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# Hyphal aggregation and surface attachment of *Streptomyces* is governed by extracellular poly- $\beta$ -1,6-*N*-acetylglucosamine

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### ABSTRACT

Streptomyces are multicellular filamentous microorganisms, which are major producers of antibiotics, anticancer drugs and industrial enzymes. When grown in submerged cultures, the preferred enzyme producer, *Streptomyces lividans*, forms dense mycelial aggregates or pellets, which requires the activity of the proteins encoded by the *matAB* and *csIA-glxA*. Here we show that *matAB* encodes the biosynthetic genes for the extracellular polymeric substance (EPS) poly- $\beta$ -1,6-*N*-acetylglucosamine or PNAG. Heterologous expression of *matAB* in actinomycetes that naturally lack these genes was sufficient for PNAG production and induction of mycelial aggregation. Also, overexpression of *matAB* in a non-pelleting *csIA* mutant restored pellet formation, which could effectively be antagonized by the PNAG-specific hydrolase, dispersin B. Extracellular accumulation of PNAG allowed *Streptomyces* to attach to hydrophilic surfaces, unlike attachment to hydrophobic surfaces, which involves a cellulase-degradable EPS produced by *CsIA*. Altogether, our data support a model in which pellet formation depends on hydrophilic interactions mediated by PNAG and hydrophobic interactions involving the EPS produced by *CsIA*. These new insights may be harnessed to improve growth and industrial exploitation of these highly versatile natural product and enzyme producers.



## INTRODUCTION

The ability of many microorganisms to organize themselves into biofilms has a huge impact on human society, impacting human health (Hall-Stoodley *et al.*, 2004), waste treatment (Liu and Tay, 2002) and crop production (Ramey *et al.*, 2004). Within a biofilm many different individual cells aggregate into a multicellular community where they coexist in a relatively complex and coordinated manner (Vlamakis *et al.*, 2013; Claessen *et al.*, 2014). The cells are held together by an extracellular matrix, often referred to as extracellular polymeric substance (EPS), that can comprise to 90% of the mass in a biofilm (Branda *et al.*, 2005; Wingender *et al.*, 2012).

The presence of extracellular polysaccharides in the matrix is in most cases essential for a persisting biofilm. Although many different kinds of exo-polysaccharides are employed by different bacterial species (Boyd and Chakrabarty, 1995; Ruas-Madiedo *et al.*, 2002), pathogenic bacteria often produce poly- $\beta$ -1,6-*N*-acetylglucosamine (PNAG) to stick to the biotic surface of a host, which often is a requirement, but not by itself sufficient for biofilm formation (Wang *et al.*, 2004, Roux *et al.*, 2015, Mack *et al.*, 1996, Beenken *et al.*, 2004). Interestingly, the soil bacterium *Bacillus subtilis* also produces PNAG, suggesting that this EPS is abundantly present in natural matrices (Roux *et al.*, 2015). In *Staphylococcus epidermis*, the organism in which PNAG was first detected, the *icaADBC* gene cluster encodes proteins responsible for the production of PNAG. IcaAD form a glycosyltransferase that synthesizes the PNAG chain intracellularly, while IcaB partially deacetylates the polymer extracellularly, thereby changing the net charge, and allowing better association with the cell surface (Vuong *et al.*, 2004). IcaC likely plays a role in the export and possibly O-succinylation of the PNAG polymer (Atkin *et al.*, 2014).

Streptomycetes are multicellular filamentous bacteria that reproduce by sporulation and are the source of the majority of the antibiotics as well as many other compounds of medical, agricultural and biotechnological importance (Hopwood, 2007; Barka *et al.*, 2016). The production of such natural products is under extensive genetic and morphological control (van Wezel *et al.*, 2009; Liu *et al.*, 2013). In submerged cultures, many *Streptomyces* species form pellets, which may be regarded as self-immobilizing biofilms (van Dissel *et al.*, 2014). Because of their dense architecture, which among other issues, causes significant mass transfer limitations, pellets are often undesirable for industrial production; however, antibiotic production often benefits from mycelial clumps compared with mycelial fragments (Wardell *et al.*, 2002a; van Wezel *et al.*, 2006a). Pellet architecture depends on genetic and environmental factors, like the septum formation (Noens *et al.*, 2007; Traag and Wezel, 2008), cytoskeleton (Celler *et al.*, 2013), shear stress (Heydarian *et al.*, 1999), pH (Glazebrook *et al.*, 1992) and cell wall fusions (Koebisch *et al.*, 2009). Two extracellular polysaccharides are of particular important for cellular aggregation, namely a cellulose-based EPS that is produced by the concerted action of CslA, GlxA and DtpA (Xu *et al.*, 2008; de Jong *et al.*, 2009; Chaplin *et al.*, 2015; Petrus *et al.*, 2016), which mediates attachment in cooperation with the amyloid-forming chaplin proteins, and a putative second extracellular

polysaccharide that is synthesized by the MatAB proteins (van Dissel *et al.*, 2015). Loss of either system results in similar dispersed morphology, suggesting that both systems might work in unison in a so far unclear way (Zacchetti *et al.*, 2016).

The *matAB* gene cluster shows significant resemblance to the PNAG biosynthetic gene cluster *icaADBC* from *S. epidermidis*, with the bifunctional MatB likely corresponding functionally to both IcaA and IcaB, forming an intracellular glycosyltransferase domain and an extracellular oligo-deacetylase domain, respectively. SCO2961, which is located directly downstream of *matB*, is an orthologue of *icaC* that might also play a role in formation of the mature polymer. The function of MatA is unclear as it lacks known functional domains, but as deletion of the *mata* gene reduces hyphal aggregation it may assist in efficient polymerization of the EPS, similarly to IcaD (Gerke *et al.*, 1998).

In this study we show that MatAB is responsible for the production of PNAG. The MatAB-dependent EPS is required for adherence to hydrophilic surfaces, while a second EPS produced by the action of CslA and GlxA mediates attachment to hydrophobic surfaces. The combination of these two systems make up the architecture of a pellet, creating a strong, robust structure. Since natural product formation and enzyme production depend strongly on the morphology of the mycelia, this also has major implications for biotechnological exploitation.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### *Bacterial strains and plasmids*

**Table 1: Strains and vectors used in the study**

Strain or plasmid	Description and genotype	Reference
<i>Streptomyces lividans</i> 66 (1326)	SLP2+ SLP3+	(Kieser <i>et al.</i> , 2000)
<i>Saccharopolyspora erythraea</i>		(Labeda, 1987)
$\Delta cslA$	<i>S. lividans</i> 66 $\Delta cslA$	(Chaplin <i>et al.</i> , 2015)
GAD05	<i>S. lividans</i> 66 $\Delta matAB$	(van Dissel <i>et al.</i> , 2015)
GAD06	<i>S. lividans</i> 66 $\Delta matB$	this work
GAD07	$\Delta cslA$ + pMAT7	this work
GAD08	<i>Sacch. erythrea</i> + pMAT7	this work

Vector	Description	Reference
pSET152	<i>oriT</i> RK2, pUC18 replicon, Apra <sup>R</sup>	(Bierman <i>et al.</i> , 1992)
pMAT7	pSET152-P <sup>gapA</sup> -matAB	this work

The bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in Table 1. *E. coli* JM109 (Sambrook and Russell, 2001) was used as a routine host for plasmid construction. The native *matAB* locus and *gapA* promoter region were PCR-amplified from the *S. coelicolor* genome as described using primers SCO2963\_F, SCO2962\_R and PSCO1947\_F, PSCO1947\_R respectively (Table S1). The *matAB* locus was cloned as an EcoRI/BamHI fragment into the



integrative vector pSET152 (Bierman *et al.*, 1992) and the promoter region was placed in front of the *matAB* locus as an EcoRI/NdeI fragment, resulting in construct pMAT7. Conjugative plasmid transfer to *Streptomyces* was done using *E. coli* ET12567 (MacNeil *et al.*, 1992) harboring pUZ8002 as the host (Kieser *et al.*, 2000).

### **Culture conditions**

Streptomycetes were grown in shake flasks with a coiled stainless steel spring in 30 ml tryptic soy broth (Difco) with 10% sucrose (TSBS). Cultures were inoculated with 10<sup>6</sup> cfu/ml and grown at 30°C. To assess growth in the presence of hydrolytic enzymes, strains were grown in 96-well plates where the agitation was facilitated by a Microplate Genie Digital mixer (Scientific Industries, USA) set to 1400 rpm, which was found to reproduce native morphologies at a micro scale (DVD and GVW, unpublished data). Dispersin B (100 µg/ml), cellulase (SigmaAldrich, C1184) (2 U/ml) or chitinase (SigmaAldrich C8241) (0.5 U/ml) were added during growth to degrade EPS. The strains were observed after 24 h of growth by wide field microscopy.

### **Bioinformatics**

The genomes of *Streptomyces coelicolor* A3(2) M145 (Bentley *et al.*, 2002) and *S. lividans* 66 (Cruz-Morales *et al.*, 2013) have been published. Protein domains were annotated using the conserved domain search v3.14 (Marchler-Bauer *et al.*, 2014), using default settings. Homology searches were performed using the local Blast+ software v2.2.30 (Camacho *et al.*, 2009). A BlastP database was built from the amino acid sequences of all characterized type 2 glycosyltransferases and type 4 carbohydrate esterases listed in the CAZy database ([www.CAZy.org](http://www.CAZy.org)). The amino acid sequences were retrieved from the Uniprot database ([www.uniprot.org](http://www.uniprot.org)). *In silico* structure prediction of MatB was performed with the Protein Homology/analogy Recognition Engine Version 2 (PHYRE2) (Kelley *et al.*, 2015). Structural analysis and alignment was performed in Pymol (v1.7.4). Sequence alignments were done in MEGA (v7.0.9) using the ClustalW algorithm (Thompson *et al.*, 2002). Maximum likelihood trees were constructed using default settings and a bootstrap with 500 iterations.

### **Production and isolation of dispersin B**

Dispersin B from *Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans* ATCC 29522 was produced and purified as described (Kaplan *et al.*, 2003). The specific activity, determined as the amount of enzyme needed to hydrolyze 1 µmol 4-nitrophenyl-β-D-N-acetylglucosaminide per minute in 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 5.5) 100 mM NaCl was 570 U /mg protein.

### **Calcofluor white staining**

The presence of (1-3) or (1-4) glycans was assessed by calcofluor white staining (Wood, 1980b). Strains were grown over night in 8-well microscope chambers (LabTech II) in 300 µl

TSBS medium. 30  $\mu$ l calcofluor white (CFW) solution (Sigma Aldrich) was added and after 5 min incubation the samples were imaged on a Zeiss LSM5 Exciter/ Axio observer with a 405 nm laser, a 405/488 nm beam splitter and 420-480 nm bandpass filter (Colson *et al.*, 2008).

### ***Immunofluorescence***

Immunofluorescence microscopy was performed as described (Roux *et al.*, 2015), with small adaptations. In short, *S. lividans* 66 was grown in TSBS media for 6 hours at 30°C. A 50  $\mu$ l culture aliquot was spotted inside circles drawn with a PAP pen on adhesive microscope slides (Klinipath, The Netherlands). After 15 min the media was removed gently and the cell layer was air dried for 10 min and fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS for 15 min. After washing samples twice with PBS, monoclonal antibodies against PNAG (mAb F598) were added to a final concentration of 10  $\mu$ g/ml in PBS with 0.1% BSA-c (Aurion, the Netherlands) and samples incubated for 16 h at 4°C. The samples were then washed three times with PBS with 0.1% BSA-c and fluorescently-labeled goat-anti-human IgGs (Life Technologies) added to a final concentration of 4  $\mu$ g/ml and incubated in the dark for 2 h. After washing twice with PBS with 0.1% BSA-c, some PBS with propidium iodide at a concentration 1  $\mu$ g/ml was added and the samples were imaged on an axiovision Zeiss microscope equipped with a mercury lamp.

### ***Cryo scanning electron microscopy***

Mycelia from cultures grown for 6 h, fixed by 1,5% glutaraldehyde and immobilized on isopore membrane 0.8  $\mu$ m filter discs (Millipore) by pushing the liquid through using a syringe and placing the filter in a filter holder. The discs were cut to size and placed on the SEM target immobilized with Tissue Tek® and quickly frozen in liquid nitrogen slush and transferred directly to the cryo-transfer attachment of the scanning electron microscope. After 10 minutes sublimation at -90 °C specimens were sputter-coated with a layer of 2 nm Platinum and examined at -120 °C in the JEOL JSM6700F scanning electron microscope at 3 kV as described (Keijser *et al.*, 2003).

### ***Negative stain TEM microscopy***

For negative staining, 5  $\mu$ l of young mycelium was placed on a copper TEM grid and air dried for 15 min. The cellular material was stained with 3% PTA for 5 min, followed by 5 times washing with miliQ. The samples were placed in a JEOL 1010 transmission electron microscope and observed at 60 kV as described (Piette *et al.*, 2005).

### ***Adhesion Assays***

Attachment of strains to polystyrene surfaces was tested as described (van Keulen *et al.*, 2003). In short 106 CFUs/ml were inoculated into 4 ml NMMP (Kieser *et al.*, 2000) without





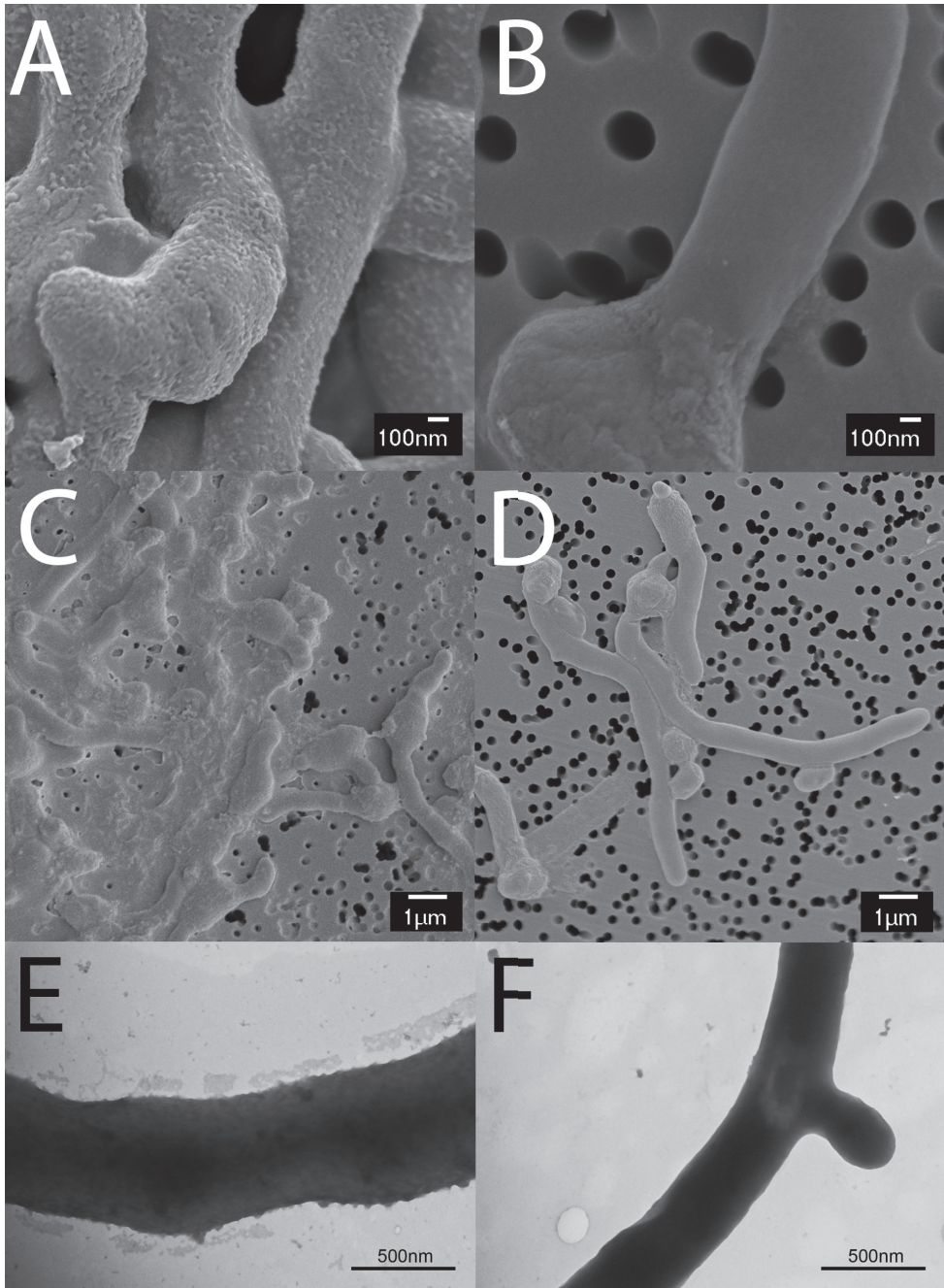


Figure 1. Demonstration of the extracellular layer produced by the *mat* genes. Cryo SEM of young vegetative mycelium (A-D) shows an abundance of extracellular material in wild type *S. lividans* covering the outside of hyphae (A) and between hyphae (C). This extracellular material is absent in the *mat* mutant (B and D). Negatively stained hyphae with tungsten acid, specific for polymeric substances, reveals a scabrous outside coating in wild-type hyphae (E) that is absent in the *mat* mutant (F). All strains were grown for 8 h in TSBS media in a shake flask.

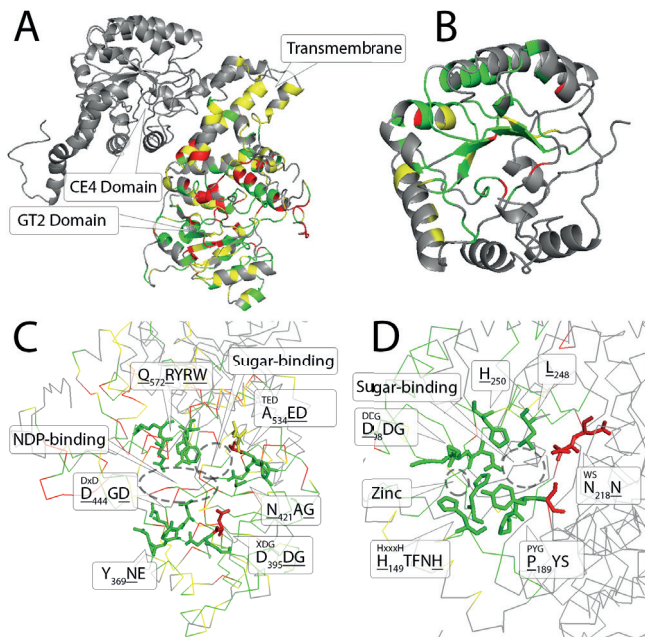


polyethylene glycol and casamino acids, using 2% mannitol as the sole carbon source. After 5 days at 30°C the standing cultures were stained with crystal violet. After washing the attached cells were quantified by extracting the crystal violet with 10% SDS and measuring the absorption at 570 nm. Attachment to glass surfaces was tested in a similar fashion, using glass bottom 96 wells plates (Greiner Bio-One, Austria) and 200 µl NMMP medium without polyethylene glycol, but with 0.5% casamino acids and 2% glucose as the carbon source. These were cultivated overnight at 30°C and the attached biomass was quantified as for polystyrene.

## RESULTS

### *Mat facilitates the formation of a granular layer on the outside of the hyphae*

Previous studies showed that the *mat* genes encode a putative extracellular polysaccharide synthetase system in *Streptomyces* that is required for mycelial aggregation and pellet formation in submerged cultures, most likely by mediating cell-cell bonding (van



**Figure 2.** Structural model of the MatB protein. Model of predicted MatB using PHYRE<sup>2</sup> where the two predicted domains were submitted as a whole and separately. The intracellular GT2 domain (aa 354-734) (A and C) was based on the cellulose synthase BcsA (4HG6), while the extracellular CE4 domain (aa 1-342) was based on a combination of 6 templates (PDB 2c1l, 1ny1, 4nz3, 1w17, 4m1B, 4l1G) (B and D). The coloring represents the conservation from the top 5 blast scores where green is 80% conserved in homologues and MatB, yellow is a conserved aa type and red represents 80% conservation in homologues, but different in MatB. Gray represents non conserved residues. The putative active sites and important amino acids involved in the enzymatic reactions are indicated in C and D for the glucosyltransferase domain and the carbohydrate esterase domain respectively.

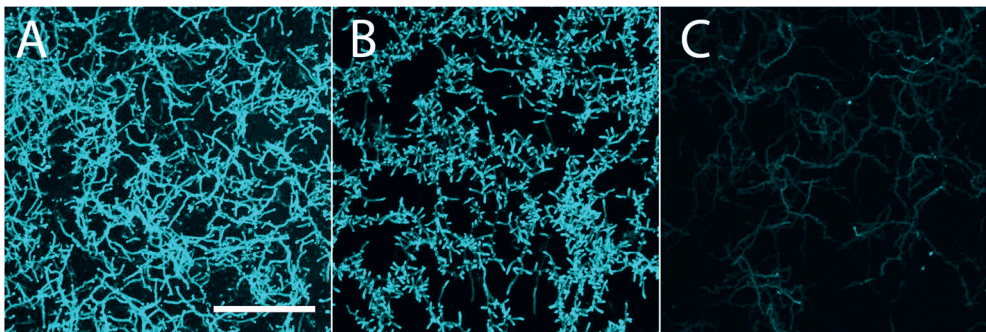


Dissel *et al.*, 2015). To elucidate the underlying mechanism, we here investigated the cell surface mechanism by which this is mediated, aiming to elucidate the nature of the EPS. Although the Mat proteins are expressed throughout growth (Zacchetti *et al.*, 2016), the Mat polymer was most apparent in young mycelia. High resolution imaging by cryo-scanning electron microscopy (SEM) revealed a surface layer that decorated the entire outer surface of the hyphae (Figure 1A). Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) of Tungsten acid-negative stained cells, which images electron dense polymeric surface structures, highlighted an extracellular surface layer (Figure 1E). Between the hyphae a deposit of extracellular matrix could also be observed by SEM (Figure 1C). Conversely, the hyphae of the *matB* mutant have instead a smooth surface, observed both with SEM (Figure 1B) or negative staining in the TEM (Figure 1F). We also failed to detect any extracellular material between the hyphae of *matB* mutants (Figure 1D).

### ***MatB correlates to the production of poly-N-acetylglucosamine***

Bioinformatics analysis of MatA failed to identify known protein domains. MatB contains two functional domains, namely an intracellular glycosyltransferase type 2 (GT2) domain and a type 4 carbohydrate esterase (CE4) domain, connected by a predicted transmembrane helix. Sequences of glycosyltransferases and carbohydrate esterases were extracted from CAZy, which catalogs enzymes with characterized function, and assembled in a local database for Blast analysis. The glycosyltransferase domain of MatB returned PgaC from *E. coli* as the top hit (Table S2). *E. coli pgaC* encodes a glycosyltransferase that synthesizes Poly- $\beta$ -1,6-*N*-acetylglucosamine (PNAG) (Itoh *et al.*, 2008). The next nearest homologs were enzymes with the same function in *Acinetobacter baumannii*, *Staphylococcus epidermis*, *Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans* and *Actinobacillus pleuropneumoniae*, all with similar scores.

A similar blast comparison with the MatB carbohydrate esterase domain returned PgdA (BC\_3618), a peptidoglycan N-acetylglucosamine deacetylase from *Bacillus cereus* as



*Figure 3. Calcofluor white staining. S. lividans* (A), the *matAB* mutant (B) and  $\Delta$ *cslA* (C) were stained with CFW to assess the presence of extracellular (1,3)- or (1,4)-glycans. The staining patterns indicate the presence of (1,3)- or (1,4)-glycans in both the parental strain and its *matAB* mutant, while it is absent in the *cslA* mutant. Scale bar equals 50  $\mu$ m.

nearest characterized homologue (Table S2). Other top hits include a chitin deacetylase from *Caldanaerobacter subterraneus* and NodB proteins from *Rhizobium* species, all with similar scores. Interestingly, these enzymes all act on 1,4-linked oligo-chitin like substrates, in contrast to poly- $\beta$ -1,6-N-acetylglucosamine glycosyltransferases. Submission of the MatB protein sequence to the PHYRE2 webserver, which models 3D protein structures using known crystal structures as inputs (Kelley *et al.*, 2015) returned a putative protein model where 86% of the residues could be modeled with more than 90% confidence (Figure 2A). The GT2 domain could be modeled with 100% confidence, using BcsA of *Rhodobacter sphaeroides* (PDB 4hg6) as template and the CE4 domain was modeled with 100% confidence, using a combination of six oligo-chitin/GlcNAc peptidoglycan deacetylases (PDB 2c1l, 1ny1, 4nz3, 1w17, 4m1b, 4l1g) (Figure 2B). The structure of the N- and C-termini and the transmembrane helix that connects the two domains could only be modeled with low confidence. Nearly all amino acid residues involved in binding of the UDP-sugar moiety in various PNAG biosynthetic glycosyltransferases are conserved in MatB (Figure 2C; Figure S1; Figure S2), while residues in the active site of the MatB CE4 domain had very high

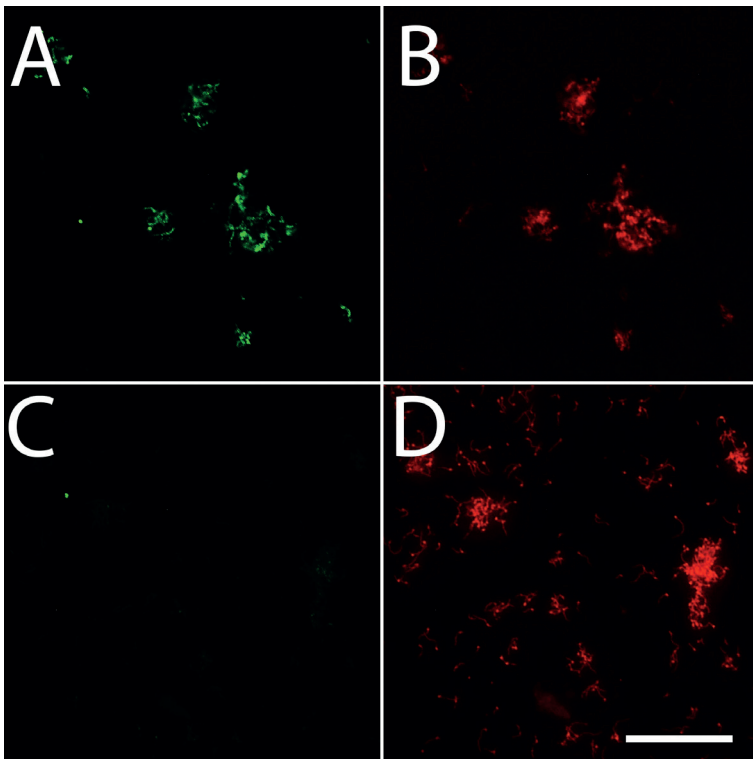


Figure 4. Immunofluorescence micrographs of *S. lividans* and its *matB* null mutant to identify extracellular PNAG. Young mycelia from 6 h old cultures of *S. lividans* 66 and its *matB* mutant were analyzed for the presence of PNAG with the specific monoclonal antibody mAb F598 and secondary anti-human IgG Alexa 488 conjugate. The presence of cells is indicated by the DNA binding dye SYTO 85. These experiment demonstrate that PNAG was produced by wild-type cells but not by *matB* mutants. Bar, 100  $\mu$ m.



homology to those of oligo-chitin deacetylases (Figure 2D). Interestingly, neither PNAG deacetylases nor chitin synthases share a high homology with the respective MatB domains, and phylogenetic analysis using a maximum-likelihood tree build places MatB in the middle for both CE4 or GT2 domains (Figure S3). Taken together, bioinformatics analysis predicted that MatB synthesizes poly-*N*-acetylglucosamine, which could be either in the (1,4)- or in the (1,6)-configuration.

**MatB produces a PNAG-like EPS**

To analyze if the Mat proteins may be involved in the biosynthesis of (1,3-) or (1,4-) glycans, hyphae of *S. lividans* 66 and its *matB* null mutant were stained with calcofluor white (CFW) (Wood, 1980a). Apical sites of both wild-type and *matB* mutant cells were stained with equal efficiency (Figure 3). This is contrary to the absence of staining in *csIA* null mutants, where the synthesis of (1,3)- or (1,4)-glycans is impaired (Xu *et al.*, 2008; Chaplin *et al.*

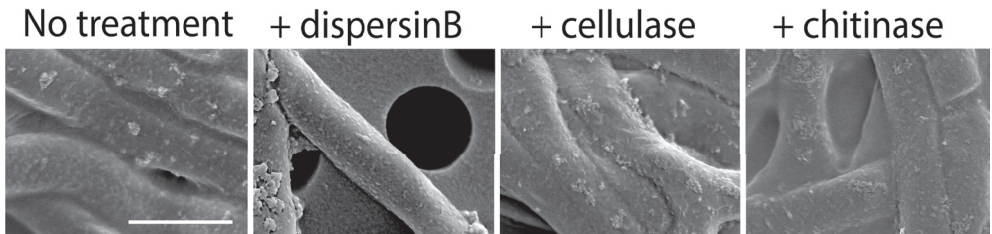


Figure 5. Effect of hydrolytic enzymes on the accumulation of EPS on hyphae of *S. lividans* 66. Mycelia of wild-type *S. lividans* 66 were treated with either 50 µg/ml dispersin B, 0.5 U/ml chitinase or 2 U/ml cellulase for 4 h. The biomass was imaged with cryoSEM to visualize the extracellular matrix. Note that treatment with dispersin B, which degrades PNAG, resulted in smooth hyphae. Bar, 1 µm.

*al.*, 2015). *CsIA* and its partner *GlxA* synthesize a cellulose-like polymeric substance, which is also involved in the aggregation of *Streptomyces* in liquid-grown cultures (Petrus and Claessen, 2014). This strongly suggests that MatAB do not synthesize (1,3)- or (1,4)-glycans.

To further characterize the product of the MatAB enzymes, we used monoclonal antibodies (mAb F598) that specifically recognize both intact and deacetylated PNAG (Kelly-Quintos *et al.*, 2006). Mycelia obtained from 6 h liquid-grown cultures of *S. lividans* 66 or its *matB* mutant were fixed in 4% PVA and incubated overnight with mAb F598. After washing and incubation with a fluorescently labeled secondary antibody conjugate, mounting fluid containing SYTO85 was added to stain the DNA and samples were then imaged with a fluorescence microscope (Figure 4). Wild-type cells were strongly stained with mAb F598, indicating the production of a PNAG-like polymer. Co-localization with the DNA stain SYTO85 suggests that most PNAG-like molecules are located on the cell surface. Conversely, immunofluorescence microscopy of *matB* null mutants with mAb F598 only resulted in background fluorescence, strongly suggesting that the Mat proteins indeed synthesize PNAG or a highly related PNAG-like polymer.

To further ascertain the presence of PNAG, the mycelia were treated for 2 h with a

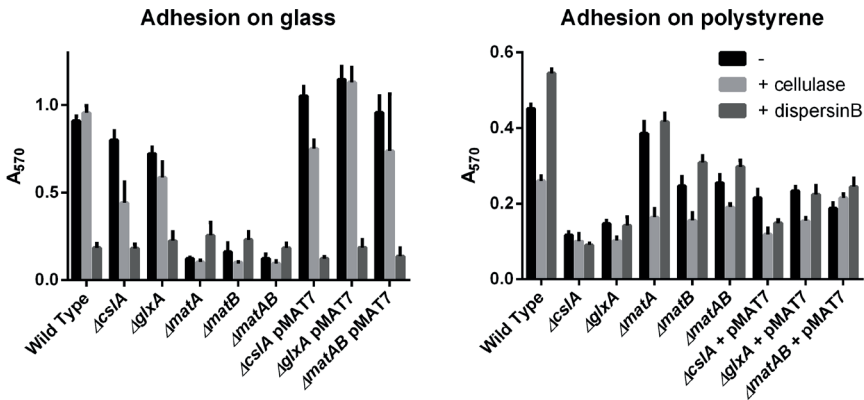


Figure 6. Quantification of attachment to solid surfaces. Surface attachment was quantified for *S. lividans* 66 and its respective *csIA*, *matA* or *matB* mutants with and without added Dispersin B or cellulase. Quantification was performed by staining attached cells with crystal violet and measuring dissolved crystal violet spectrophotometrically at 570 nm. The average and standard deviation of five independent wells are given. A) Surface attachment on glass from overnight growth B) Surface attachment to polystyrene after 7 days of growth.

suspension containing either chitinases, cellulases or dispersin B. Only dispersin B, which specifically degrades PNAG (Kaplan *et al.*, 2003), significantly affected EPS accumulation as visualized by SEM microscopy, further indicating that the extracellular *mat*-dependent EPS is indeed PNAG (Figure 5).

### Mechanistic insight into *matA* and *matB* in relation to *csIA* and *glxA*

As mentioned above, the inhibition of mycelial pellet formation by *S. lividans* in liquid-grown cultures is not uniquely associated with *matA* or *matB*, but has also been observed when *csIA* and/or *glxA* are disrupted. When grown in liquid cultures the phenotypes of *csIA*, *glxA* or *matB* null mutants are phenotypically highly similar, with highly dispersed growth, highlighting the importance of both the *matAB* and *csIA-glxA* gene clusters for pellet formation. In an attempt to increase our understanding of how the two different EPSs might coordinate aggregation, we investigated the attachment behavior

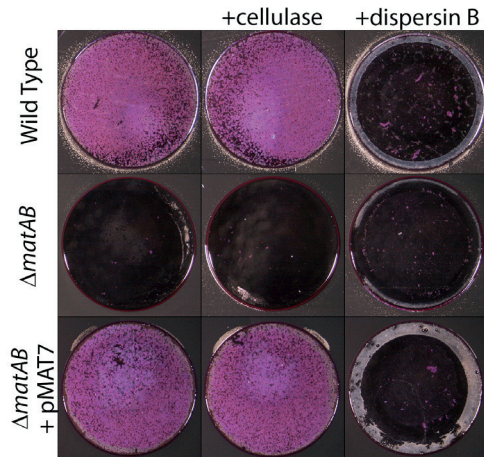
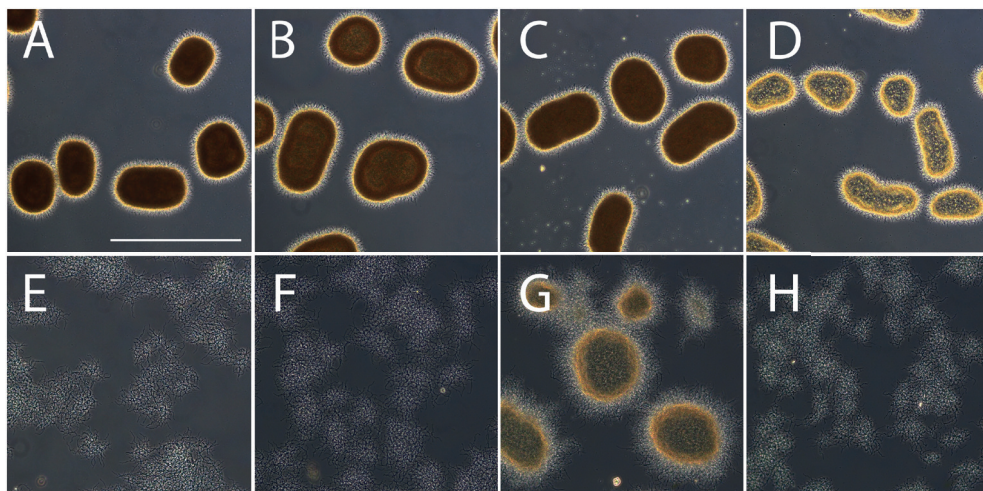


Figure 7. Visualization of adhesion to glass. *S. lividans* 66, its *matAB* null mutant and the *matAB* mutant complemented with pMAT7 grown for 20 h. Cellulase at a concentration of 0.2 U/ml had no effect on glass surface attachment, in contrast to 50  $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$  dispersin B, which efficiently inhibited attachment. Complementation of the *matAB* mutant with pMAT7 restored attachment, which could in turn be antagonized again by the addition of dispersin B.







**Figure 8.** Effect of cellulase and dispersin B on mycelial morphology. Light micrographs show *S. lividans* 66 (A), *S. lividans* 66 treated with 2 U/ml cellulase (B), 100 µg/ml dispersin B (C) or both cellulase and dispersin B (D), the *matB* (E) and *csIA* mutants (F) and the *csIA* mutant harboring pMAT7 without (G) or with (H) added dispersin B. All strains were grown in TSBS medium for 24 h at 30°C. The effects on morphology were visualized by widefield microscopy. Bar, 500 µm.

on hydrophobic and hydrophilic surfaces, via adherence assays on glass and polystyrene, respectively. Attachment of the *matA* and *matB* mutants to polystyrene attachment was similar to that of the parental strain, while attachment of *csIA* or *glxA* mutants was strongly reduced (Figure 6A). Conversely, attachment to glass is mostly depended on *matA* and *matB*, and was less affected in the *csIA* or *glxA* mutants (Figure 6B and Figure 7). This indicates that the EPS produced by CslA and GlxA plays a dominant role in adherence to hydrophobic surfaces, while the PNAG produced by MatAB is particularly relevant for adherence to hydrophilic surfaces.

### ***MatAB* expression is responsible for pellet formation**

Pellet formation in shaken liquid cultures appears to depend on both hydrophilic and hydrophobic adhesive forces, as deletion of either *csIA* or *matB* prevented pellet formation (Figure 8 E and F). However, it might be more complicated than the sum of the two factors, as the addition of high concentrations of either cellulase (2 U/ml) or Dispersin B (100 µg/ml) was unable to alter the phenotypic characteristics of pellets (Figure 8 A-C). A mix of both enzymes did induce a morphological change, but did not prevent pellet formation, indicating that more factors determine the integrity of pellets than the *csIA*- and *matAB*-dependent EPSs (Figure 8 D). However, pellet formation could be restored to *csIA* mutants by the introduction of the pMAT7 construct, which over-expresses *matAB* from the strong constitutive *gapA* (SCO1947) promoter (Figure 8 G and H). Importantly, this MatAB-driven complementation of pellet formation by *csIA* mutants could be readily antagonized by the

addition of dispersin B, which underlines that PNAG formation was responsible for the complementation. These data indicate that the enzymatic resistance of native pellets is the result of the complex composition of the extracellular matrix. Finally, we tested if addition of *matAB* to an actinomycete that does not have the genes on its chromosome would be sufficient to alter the mycelial morphology. As a test system we used the non-pelleting *Saccharopolyspora erythraea*. Introduction of plasmid pMAT7 into the strain indeed induced pellet formation, and again this phenotype was reversible by the addition of the PNAG-antagonizing enzyme dispersin B (Figure 9). The heterologous production of PNAG by MatAB shows that the presence of this polymer by itself suffices to induce pellet formation in filamentous actinomycetes, which opens new perspectives for morphological engineering approaches.

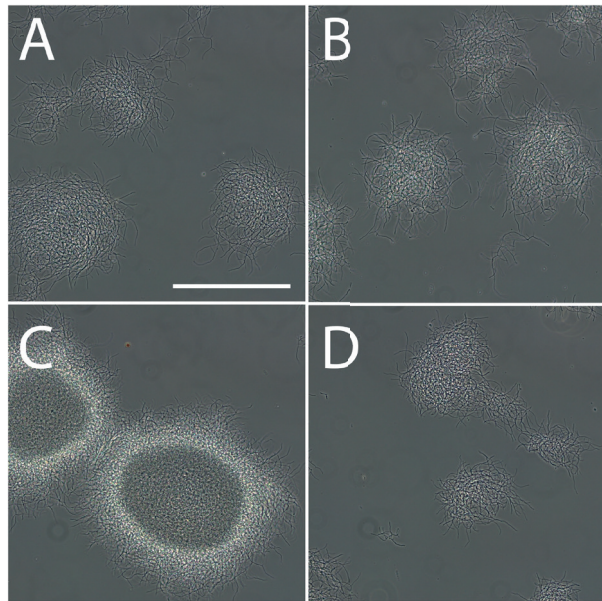


Figure 9. Effect of dispersin B on the mycelial morphology of *Saccharopolyspora erythraea*. *S. erythraea* transformants harboring the empty vector pSET152 (A and B; control) or pMAT7 (C and D) were grown for 24 h in TSBS media with (B and D) or without (A and C) 50 µg/ml dispersin B. The effects on mycelial morphology were visualized by widefield microscopy. Note the increased aggregation of *matAB* transformants, which could be reversed by adding dispersin B. Bar, 200 µm.

## DISCUSSION

Members of the multicellular filamentous genus *Streptomyces* have an innate ability to self-aggregate in liquid-grown cultures, with the mycelia of several species forming dense pellets. This mode of aggregation contrasts with other surface-attached biofilms, which typically consist of aggregating single cells, held together by an extracellular matrix (Vlamakis *et al.*, 2013; Claessen *et al.*, 2014). The matrix contributes to structural integrity of the multicellular community, while simultaneously providing protection against various stresses (Scher *et al.*, 2005; Romero *et al.*, 2010; DePas *et al.*, 2013). Multiple matrix layers may be formed, with an outer layer containing a soluble EPS and a core with insoluble EPS and hydrophobic proteins (Sheng *et al.*, 2006). While matrices are usually mentioned in the context of biofilms, streptomycetes also make extracellular substances that contribute to morphology. Pellets of *S. coelicolor* were proposed to contain extracellular DNA (eDNA) and hyaluronic acid, and interference with these matrix components resulted in (partial)





disintegration of mycelial pellets (Kim & Kim, 2004). In this work, we report the discovery of a similarly multi-layered and multi- component system in *Streptomyces*. Besides the previously identified cellulose-like EPS that is produced by the action of CslA and GlxA, we here show that the MatAB enzymes produce PNAG, which is also a well-known EPS that plays a role in biofilm formation by many planktonic bacteria (Wang *et al.*, 2004, Roux *et al.*, 2015, Mack *et al.*, 1996, Beenken *et al.*, 2004). These data strongly suggest that the formation of pellets by liquid-grown mycelia of streptomycetes may be based on the same principles as the formation of biofilms by planktonic bacteria. This apparently supports the hypothesis that hyphal growth of mycelial microorganisms may have evolved from the less permanent aggregation of single cells (Claessen *et al.*, 2014). Adhesion assays with glass (hydrophilic) and polystyrene (hydrophobic) revealed that PNAG is primarily responsible for adhesion to hydrophilic surfaces (*i.e.* to glass), while the cellulose-like EPS promotes hydrophobic adhesion (to polystyrene). Both types of EPS play a crucial role in the maintenance of mycelial pellets in submerged cultures, and deletion of either *csIA* (Xu *et al.*, 2008) or *matAB* (van Dissel *et al.*, 2015) results in highly dispersed growth, although overexpression of *matAB* is sufficient for the formation of pellets by *csIA* null mutants. With both systems present, the obtained rigidity of the pellet architecture is more than the sum of its parts, as indicated by the resistance against the combination of dispersin B and cellulases. In *S. epidermis*, PNAG has been linked to adherence to both hydrophilic and hydrophobic surfaces (Cerca *et al.*, 2005). Why PNAG alone is not enough for hydrophobic adherence in *Streptomyces* requires further investigation, but might be related to the larger multicellular size of the organism, requiring a greater force for adherence. Although not understood in detail, hydrophobic adherence of *Streptomyces* is likely the result of a more complicated system, which besides the product of CslA also involves the hydrophobic chaplin proteins (de Jong *et al.*, 2009). As the chaplins are expressed late in the life cycle, involvement of these proteins might also explain why strong attachment to polystyrene is a multi-day process (de Jong *et al.*, 2009). Chaplins are also involved in pellet formation, although the absence of the chaplin layer has less severe morphological consequences than lack of the cellulose-like or PNAG-based EPSs (unpublished data). The chaplin based hydrophobic forces, likely located in the core of a pellet, might contribute to strengthening the pellet, but cannot fully explain the role of CslA/GlxA in cellular aggregation. Earlier work indicated that the polymer produced by CslA/GlxA plays a role in stabilization of the tip complex (Xu *et al.*, 2008), which might explain its pleiotropic involvement in multiple systems throughout the life cycle. We can speculate that aggregation by PNAG is to some extent dependent on the proper organization of the tip complex supported the polymer produced by CslA/GlxA. It is our hope that high resolution spatial co-localization studies of CslA/GlxA, the chaplins and MatAB in native pellets, currently in progress in our laboratory, shed light on the involvement of these systems and their interactions in controlling the mycelial architecture.

Understanding how hyphal aggregation and pellet formation is controlled brings us one step closer to controlling the morphology of streptomycetes in liquid-grown cultures, which

is highly relevant for tuning the morphology to product formation (Celler *et al.*, 2012; van Dissel *et al.*, 2014) After all, several antibiotics such as erythromycin (produced by *Saccharopolyspora erythraea*) and actinorhodin (by *S. coelicolor*) are solely produced when a minimum pellet size is achieved, while enzyme production is typically favored by fast growing and fragmenting hyphae (Wardell *et al.*, 2002b; van Wezel *et al.*, 2006b). Previously, primarily genetic approaches were followed to tune mycelial morphology. Over-expression of *srgA*, which controls hyphal morphogenesis and activates cell division (Noens *et al.*, 2007; Traag and Wezel, 2008), effects fragmentation of the hyphae by enhancing cell division, resulting in increased growth and enzyme production rates (van Wezel *et al.*, 2006b). However, a drawback to this approach is the major effect of *SrgA* on the cell cycle, with enhanced sensitivity to shear stress as a result. In this respect morphological engineering targeting extracellular glue-like substances such as PNAG- and cellulose-like EPSs, offers an attractive alternative, as the effects on the internal physiology are likely minimal. Thus, besides their high relevance for our ecological understanding of how streptomycetes grow and attach to surfaces in their natural environment, the insights gained by this work may also help to develop novel technologies that improve growth and productivity of streptomycetes.

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# SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

**Table S1: Oligonucleotides**

Name	Sequence
MatB_Rev	ATCGGATCCTCATCCGACCGCCTCCCGTCCATGGC
MatA_Fw	CAGTGAATTCATATGGGGCCGGTTCGGCCGACGAGTGCTC
PgapA_Fw	AGTCGAATTCATCGCGTACGTCACCGACCC
PgapA_Rev	ACTGTCTAGAGGATCCCATATGCCGATCTCCTGTTGGTACGCC

**Table S2: Similarities between matB and characterized glycosyltransferases type2 and carbohydrate esterase type 4 as found on the cazy database by blastp.** Based on the annotation of the GT2 and CE4 domain found in matA its translated protein sequence was compared with similar typed proteins for which there is experimental evidence as tracked by the CAZY database. Two blast databases were made of the 266 GT2 proteins and the 58 CE4 proteins. The top 10 hits and the scores for both databases are given in the table.

**blastP versus characterized glycosyltransferase type 2**

Uniprot	Gene	Organism	Discription	Score	E-value
P75905	<i>pgaC</i>	<i>Escherichia coli (K12)</i>	Poly-beta-1,6-N-acetyl-D-glucosamine synthase	157	3E-43
C8YHH7	<i>pgaC</i>	<i>Acinetobacter baumannii</i>	Poly-beta-1,6-N-acetyl-D-glucosamine synthase	151	2E-41
Q5HKQ0	<i>icaA</i>	<i>Staphylococcus epidermidis</i>	Poly-beta-1,6-N-acetyl-D-glucosamine synthase	150	6E-41
Q5VJB2	<i>aagC</i>	<i>Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans</i>	Poly-beta-1,6-N-acetyl-D-glucosamine synthase	140	2E-37
Q5QFG3	<i>aagC</i>	<i>Actinobacillus pleuropneumoniae</i>	Poly-beta-1,6-N-acetyl-D-glucosamine synthase	137	2E-36
Q84GC8	<i>hasA</i>	<i>Streptococcus equi subsp. zooepidemicus</i>	Hyaluronan synthase	89	2E-20
O50201	<i>hasA</i>	<i>Streptococcus dysgalactiae subsp. equisimilis</i>	Hyaluronan synthase	89	2E-20
Q9LJP4	CLSC4	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	Xyloglucan glycosyltransferase 4	87	1E-19
P74165	<i>sll1377</i>	<i>Synechocystis sp. (PCC 6803)</i>	Beta-monoglucosyldiacylglycerol synthase	86	3E-19
Q8YMK0	<i>all4933</i>	<i>Nostoc sp. (PCC 7120)</i>	Beta-monoglucosyldiacylglycerol synthase	85	4E-19

**blastP versus characterized carbohydrate esterase type4**

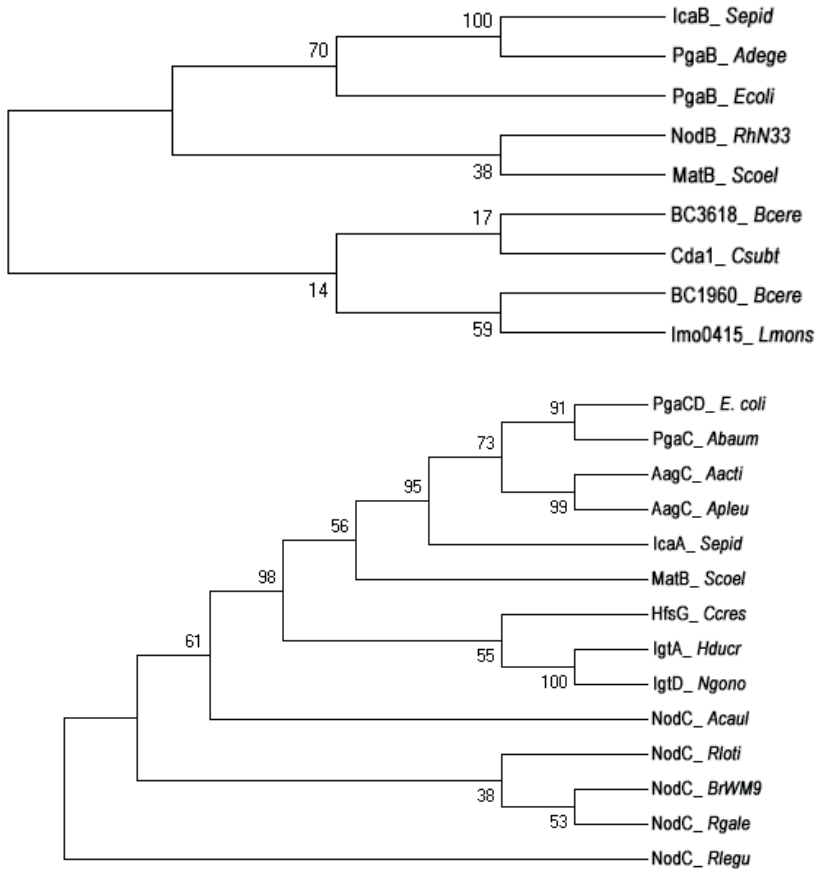
Uniprot	Gene	Organism	Discription	Score	E-value
Q81AF4	BC_3618	<i>Bacillus cereus (ATCC 14579)</i>	Peptidoglycan N-acetylglucosamine deacetylase	140	3E-40
Q8RBF4	<i>cda1</i>	<i>Caldanaerobacter subterraneus</i>	chitin deacetylase	133	2E-36
Q81EK9	BC_1960	<i>Bacillus cereus (ATCC 14579)</i>	Peptidoglycan N-acetylglucosamine deacetylase	123	2E-33
Q8Y9V5	lmo0415	<i>Listeria monocytogenes serovar</i>	Peptidoglycan N-acetylglucosamine deacetylase	125	5E-33
P72333	<i>nodB</i>	<i>Rhizobium sp. (N33)</i>	Chitooligosaccharide deacetylase	120	7E-33
P02963	<i>nodB</i>	<i>Rhizobium meliloti</i>	Chitooligosaccharide deacetylase	119	1E-32
Q1M7W8	<i>nodB</i>	<i>Rhizobium leguminosarum</i>	Chitooligosaccharide deacetylase	118	3E-32
P04339	<i>nodB</i>	<i>Rhizobium leguminosarum bv. viciae</i>	Chitooligosaccharide deacetylase	118	3E-32
P50355	<i>nodB</i>	<i>Rhizobium sp. (NGR234)</i>	Chitooligosaccharide deacetylase	118	3E-32
P50354	<i>nodB</i>	<i>Rhizobium galegae</i>	Chitooligosaccharide deacetylase	118	3E-32

Protein	Organism	
NodB	<i>Rhizobium sp. N33</i>	-----
BC1960	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	-----
LM00415	<i>Listeria monocytogenes serovar</i>	MKIRWIRLSLVAILIIIVAVFIGVIGFQKYQFSKSRNKVIMQMDRLMKDQDGGNFRRLDKK
MatB	<i>Streptomyces coelicolor</i>	-----
BC3618	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	-----
Cda1	<i>Caldanaerobacter subterraneus</i>	-----
NodB	<i>Rhizobium sp. N33</i>	-----
BC1960	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	-----
LM00415	<i>Listeria monocytogenes serovar</i>	ENGVEIISYI PKTTEKKDNEI IQKEIGKATDAEVKLLNRDKETQGIIF YTYQKHRMAEQA
MatB	<i>Streptomyces coelicolor</i>	-----MASST
BC3618	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	-----
Cda1	<i>Caldanaerobacter subterraneus</i>	-----
NodB	<i>Rhizobium sp. N33</i>	-----
BC1960	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	-----
LM00415	<i>Listeria monocytogenes serovar</i>	ISYKAVQSEYVKEGRTEFVLLKDKDKICKNI VTAETGALLTLGEVLIKSNQTKLNLKTAV
MatB	<i>Streptomyces coelicolor</i>	RRHGA--ARSAREGSRRLP-----LRLLLPVLLVVAL--VAM---LM
BC3618	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	-----
Cda1	<i>Caldanaerobacter subterraneus</i>	-----MRFKS-----FAITLLVLSILVGS--VAFAYKYIT
NodB	<i>Rhizobium sp. N33</i>	-----
BC1960	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	-----MYFYSPEMFAPYQW
LM00415	<i>Listeria monocytogenes serovar</i>	EEELIKTGDFSLKDVGN--LGKIKSL-----VKWNQTFEITNSEIILPVKIPGAAPEP-
MatB	<i>Streptomyces coelicolor</i>	L-----RGYVHS-----
BC3618	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	-----
Cda1	<i>Caldanaerobacter subterraneus</i>	EDKYLQTNFYSANQKENVNLNTLSDKSNNSKITISEERPLSETEQNVVSSSTPEPSTPEKV
NodB	<i>Rhizobium sp. N33</i>	-----MKNVDYMCVPE-----SDCA
BC1960	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	GLERDVSAYMPYNSFYGDYINSLPYAYIPQNYEVQMKADDRGWSWTFPSWVEKYAYAFS
LM00415	<i>Listeria monocytogenes serovar</i>	-----KKVKVKLADIASSVKNRYLPSS-----VKVPEVP
MatB	<i>Streptomyces coelicolor</i>	LADHRVQ---PPAA-----TDKVPQKILEGGFVLDV-----RGGRTES
BC3618	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	-----MLLRK-ELEP-----TGVTWE
Cda1	<i>Caldanaerobacter subterraneus</i>	LEKHNKDLNDPNISQFLLNFVNRPERDKLFGS-PVAF-----SKKVLGS
BC1960	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	GPYNKAEVALTFDDGDFLETPKILDKLQHNVKATFFLLGENAEKFFNIVKRIANECHV
LM00415	<i>Listeria monocytogenes serovar</i>	KAKTNKRIALTFDDGSSSVTPGVLDLTKRHNVKATFFVLGSSVIQNPGLVKRELEEGHQ
MatB	<i>Streptomyces coelicolor</i>	LSVPDHRVLVTFDDGDPDPTWTPRVLVDLKKHDAHA FVVTGTMASRYPDVLRMVDGEGE
BC3618	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	VPNNEKI IAITFDDGDPDPTYTQVLDLRLQYKAEATFFMIGFRVQRNPNVVKVQLKEGHE
Cda1	<i>Caldanaerobacter subterraneus</i>	NPSSGKEVALTFDDGDFPIYTEKIVDILKSMVDKATFFVIGRHAEKHPELILKYIVENGENE : :***** * : * * . * * : * . * : . : *
NodB	<i>Rhizobium sp. N33</i>	VANHTMTHPDLSRCEPGEVEIREIVEASNAIRMACPQATVRRMRAPYGVWTVEDVLT---
BC1960	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	IGNHTYSHPNLAKVNEDEYRNQI IKTEELNRLA-GYAPKFI RPPYGEILENQLKW---
LM00415	<i>Listeria monocytogenes serovar</i>	VGSHSWDHPQLTKQSTQEVYNYLTKTQKAVFDQT-GYFPTTMRPPYGA VNKQVAEE---
MatB	<i>Streptomyces coelicolor</i>	VGLHTFNHPDLSFQSEKRI DWELSQNLAI FGAA-GVPTSLFRPPYSFADAMDNKSWPV
BC3618	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	IGNHTMNHLYASNSDEKLENDLIDGKK-FFEKW-VKEPLFRPPGGYINDAVFKT---
Cda1	<i>Caldanaerobacter subterraneus</i>	IGLHSYSHFNMKCLKPEKMVEELYKTQIIVEAT-GIKPTLFRPPFGAYNSTLIEI--- : . * : * . . . . . : * * .
NodB	<i>Rhizobium sp. N33</i>	---SARAGLACVH--WSVDPDRWARPGVDAIVDELVTGVEPGAIVLLHDGWPEELKSATY
BC1960	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	---ATEQNFMIVQ--WSVDVVDWKGVSADTITNNVLGNSFPGSVILQHS TPGGH---
LM00415	<i>Listeria monocytogenes serovar</i>	-----IGLPIIQ--WSVDTEWKYRNAGIVTKKVLGATDGAIVLMDIHK-----
MatB	<i>Streptomyces coelicolor</i>	TEYIGGRGYLVVW--NNTDSEDWKKPGVDEIIRRA TPKGKGAIVLMDHSGG-D---
BC3618	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	---AKEAGYQTVLMSWHODPRDMPGVESIVNVVVKNAKSGDVI LLDHGGN-D---
Cda1	<i>Caldanaerobacter subterraneus</i>	---SNAIGLKVVL--NNDVDPDRNPNPVSVEVNRVLSHTRDGSIIIMHEGKP----- : : * * : * * : * * : * * *
NodB	<i>Rhizobium sp. N33</i>	ASLRDQVTVTALSRLIPALHHRGCFVIRPLPQH--
BC1960	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	---LQGSVDALDKIIPQLKTKGAREVTLPSMFTQSKERK
LM00415	<i>Listeria monocytogenes serovar</i>	---TAAASLDTTLTKLKSQGYEFVITIDELYGEKLQIGKQ----YFDKTD-----S
MatB	<i>Streptomyces coelicolor</i>	---RHQTVQALDRFLPDLKKKGYEFDNLTEALDAPGAMS PVTGAELWKGRAWVFLVQASE
BC3618	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	---RSQTVAAALAKILPELKKQGYRFTVTSSELLRYKH
Cda1	<i>Caldanaerobacter subterraneus</i>	---SLLAALPQIKLKEEGYKFTVTSLELLEKRD----- : : * : * : * : * : *
NodB	<i>Rhizobium sp. N33</i>	-----
BC1960	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	-----
LM00415	<i>Listeria monocytogenes serovar</i>	RMVK
MatB	<i>Streptomyces coelicolor</i>	KLTDGLVVGLAVIGTLVIGRFVMLLLLSGVHARRVRRRRFRWGPVAVTEPVT
BC3618	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	-----
Cda1	<i>Caldanaerobacter subterraneus</i>	-----

Figure S1: Alignment of translated amino acid sequences of selected CE4 genes with the CE4 domain of MatB (aa1-aa363) using ClustalQ. CE4 homologs represent the top blastp results of MatB versus characterized carbohydrate esterase type4 genes in the CAZY database. Marked in gray are the conserved amino acids. Marked in red are the conserved amino acids not conserved in MatB.







**Figure S3:** Probably evolutionary origin of the *matB* domains. Bootstrapped consensus tree calculated from the maximum likelihood JTT matrix based model to indicated the evolutionary history of the deacetylase domain of *matB* with selected PNAG deacetylases and the top 5 blast hits (A) and the glycosyl transferase domain was compared to the top 5 blast hits, consisting of PNAG glycosyltransferases and selection of 1,4-GlcNAc containing synthases (B). The consensus tree was calculated with the translated amino acid sequences using MEGA 7. The sequences were aligned using the clustalW algorithm using default settings and the maximum likelihood tree was calculated with a bootstrap of 500 replicates and default settings. Strains and their shortened names used for this comparison are: *Staphylococcus epidemidis*; *Sepid*, *Rhizobium sp. N33*; *RhN33*, *Ammoniflex degensii*; *Adege*, *Escherichia coli*; *Ecoli*, *Streptomyces coelicolor*; *Scoel*, *Bacillus cereus*; *Bcere*, *Caldanaerobacter subterraneus*; *Csubt*, *Listeria monocytogenes serovar*; *Lmons*, *Acinetobacter baumannii*; *Abaum*, *Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans*; *Acti*, *Actinobacillus pleuropneumoniae*; *Apleu*, *Caulobacter crescentus*; *Ccres*, *Haemophilus ducreyi*; *Hducr*, *Neisseria gonorrhoeae*; *Ngono*, *Azorhizobium caulinodans*; *Acaul*, *Rhizobium loti*; *Rloti*, *Bradyrhizobium WM9*; *BrWM9*, *Rhizobium galegae*; *Rgale*, *Rhizobium leguminosarum*; *Rlegu*.

