); Spec/Strep^R	[11]
pCHYC-1-spmX$_{AB}$	pCHYC-1 bearing the C-terminal fragment of *spmX* (ABI_31540); Spec/Strep^R	[11]
pPC10	pNPTS139 derivative used to generate a clean deletion of *bacA* (ABI_34180); Kan^R	this study
pPC21	pVENC-4 bearing the C-terminal fragment *bacA* (ABI_34180) (nt 44-543); Gent^R	this study
pPC36	Δ*bacA* complementation vector; pMR10 containing the promotor region upstream of the ABI_34190/ABI_34180 loci fused to the coding region of ABI_34180; Kan^R	this study
pPC62	pKT25 derivative in which SpmX is genetically fused in-frame to the T25 fragment; Kan^R	this study
pPC63	pKT25 derivative in which BacA is genetically fused in-frame to the T25 fragment; Kan^R	this study
pPC65	pKNT25 derivative in which BacA is genetically fused in-frame to the T25 fragment; Kan^R	this study
pPC67	pUT18 derivative in which SpmX is genetically fused in-frame to the T18 fragment; Amp^R	this study
pPC68	pUT18 derivative in which BacA is genetically fused in-frame to the T18 fragment; Amp^R	this study
pPC70	pUT18C derivative in which SpmX is genetically fused in-frame to the T18 fragment; Amp^R	this study
pPC72	pKNT25 derivative in which SpmX is genetically fused in-frame to the T25 fragment; Kan^R	this study
pPC73	pUT18C derivative in which BacA is genetically fused in-frame to the T18 fragment; Amp^R	this study
pMJ2	pET28a+ derivative to overexpress His-tagged BacA$_{Cc}$ (CC_1873) in *E. coli*; Kan^R	this study
pMJ4	pET28a+ derivative to overexpress His-tagged BacA (ABI_34180) in *E. coli*; Kan^R	this study
YB8246	pNPTS138-Δ*spmX$_{Ab}$*; Kan^R	[15]

677 **Table 2 – Strains used in this study**

Strain	Genotype/description	Construction	Reference/source
E. coli			
DH5α Silver Select	F⁻ deoR endA1 recA1 relA1 gyrA96 hsdR17(r$_K^-$, m$_K^+$) supE44 thi-1 phoA Δ(lacZYA argF)U169 Φ80lacZΔM15λ⁻; Standard strain for cloning and maintaining plasmids	-	BioLine
BL21IDE3 (YB1000)	(F- ompT hsdSB (rB-mB-) gal dcm (IDE3); Used for protein overexpression.	-	Novagen
XL1-Blue (YB0041)	recA1, endA1, gyrA96, thi-1, hsdR17, supE44, relA1, lac [F' proAB, lacI^{q}ZΔM15, Tn10(Tet^r)]; Used for cloning and maintaining BACTH plasmids	-	Stratagene
BTH101 (YB9171)	F⁻, cya-99, araD139, galE15, galK16, rpsL1 (Strr), hsdR2, mcrA1, mcrB1; Used for BACTH assays	-	EuroMedex
YB5681	DH5α strain for maintaining pGFPC-1-spmX$_{AB}$	-	[11]
YB7351	thrB1004 pro thi rpsL hsdS lacZΔM15 RP4-1360 Δ(araBAD)567 ΔdapA1341::[erm pir]; DAP (diaminopimelic acid) auxotroph used for conjugation, referred to as strain WM3064 in reference	-	[49]
YB7552	DH5α strain for maintaining pPC10	Transformation of pPC10 into DH5α	this study
YB8159	DAP auxotroph conjugative donor E. coli for mating plasmids into A. biprosthecum	Transformation of pPC10 into YB7351	this study
YB8177	DH5α strain for maintaining pPC21	Transformation of pPC21 into DH5α	this study
YB8537	DH5α strain for maintaining pMJ2	Transformation of pMJ2 into DH5α	this study
YB8539	DH5α strain for maintaining pMJ4	Transformation of pMJ4 into DH5α	this study
YB8246	DH5α strain for maintaining pNPTS138-ΔspmX$_{Ab}$	Transformation of pNPTS138-ΔspmX$_{Ab}$ into DH5α	[15]
YB8552	BL21IDE3 strain containing pMJ2. For overexpression of BacA$_{Cc}$.	Transformation of pMJ2 into YB1000	this study
YB8554	BL21IDE3 strain containing pMJ4. For overexpression of BacA.	Transformation of pMJ4 into YB1000	this study
YB8584	DH5α strain for maintaining pPC36	Transformation of pPC36 into DH5α	this study
YB9158	XL1-Blue strain for maintaining pPC62	Transformation of pPC62 into YB0041	this study
YB9159	XL1-Blue strain for maintaining pPC63	Transformation of pPC63 into YB0041	this study
YB9161	XL1-Blue strain for maintaining pPC72	Transformation of pPC72 into YB0041	this study
YB9162	XL1-Blue strain for maintaining pPC65	Transformation of pPC65 into YB0041	this study
YB9164	XL1-Blue strain for maintaining pPC67	Transformation of pPC67 into YB0041	this study
YB9165	XL1-Blue strain for maintaining pPC68	Transformation of pPC68 into YB0041	this study
YB9167	XL1-Blue strain for maintaining pPC70	Transformation of pPC70 into YB0041	this study
YB9168	XL1-Blue strain for maintaining pPC73	Transformation of pPC73 into YB0041	this study
A. biprosthecum			
YB642	A. biprosthecum C19	-	[62]
YB5692	C19 spmX::spmX-eGFP (Spec^R/Strep^R)	Electroporation of pGFPC-1-spmX$_{AB}$ into YB642	[11]
YB7474	C19 bacA::bacA-mVenus (Gent^R)	Electroporation of pPC21 into YB642	this study
YB7487	C19 ΔspmX bacA::bacA-mVenus (Gent^R)	Electroporation of pPC21 into YB8237	this study
YB7489	C19 ΔbacA ΔspmX	Mating of YB8237 with YB8159.	this study
YB7561	C19 spmX::spmX-eGFP ΔbacA (Spec^R/Strep^R)	Electroporation of pGFPC-1-spmX$_{AB}$ intoYB8597	this study
YB8237	C19 ΔspmX	Electroporation of plasmid from YB8246 into YB642	[15]
YB8597	C19 ΔbacA	Mating of YB642 with YB8159	this study
YB8601	C19 ΔbacA / pPC36 (Kan^R)	Electroporation of pPC36 into YB8597	this study
YB8620	C19 ΔbacA / pMR10 (Kan^R)	Electroporation of pMR10 into YB8597	this study
YB9183	C19 / pMR10 (Kan^R)	Electroporation of pMR10 into YB642	this study
YB9466	C19 bacA::bacA-mVenus spmX::spmX-mCherry (Spec^R/Strep^R)	Electroporation of pCHYC-1-SpmX$_{AB}$ plasmid into YB7474	this study
YB9521	C19 spmX::spmX-eGFP ΔbacA (Spec^R/Strep^R) / pPC36 (Kan^R)	Electroporation of pPC36 into YB7561	this study

Table 3 – Primers used in this study

Primer ID	Sequence (5' to 3')[1]	Restriction site	Purpose
ABI_34180SeqUp	CAGGCGTTGTCTCCTTTGTC	-	Sequencing the ABI_34180
ABI_34180SeqDn	CGACTGGACGGTTGAAAAGG	-	(*bacA*) locus
ABI_34190SeqUp	GTTAAACCTTGCGCCGTTCG	-	Sequencing the ABI_34190
ABI_34190SeqDn	GGCACTGCGGTTGAGATTGA	-	locus
AbiBacA500C-V4F	gagacgtccaattg**catatg**AACCGACCCCGGCTCCGC	NdeI	Generation of pPC21
AbiBacA500C-V4R	tcgagatcttaa**ggtacc**CTTCAGGTCGCCCAGAGCG	KpnI	
ABI_PlmdC-bacA_F	acgccaagcttccatgggatCTACTTCAGGTCGCCCAG	-	
AbiPlytMbacA2F	CGGCGGTTATGTTCAACAAAACTAACAAACCGG	-	Generation of pPC36
AbiPlytMbacA1R	GTTGAACATAACCGCCGCCACCTAAAC	-	
ABI_PlmdC_R	gctctgcaggagatctcgatAATGTCCTTATGCAATCC	-	
delABI34180upF	aattctggatccacgatTCAATGTCGACGAAGACTTC	-	
delABI34180upR	GAGGTGGATTAGTTTTGTTGAACATAATCTCCTG	-	Generation of pPC10
delABI34180dnF	ACAAAACTAATCCACCTCACCGAACTTAATCTGTGAAGAAAGC	-	
delABI34180dnR	aagcttcctgcaggatGCGGATTCGACCGTGCCG	-	
oMJ3_BacAcc	cga**gagctc**ATGTTCAGCAAGCAAGCTAAATCG	SacI	Generation of pMJ2
oMJ4_BacAcc	taa**gtcgac**TTAGCCGGCGCTCTTGG	SalI	
oMJ5_BacAab	aga**gagctc**ATGTTCAACAAAACTAACAAACCGG	SacI	Generation of pMJ4
oMJ6_BacAab	ata**gtcgac**CTACTTCAGGTCGCCCAG	SalI	
pUT18C_AbiSpmX-F	tctagaggatcccg**ggtacc**gGTGATGAGAGCGCGTCAAAAG	KpnI	Generation of pPC62
pKT25_AbiSpmX-R	acgttgtaaaacgacggcc**gaattc**TCAGTCCTTGAGGCCGCC	EcoRI	
pKT25_AbiBacA-F	tctagaggatcccg**ggtacc**tATGTTCAACAAAACTAACAAACC	KpnI	Generation of pPC63
pKT25_AbiBacA-R	acgttgtaaaacgacggcc**gaattc**CTACTTCAGGTCGCCCAG	EcoRI	
pKTN25_AbiBacA-F	tctagaggatcccg**ggtacc**gATGTTCAACAAAACTAACAAACCGG	KpnI	Generation of pPC65
pKTN25_AbiBacA-R	cgattgctgcatggtcatt**gaattc**gaCTTCAGGTCGCCCAGAGC	EcoRI	
pUT18C_AbiSpmX-F	tctagaggatcccg**ggtacc**gGTGATGAGAGCGCGTCAAAAG	KpnI	Generation of pPC67
pUT18_AbiSpmX-R	cgtggcctcgctggcggct**gaattc**gaGTCCTTGAGGCCGCCAAG	EcoRI	
pKTN25_AbiBacA-F	tctagaggatcccg**ggtacc**gATGTTCAACAAAACTAACAAACCGG	KpnI	Generation of pPC68
pUT18_AbiBacA-R	cgtggcctcgctggcggct**gaattc**gaCTTCAGGTCGCCCAGAGC	EcoRI	
pUT18C_AbiSpmX-F	tctagaggatcccg**ggtacc**gGTGATGAGAGCGCGTCAAAAG	KpnI	Generation of pPC70
pUT18C_AbiSpmX-R	attacttagttatatcgat**gaattc**gaTCAGTCCTTGAGGCCGCC	EcoRI	
pUT18C_AbiSpmX-F	tctagaggatcccg**ggtacc**gGTGATGAGAGCGCGTCAAAAG	KpnI	Generation of pPC72
pKTN25_AbiSpmX-R	cgattgctgcatggtcatt**gaattc**gaGTCCTTGAGGCCGCCAAG	EcoRI	
pKTN25_AbiBacA-F	tctagaggatcccg**ggtacc**gATGTTCAACAAAACTAACAAACCGG	KpnI	Generation of pPC73
pUT18C_AbiBacA-R	attacttagttatatcgat**gaattc**gaCTACTTCAGGTCGCCCAG		

 [1]Restriction sites in **bold**; Genomic sequence in CAPS

<u>Figures</u>

Figure 1 – Comparison of *Caulobacter crescentus* and *Asticcacaulis biprosthecum* Bactofilins

A) Dimorphic life cycle of *A. biprosthecum*. A common characteristic of prosthecate Alphaproteobacteria,

the prosthecate mother cell produces an adhesive holdfast (shown in blue) at one pole. Cell division

results in a motile, nonreplicating swarmer cell that differentiates into a prosthecate cell. Red arrows

indicate the base of *A. biprosthecum* stalks. Green circles indicate SpmX localization.

B) Schematic of the BacA protein from *A. biprosthecum*. The conserved bactofilin (DUF583) domain is

shown in blue.

C) Schematics of the bactofilin gene loci for both *C. crescentus* and *A. biprosthecum*.

D) Alignment of *A. biprosthecum* BacA (ABI_34180) and *C. crescentus* BacA_Cc/BacB_Cc

(CC1873/CC3022). Conserved residues are shown in red boxes, similar residues in yellow boxes with

bold characters. The secondary structure of *A. biprosthecum* BacA ("BacA_ABI34180") was modeled

using the SWISS-MODEL server [53] with the structure of *C. crescentus* BacA_Cc ("BacA_1873"; PBD

code 2N3D) as a template [63]. The secondary structures of *C. crescentus* BacA_Cc (PDB code 2N3D) and

the predicted ones for *A. biprosthecum* BacA are indicated below and above the sequence alignment,

respectively. Residues are numbered according to *A. biprosthecum* BacA.

E) Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) of BacA protofilament bundles from *C. crescentus* taken in

detergent free conditions (top) and *A. biprosthecum* taken in the presence of 10% Triton X-100 (bottom).

To distinguish from background, red arrows indicate *A. biprosthecum* BacA protofilaments. Scale bars = 1

µm.

Strain	Stalk/Pseudostalk Diameter (nm)	Stalk/Pseudostalk Length (µm)	% Cells with WT Stalks
WT	171 ± 13	7.3 ± 3.7	58% ± 12
WT+EV	170 ± 12	8.2 ± 5.1	52% ± 13
Δ*bacA*	392 ± 73	0.9 ± 0.5	3% ± 2
Δ*bacA*+EV	392 ± 55	0.8 ± 0.4	3% ± 1
Δ*bacA*+P$_{bacA}$-*bacA*	178 ± 20	2.4 ± 2.0	28% ± 6

Figure 2 – BacA is Required for WT Stalk Synthesis. Analysis of stalk morphology in strains YB642 (WT), YB9183 (WT + pMR10 empty vector control), YB8597 (Δ*bacA*), YB8620 (Δ*bacA* + pMR10 empty vector control), and YB8601 (Δ*bacA* + pMR10-P$_{bacA}$-*bacA*). Cells were grown in rich medium (PYE) to saturation and sub-cultured into phosphate limited (HIGG) medium at 26°C for 72h (see Methods).

A) Phase microscopy (left) and cell silhouette (right) for strains YB642 (WT), YB8597 (Δ*bacA*), and YB8601 (Δ*bacA* + pMR10-P$_{bacA}$-*bacA*). Scale bars = 2 µm.

B) Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) for strains YB642 (WT), YB8597 (Δ*bacA*), and YB8601 (Δ*bacA*+pMR10-P$_{bacA}$-*bacA*). Δ*bacA* pseudostalks are indicated with red arrows. Scale bars = 2 µm.

C) Summary statistics for data presented in Figure 2D, 2E, and 2F. Data shown is mean (SD).

D) Distribution of stalk/pseudostalk base diameter in the populations. Data (WT n=13; WT+EV n=19; Δ*bacA* n=8; Δ*bacA*+EV n=13; Δ*bacA*+P$_{bacA}$-*bacA* n= 17) are from single samples with five TEM fields per sample. Data are represented as box and whisker plots [64] where the middle line represents the median, the lower and upper hinges correspond to the first and third quartiles (the 25th and 75th percentiles), and the upper whisker extends from the hinge to the largest value no further than 1.5 * IQR from the hinge (where IQR is the inter-quartile range, or distance between the first and third quartiles). The lower whisker extends from the hinge to the smallest value at most 1.5 * IQR of the hinge. Data beyond the end of the whiskers are called "outlying" points and are plotted individually. A mirrored density violin plot [65] is underlaid to show the continuous distribution of the data. Violin plots have been scaled to the same width. (***p ≤ 0.001, ns = not significant; two-sided t-test).

E) Distribution of stalk/pseudostalk lengths in the populations, measured from the tip of the structure to the cell body. Data (WT n=412; WT+EV n=321; Δ*bacA* n=153; Δ*bacA*+EV n=148; Δ*bacA*+P$_{bacA}$-*bacA* n=324) are from three independent biological replicates with five phase microscopy fields per replicate. Data are plotted on a log10 scale y-axis and are represented as box and whisker plots and violin plots in the same manner as Figure 2D. As length data are approximately log-normally distributed, significant difference testing was performed on log10 transformed data (***p ≤ 0.001, ns = not significant; two-sided t-test).

F) Percentage of cells with WT stalks. Cells in phase images from Figure 2A were scored as having a WT stalk (i.e. a thin extension from the cell body). Cells exhibiting thick and aberrant pseudostalks were excluded. Data (total cells counted: WT n=735; WT+EV n=615; Δ*bacA* n=841; Δ*bacA*+EV n=1259; Δ*bacA*+P$_{bacA}$-*bacA* n=831) are from four independent biological replicates with five phase microscopy fields per replicate. Data are represented as the mean (SD) percentage of cells with stalks. (***p ≤ 0.001, **p ≤ 0.01, ns = not significant > 0.05; two-sided t-test).

Figure 3 –BacA Localizes After Cell Division, Localizes to the Base of Stalks, and Requires SpmX

for Localization. Subcellular localization of BacA-mVenus in strains YB7474 (*bacA*::*bacA-mVenus*) and

YB7487 (Δ*spmX bacA*::*bacA-mVenus*) grown in rich medium (PYE) at 26°C for 24-48h.

A-B) Time lapse microscopy montage showing the dynamics of BacA-mVenus localization in **A)** strain

YB7474 (*bacA*::*bacA-mVenus*) or **B)** strain YB7487 (*bacA*::*bacA-mVenus* Δ*spmX*). Yellow arrows and

text show the transition from pre-septation to post-septation. Yellow black-bordered triangles mark the

appearance of new BacA-mVenus foci in recently divided daughter cells. Septation events and the

corresponding foci appearance are numbered. Frames show images taken every **A)** 28 minutes or **B)** 30

minutes. Scale bars = 2 μm

C) Dimorphic life cycle of *A. biprosthecum*. The prosthecate mother cell produces an adhesive holdfast

(shown in blue) at one pole. Cell division results in a motile, nonreplicating swarmer cell that differentiates

into a prosthecate cell. Green circles indicate SpmX localization. Yellow circles indicate BacA localization.

D) BacA-mVenus subcellular localization. Phase merge and fluorescence microscopy images. Scale bars

= 2 μm.

E) Population level heatmaps of BacA-mVenus subcellular localization. Number of foci analyzed is shown

on the bottom left of each heatmap.

F) Single cell BacA-mVenus foci tracking. Tracks are colored by time, with blue representing the earliest

timepoints and red representing the latest time points. Scale bars = 1 μm.

G) Velocity tracking of multiple BacA-mVenus foci from time-lapse movies. Particle tracking was

performed and velocity (μm/s) from frame-to-frame for each focus was calculated. Each color represents

the track of individual foci as they appear.

Figure 4 – BacA is not Required to Localize SpmX-eGFP, but is Required to Constrain SpmX-eGFP at the Base of the Stalk and to Constrain the Size of SpmX-eGFP Maxima.

A-B) Time lapse microscopy montage showing the dynamics of SpmX-eGFP localization in **A)** strain YB5692 (*spmX*::*spmX-eGFP*) or **B)** strain YB7561 (*spmX*::*spmX-eGFP ΔbacA*). Green black-bordered triangles mark the appearance of new SpmX-eGFP foci in predivisional daughter cells. Green arrows and text show the transition from pre-septation to post-septation. Foci appearance and the corresponding septation events are numbered. Frames show images taken every 30 minutes. Scale bars = 2 µm.

C) Phase merge and fluorescence microscopy images. Scale bars = 2 µm. Subcellular localization of SpmX-eGFP in strains YB5692 (*spmX*::*spmX-eGFP*; top row), YB7561 (*spmX*::*spmX-eGFP ΔbacA*; bottom row), and YB9521 (*spmX*::*spmX-eGFP ΔbacA*+P$_{bacA}$-*bacA*). Cells were grown in rich medium (PYE) to saturation and sub-cultured into phosphate limited (HIGG) medium at 26°C for 72h (see Methods)

D) Population level heatmaps of SpmX-eGFP subcellular localization. Number of foci analyzed is shown on the bottom left of each heatmap.

E) Distribution of orthogonal distance (µm) of each SpmX-eGFP maxima from the medial axis of its associated parent cell. Data set is the same as used in Figure 4D. Data are plotted on a continuous y-axis and are represented as box and whisker plots as described in Figure 2D. (***p ≤ 0.001, ns = not significant > 0.05; two-sided t-test).

F) Distribution of SpmX-eGFP maxima area (nm^2) in the populations. Data set is the same as used in Figure 4D. Data are plotted on a log_{10} scale y-axis and are represented as box and whisker plots as described in Figure 2D. (***$p \leq 0.001$, **$p \leq 0.01$, ns = not significant > 0.05; two-sided t-test).

G) A Δ*bacA* Δ*spmX* Double Mutant Phenocopies a Δ*spmX* Single Mutant. Representative phase images of YB642 (WT), YB8597 (Δ*bacA*), YB8237 (Δ*spmX*), and YB7489 (Δ*bacA* Δ*spmX*). Cells were grown in rich medium (PYE) to saturation and sub-cultured into phosphate limited (HIGG) medium at 26°C for 48h-72h (see Methods) before imaging. WT cells produce stalks (top left), Δ*bacA* cells produce pseudostalks (top right, red arrows), and both Δ*spmX* and Δ*bacA* Δ*spmX* cells are stalkless (bottom). Scale bars = 2 μm.

| Merge | BacA-mVenus | SpmX-mCherry | Fluor. Merge |

Figure 5 – BacA-mVenus and SpmX-mCherry *in vivo* Colocalization.

Representative images of dual labeled strain YB9466 (*bacA*::*bacA-mVenus spmX*::*spmX-mCherry*), with a cell exhibiting almost complete overlap of signals (top), a cell exhibiting BacA-mVenus and SpmX-mCherry foci at both putative sites of stalk synthesis (middle), and a cell with WT stalks, showing functionality of the fusion proteins (bottom).

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (PCC) was used to quantify colocalization of signal intensity between the two fluorophore channels (BacA-mVenus and SpmX-mCherry) within the cells. PCC values range from -1 indicating a strong negative correlation (anticolocalization) to +1 indicating a strong positive correlation (colocalization), with a value of 0 indicating no correlation (noncolocalization). Only cells that contained both BacA-mVenus and SpmX-mCherry foci located at the midcell were used (n = 179). Mean (SD) PCC = 0.48 ± 0.23, showing an overall positive correlation.

Figure 6 – Bacteria Adenylate Cyclase Two-Hybrid (BACTH) Assays Showing *in vivo* Interaction of

SpmX and BacA. BTH101 *E. coli* were co-transformed with T25 and T18 based recombinant plasmids.

Transformants were then grown in selective medium containing 0.5 mM IPTG and patched on selective

indicator plates containing X-gal 40 µg ml^{-1} and 0.5 mM IPTG for ~24 hours at 30°C (see Methods). As

this is a β-galactosidase assay, blue patches indicate a positive *in vivo* interaction between the two

recombinant proteins. Positive control ("+ Crtl") for all assays is T25-Zip and T18-Zip fusion proteins.

Negative controls are unfused T18 or T25 fragments in combination with the experimental fusion protein

or the cognate unfused T25 or T18 fragments. Patches shown are representative of independent

biological triplicates for each combination.

A) C-terminal fused T25 + N-terminal fused T18

B) C-terminal fused T25 + C-terminal fused T18

C) N-terminal fused T25 + N-terminal fused T18

D) N-terminal fused T25 + C-terminal fused T18

Figure 7 – Peptidoglycan (PG) Composition & Remodeling and Septation & DNA Content in WT Stalks and Δ*bacA* Pseudostalks.

A) Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) of prepared PG sacculi for strains YB642 (WT) and YB8597 (Δ*bacA*). Cells were grown in rich medium (PYE) to saturation and sub-cultured into phosphate limited (HIGG) medium at 26°C for 72h (see Methods) before preparing sacculi. Sacculi were prepared by boiling in SDS for 30 minutes followed by washing ≥6X with dH$_2$O. Scale bars = 1 µm

B) Medium pulse FDAA (TADA) labeling showing active PG remodeling in strains YB642 (WT) and YB8597 (Δ*bacA*). Cells were grown in rich medium (PYE) to saturation and sub-cultured into phosphate limited (HIGG) medium at 26°C for 72h (see Methods) before labeling. Cells were washed with 2X PYE, labeled with 500 µM TADA for 45 minutes, washed 2X with PYE, and imaged with phase and fluorescence microscopy. Representative images are shown. Scale bars = 2 µm.

C) Virtual time lapse: Short pulse, sequential, dual FDAA (TADA and HADA) labeling showing active PG remodeling in strains YB5692 (*spmX*::*spmX-eGFP*) and YB7561 (*spmX*::*spmX-eGFP* Δ*bacA*). Cells were

grown in rich medium (PYE) to saturation and sub-cultured into phosphate limited (HIGG) medium at

26°C for 72h (see Methods) before labeling. Cells were washed 2X with PYE, labeled with 500 μM HADA

for 6 minutes, washed 2X with PYE, labeled with 500 μM TADA for 3 minutes, washed 2X with PYE, and

imaged via 3D‑SIM (Structured Illumination Microscopy). Representative images are shown. Scale bars =

1 μm.

D) Pulse-chase time-lapse of FDAA (TADA) labeling for strains YB642 (WT) and YB8597 (Δ*bacA*)

showing loss of labeling as peptidoglycan is actively remodeled. Yellow triangles with black outline

indicate loss of TADA signal in YB642 (WT) as stalk is extended from the base. Cells were grown in rich

medium (PYE) to saturation and sub-cultured into phosphate limited (HIGG) medium at 26°C for 60h (see

Methods) before labeling. To label whole cells, 250 μM TADA was added and cells were allowed to grow

an additional ~12-14h (overnight). Cells were then washed 2X with PYE to remove TADA and imaged via

time-lapse with phase and fluorescence microscopy. Scale bars = 2 μm.

E) Pulse-chase time-lapse of FDAA (TADA) labeling for strains YB8597 (Δ*bacA*) showing elongation and

septation of a pseudo-stalk. Yellow triangles with black outline indicate the septation site. Cells were

grown as described in Figure 6D. Scale bars = 2 μm.

F) DAPI staining for DNA in strains YB642 (WT) and YB8597 (Δ*bacA*) showing DNA is present in the

pseudo stalk (yellow triangles). Representative images are shown. Scale bars = 2 μm.

Figure 8 – Model of the Stalk PG Biosynthetic Complex in *A. biprosthecum*.

A) Dimorphic life cycle of *A. biprosthecum*. The prosthecate mother cell produces an adhesive holdfast (shown in blue) at one pole. Cell division results in a motile, nonreplicating swarmer cell that differentiates into a prosthecate cell. Green circles indicate SpmX localization. Orange circles represent BacA localization. Numbers in parentheses, (1)-(4), indicate stages of WT stalk synthesis as described in Figure 8B.

B) Model of *A. biprosthecum* WT stalk synthesis. (1) SpmX appears early in the cell cycle, prior to cell division, where it marks the future site of stalk synthesis. (2) SpmX recruits the putative PG remodeling complex and the BacA scaffold to the site of stalk synthesis. (3) PG synthesis is initiated at the site defined by SpmX localization and in an area constrained by BacA. (4) As PG synthesis progresses and the stalk elongates, synthesis is constrained at the base of the stalk by the BacA scaffold. Timing of these stages in the cell cycle are indicated by the matching numbers in Figure 8A.

C) Model of *A. biprosthecum* Δ*bacA* pseudostalk synthesis. As with WT cells, (1) SpmX appears early in the cell cycle, prior to cell division, where it marks the future site of stalk synthesis. (2) SpmX recruits the putative PG remodeling complex, but without BacA. (3) PG synthesis is initiated at the site defined by SpmX localization. (4) As PG synthesis progresses, there is no BacA scaffold to constrain the complex at the base of the synthesis site; PG synthesis occurs promiscuously throughout, with SpmX localized to the distal end of the structure, leading to short, wide pseudostalks. Timing of these stages in the cell cycle are indicated by the matching numbers in Figure 8A.

Protein	C. crescentus		A. biprosthecum	
	Role in stalk synthesis	Loss of function phenotype	Role in stalk synthesis	Loss of function phenotype
BacA [12]	• Cytoskeletal protein • Localizes PbpC to stalked pole	• Shorter stalks under phosphate starvation • PbpC does not localize	Unknown at time of study initiation	Unknown at time of study initiation
BacB [12]	• Cytoskeletal protein • Localizes PbpC to stalked pole	• Shorter stalks under phosphate starvation • PbpC does not localize	No homolog	N/A
PbpC [12, 27]	• Class A (bifunctional) PBP • Localizes StpX to stalked pole	• Shorter stalks under phosphate starvation • StpX does not localize	No homolog	N/A
StpX [26, 27]	• Potential role in metal homeostasis	• Shorter stalks under phosphate starvation	No homolog	N/A
SpmX [11, 36]	• None (involved in regulation of asymmetric cell division)	• Division defects	• Required for stalk synthesis • Marks site of stalk synthesis	• Stalkless cells

Supplemental Table 1 – Proteins involved in stalk synthesis. At the time this study was initiated, four *C. crescentus proteins* (BacA, BacB, PbpC, and StpX) had been shown to be involved in stalk synthesis. Of these four, only one (BacA) had a bi-directional best hit homolog in *A. biprosthecum*. The one *A. biprosthecum* protein involved in stalk synthesis (SpmX) has a *C. crescentus* homolog, but in *C. crescentus* this protein is involved in cell cycle regulation and not stalk synthesis.

Supplemental Figure 1 – *A. biprosthecum* **stalk phenotypes in rich medium (PYE).** Analysis of stalk phenotype in strains YB642 (WT) and YB8597 (ΔbacA). Cells were grown in rich medium (PYE) at 26°C for 48h.

A) Phase microscopy for strains YB642 (WT) and YB8597 (ΔbacA). Scale bars = 2 μm.

B) Percentage of cells with WT stalks. Cells in phase images from Figure S1A were scored as having a WT stalk (i.e. a thin extension from the cell body). Yellow triangles indicate ΔbacA midcell protrusions. Data (total cells counted: WT n=747; ΔbacA n=577) are from four independent biological replicates with five phase microscopy fields per replicate. Data are represented as the mean (SD) percentage of cells with stalks. (***p ≤ 0.001; two-sided t-test)

885 **Supplemental Figure 2 – *A. biprosthecum* BacA-mVenus is Functional.** Percentage of cells with WT

886 stalks YB642 (WT) and YB7474 (*bacA*::*bacA*-mVenus). Cells were grown in rich medium (PYE) at 26°C

887 for 48h. Data (total cells counted: WT n=747; *bacA*::*bacA*-mVenus n=378) are from four independent

888 biological replicates with five phase microscopy fields per replicate. Data are represented as the mean

889 (SD) percentage of cells with stalks. (ns = not significant > 0.05; two-sided t-test)

Supplemental Figure 3 – SpmX Localization is Rescued for Wildtype Stalk Synthesis when BacA Is

Expressed in a Δ*bacA* background.

A) Subcellular localization of SpmX-eGFP in starins YB5692 (*spmX*::*spmX-eGFP*), YB7561

(*spmX*::*spmX-eGFP* Δ*bacA*), and YB9521 (*spmX*::*spmX-eGFP* Δ*bacA* + pMR10-P$_{bacA}$-*bacA*) grown in rich

medium (PYE) to saturation and sub-cultured into phosphate limited (HIGG) medium at 26°C for 72h.

Phase merge and fluorescence microscopy images. Scale bars = 2 µm.

B) Distribution of orthogonal distance (µm) of each SpmX-eGFP maxima from the medial axis of its

associated parent cell. In order to distinguish cells with wildtype stalks from cells with pseudostalks,

analysis was performed on a subset of the data presented in Figure 4C-4F. Data (WT n=49; Δ*bacA* n=22;

Δ*bacA*+P$_{bacA}$-*bacA* n= 15) are plotted on a continuous y-axis and are represented as box and whisker

plots as described in Figure 2D. (***p ≤ 0.001, **p ≤ 0.01, *p ≤ 0.05, ns = not significant > 0.05; two-sided

t-test).

Supplemental Figure 4 – Fluorescent Proteins are Expressed at Similar Levels in WT Cells and
Deletion Strains.

A) Western blot against BacA-mVenus inserted at the *bacA* locus in WT (YB7474) and Δ*spmX* (YB7487)
cells.

B) Western blot against SpmX-eGFP inserted at the *spmX* locus in WT (YB5692) and Δ*bacA* (YB7561)
cells.

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