

# **The Ser/Thr kinase PrkC participates in cell wall homeostasis and antimicrobial resistance in Clostridium difficile**

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- 1 The Ser/Thr kinase PrkC participates in cell wall homeostasis and antimicrobial resistance in
- 2 *Clostridium difficile*
- 3



30 CAMPs, biofilms, peptidoglycan

#### Abstract:

 *Clostridium difficile* is the leading cause of antibiotic-associated diarrhea in adults. During infection, *C. difficile* must detect the host environment and induce an appropriate survival strategy. Signal transduction networks involving serine/threonine kinases (STKs) play key roles in adaptation, as they regulate numerous physiological processes. PrkC of *C. difficile* is a STK with two PASTA domains. We showed that PrkC is membrane associated and is found at the septum. We observed that deletion of *prkC* affects cell morphology with an in- crease in mean size, cell length heterogeneity, and presence of abnormal septa. When com- pared with the wild-type strain, a ∆*prkC* mutant was able to sporulate and germinate but was less motile and formed more biofilm. Moreover, a ∆*prkC* mutant was more sensitive to an- timicrobial compounds that target the cell envelope such as the secondary bile salt deoxy- cholate, cephalosporins, cationic antimicrobial peptides, and lysozyme. This increased sus- ceptibility was not associated with differences in peptidoglycan or polysaccharide II compo- sition. However, the ∆*prkC* mutant had less peptidoglycan and released more polysaccharide II into the supernatant. A proteomic analysis showed that the majority of *C. difficile* proteins associated with the cell wall were less abundant in the ∆*prkC* mutant compared to the wild- type strain. Finally, in a hamster model of infection the ∆*prkC* mutant had a colonization delay that did not significantly affect overall virulence.

#### **Introduction**

 *Clostridium difficile* is the leading cause of antibiotic-associated infections in adults. Severity of *C. difficile* infection (CDI) symptoms range from diarrhea to life-threatening pseudo-membranous colitis. Major risks associated with CDI include antibiotic exposure leading to dysbiosis of gut microbiota, as well as, advanced aged and hospitalization (1). The impact of CDI is significant in terms of mortality, morbidity, disease management and financial burden. With the emergence of new isolates, the incidence and severity of CDI have increased both in North America and Europe (2). *C. difficile* is acquired from the envi- ronment through the ingestion of spores. This resistant form of the bacterium is thought to be responsible for transmission, environmental persistence and dissemination. When the normal intestinal microbiota is disrupted, the pools of metabolites present in the gut change leading to an increased concentration of cholate conjugates, which in turn triggers spore germination (3, 4). The vegetative cells can then multiply and colonize the dysbiotic gastrointestinal tract*.* Toxigenic strains of *C. difficile* produce two toxins, TcdA and TcdB, which are its main vir- ulence factors. These toxins cause alteration of the actin cytoskeleton of epithelial cells and neutrophil recruitment causing local inflammation (3). Following the administration of a targeted antibiotic therapy such as metronidazole or vancomycin, CDI relapse can occur, involving spore and possibly biofilm formation (5, 6). Additional factors including those involved in stress adaptation and surface associated proteins, such as adhesins, the fibron- ectin-binding protein (FbpA), the surface layer protein (SlpA) and the flagellum also partici-pate in the colonization process, allowing *C. difficile* to establish its intestinal niche (7).

 Gut dysbiosis is an essential step that allows *C. difficile* to colonize the colon and cause an infection. Certain antibiotics such as cephalosporins, clindamycin and fluoroquinolones are known to increase the risk of developing a CDI. Most of *C. difficile* strains are resistant to these antibiotics, which is of major concern (1). Fluoroquinolone resistance in *C. difficile* strains is associated with amino acid substitution in the gyrases GyrA or GyrB (1). The mechanisms responsible for cephalosporin resistance by *C. difficile* remain poorly character- ized (1). However, some progress has been made, as a class D ß-lactamase was identified in the genomes of most *C. difficile* strains (8). In addition to antibiotics, vegetative cells also encounter secondary bile salts (4), host secreted antimicrobial peptides and also reactive ox- ygen and nitrogen species produced during inflammation (3, 9)*.* To survive in the host, *C. difficile* must detect the host environment and induce an appropriate survival strategy, which may include activating the general stress response, sporulation, biofilm formation, and producing virulence factors (5, 6, 9).

 Protein phosphorylation is a reversible post-translational modification used to transduce signal and regulate cellular processes. Bacterial serine/threonine kinases of the Hanks family (STKs) share structural similarities with eukaryotic serine/threonine kinases and undergo substrate phosphorylation on serine or threonine residues (10). STKs and their associated phosphatases (STP) regulate numerous physiological processes including translation, carbon and cell-wall metabolism, antibiotic tolerance, cell division, developmental processes, and virulence (10, 11). Phosphoproteomic studies revealed that STKs might phosphorylate a broad spectrum of substrates (12) including enzymes, components of the cellular machinery involved in translation, division or repair and also several transcriptional regulators that mainly form part of two-component systems (10, 13). Therefore, STKs are key integration nodes in signaling networks that control bacterial physiology, growth and stationary phase. In *B. subtilis*, PrkC is a trans-membrane kinase with an extracellular signal receptor domain containing penicillin-binding and STK associated (PASTA) repeats. PrkC interacts with pep- tidoglycan fragments and ß-lactam *in vitro* (14, 15), while a PASTA-STK (Stk1) homologue in *Staphylococcus aureus* interacts with lipid II (16). In *B. subtilis*, PrkC is a key-signaling enzyme that controls stationary phase survival, biofilm formation, sporulation, germination (13) and peptidoglycan (PG) metabolism (17). Inactivation of genes encoding PASTA do- main-containing STKs are associated with a range of phenotypes among Gram-positive bac- teria, with defects in cell division and changes in cell-wall metabolism commonly observed (10, 17, 18). In *S. aureus*, Stk1 plays a role in virulence, antibiotic resistance and cell-wall remodeling (17) whereas in *Streptococcus pneumonia*, StkP controls cell division, compe- tence, virulence, adherence to eukaryotic cells, stress response and cell wall metabolism (17, 19).

 The role of STKs has not been studied in anaerobic firmicutes. *C. difficile* has two genes encoding STKs, *CD2148* and *prkC* (*CD2578*) and one gene encoding a STP (*CD2579*). In this study, we characterized the role of the *C. difficile* PASTA-STK, PrkC, in the regulation of the physiological processes important in CDI. Inactivation of the *prkC* gene resulted in changes in the morphology and the properties of the cell envelope as well as increased sensi-tivity to antimicrobial compounds targeting the cell wall.

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- **Materials and methods**
- **Bacterial strains and growth conditions**
- *C. difficile* strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in Table S1. *C. difficile* strains
- 118 were grown anaerobically  $(5\% H_2, 5\% CO_2, 90\% N_2)$  in TY broth (Bacto tryptone 30 g.l<sup>-1</sup>,
- 119 yeast extract 20 g.l<sup>-1</sup>, pH 7.4), in Brain Heart Infusion broth (BHI) or in a peptone-containing
- medium (Pep-M) (20). Sporulation medium (SM) (21) was used for sporulation assays and
- spores were produced in SMC medium (22). Solid media were obtained by adding agar to a
- 122 final concentration of 17 g.l<sup>-1</sup>. When necessary, cefoxitin (Cfx, 25  $\mu$ g.ml<sup>-1</sup>) or thiamphenicol
- 123 (Tm, 15 μg.ml<sup>-1</sup>) was added. *E. coli* strains were grown in LB broth. When indicated, ampi-
- 124 cillin (100 μg.ml<sup>-1</sup>) or chloramphenicol (15 μg.ml<sup>-1</sup>) was added. Anhydrotetracycline (ATc)
- 125 was used to induce expression of the *prkC* gene from the P<sub>tet</sub> promoter of pDIA6103 (23).

# **Construction of plasmids and strains**

- The allelic exchange cassette used to delete of the *CD2578* gene *(prkC)* was constructed in a derivative of pMTLSC7315 (24) lacking the multi-cloning site. DNA sequences flanking the *prkC* gene (1038 and 1117-bp) were amplified by PCR using primers IMV854 and IMV855 or IMV856 and IMV857 (Table S2 and Fig S1). A DNA fragment obtained by overlapping PCR was digested by XhoI and BamHI and then ligated into pMTLSC7315∆MCS, giving pDIA6401. *E. coli* HB101 (RP4) containing pDIA6401 was mated with *C. difficile*  630∆*erm*. Transconjugants were selected on BHI-Cfx-Tm plates. Colonies were restreaked onto the same medium to identify faster growing single-crossover integrants that were then streaked onto CDMM supplemented with 50 μg/ml fluorocytosine (FC) to select for second 136 cross-over events.  $FC^R$  Tm<sup>S</sup> clones that have lost pDIA6401 were analyzed by PCR using IMV867 and IMV868 to distinguish between wild-type and ∆*prkC* clones (Fig S1). For complementation, the *prkC* gene (positions -22 to +2205 from the translational start site) was amplified using primers IMV879 and IMV880. The PCR fragment was cloned between the StuI and BamHI sites of pDIA6103 (25) to produce pDIA6413. To construct a plasmid ex- pressing PrkC-HA (pDIA6713), an reverse PCR was performed using pDIA6413 as template 142 and primers EC01 and EC02. The same strategy was used to introduce a point mutation into the *prkC* gene [lysine at position 39 replaced by an alanine (K39→A)]. The resulting plas- mid, pDIA6714, was then used to construct pDIA6716 expressing HA-tagged *prkC*(K39→A). These plasmids were transferred into *C. difficile* strains by conjugation (Ta-ble S1).
- To construct a translational SNAP-PrkC fusion, we amplified the SNAP coding sequence fused to a linker in 3' (GGATCCGCAGCTGCT) using pFT58 as a template and primers EC238 and EC239. pDIA6413 (pDIA6103-*prkC*) was amplified by inverse PCR using the
- primers EC236 and EC237. Using these two fragments, pDIA6855 was obtained by Gibson
- Assembly. pDIA6855 was conjugated in the 630∆*erm* strain to obtain CDIP1357 (Table S1).
- To determine if *prkC* is co-transcribed with upstream genes (*CD2579* and *rlmN*), we carried
- out an RT-PCR experiment using RNA extracted from exponentially growing cells. After
- cDNA synthesis using IMV843, a primer targeting the *prkC* gene, PCR amplification was
- tested with pairs of primers located in adjacent genes (*prkC*/*CD2579* or *CD2579/rlmN*).
- Non-treated RNAs were used as a negative control.

#### **Antimicrobial sensitivity tests**

- Cultures of *C. difficile* strains (OD600nm of 0.3) were plated on BHI agar plates. 6-mm paper disks containing antibiotics were placed onto the agar surface. Lysozyme (800 μg) was also
- placed on a 6-mm paper disk using Pep-M agar plates. The growth inhibition diameter was
- measured after 24 h of incubation at 37°C. Minimal Inhibitory Concentrations (MICs) were determined on BHI plates by E-test (bioMérieux) after 24 h incubation at 37°C. To test sus-
- 
- ceptibility for antimicrobial peptides, protocols were modified from previous published work (26, 27). Each well of a 24-well microplate was inoculated with 1 ml of a BHI bacterial in-
- oculum (OD600nm of 0.01). After addition of bacitracin (Sigma Aldrich), polymixin B (Sigma
- Aldrich) or nisin (Sigma Aldrich), microplates were incubated at 37°C for 20 h. The MIC was defined as the lowest concentration of antimicrobial peptide preventing growth.
- 5 μl of an overnight culture of *C. difficile* strains was streaked on BHI plates without or with
- SDS (0.005% to 0.009%). The plates were incubated at 37°C for 48 h. Deoxycholate (DOC)
- resistance tests were performed in 24-well microplates. Each well was inoculated with 1 ml
- 171 of TY with or without DOC (0.03%). The OD<sub>600nm</sub> of each culture was monitored. For autol-
- ysis, cells (OD600nm of 1) were resuspended in 50 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0)
- 173 containing 0.01 % of Triton X-100 and incubated at 37°C. The OD<sub>600nm</sub> was determined eve-
- ry 5 min.

#### **Sporulation, germination, motility and biofilm formation assays**

 Sporulation assays were performed as described previously (28). To purify spores, 100 μl of culture plated on solid SMC were grown at 37°C for 7 days. Spores were scraped off with water and then incubated 7 days at 4°C to allow the release of spores from the cells. Spores were purified by centrifugation using a HistoDenz (Sigma-Aldrich) gradient as described previously (22). For the germination efficiency tests, we monitored OD600nm of purified spores incubated under anaerobiosis in BHIS supplemented with 0.5 % taurocholate, with bryostatin or muropeptides.

 To measure motility, plates containing 25 ml of BHI agar (0.3% w/v), Tm and ATc were inoculated with 5 μl of an exponential-phase culture. Plates were incubated for 48h at room temperature and the zone of motility was then measured. For the biofilm assay, 1 ml of BHI-186 S medium containing 0.1 M glucose,  $0.1\%$  cysteine and polymixin B (20  $\mu$ g.ml<sup>-1</sup>) or DOC (0.01%) was inoculated and deposited in a well of a 24-well microplate. Microplates were incubated at 37°C. The biofilm was washed with PBS (Phosphate buffered saline), stained 189 with 1 ml of crystal violet  $(0.2\%)$  followed by two washes with PBS. The OD $_{570nm}$  was measured after resuspension of the cells in methanol/acetone (80%/20%) using non- inoculated medium as a negative control. For dispersion of preformed biofilms, 24 h and 48 h biofilms were treated with DNase I (100 μg/ml in 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM CaCl2) under an- aerobic conditions at 37°C for 1 h (29). Control wells were treated with buffer without DNase. Biofilms were then washed, stained, and quantified as described above.

#### **Phase contrast and transmission electron microscopy**

 *C. difficile* strains were grown 5 h in TY medium. For phase contrast microscopy, cells were analyzed using an axioskop microscope (Zeiss). For transmission electron microscopy (TEM), cultures were mixed with 1 volume of a fixative solution containing 4% paraformal- dehyde (PFA) and 4% glutaraldehyde (GA) in PHEM buffer 1x pH 7.3 (60 mM Pipes, 25mM Hepes, 10 mM EGTA, 2mM MgCl2) and then incubated for 30 min at room tempera- ture. After centrifugation, pellets were resuspended in a second fixative solution (2% PFA and 2% GA in PHEM buffer pH= 7.3) and incubated for 1 h. Samples were then washed twice in PBS prior to being subjected to a high pressure (>2000 bar) freezing in 1- hexadecane using a BAL-TEC HPM 010 (LEICA). Freeze substitution was done with 2% OsO<sup>4</sup> in acetone followed by several steps: -90°C for 42 h, warmed up to −30°C (5°C/h), 206 incubated for 12 h, warmed up to  $0^{\circ}C$  (10 $^{\circ}C/h$ ) and incubated for 1h. Samples were then washed with acetone on ice and incubated in EPON/acetone at different volume ratio (1/3 for 3 h, 1/1 for 3 h; 2/1 ON; 3/1 for 4 h), followed by an incubation in pure EPON (2 h, overnight; 6 h). Samples were then incubated overnight in EPON and the hardener BDMI 210 prior to polymerization at  $60^{\circ}$ C for 48 h. Sections (60-70 nM) were obtained on a FC6/UC6 ultramicrotome (Leica), transferred on 200 Mesh Square Copper grids coated with formvar and carbon (CF-200-Cu50, Delta Microscopy). Samples were stained with 4% uranyl acetate and counterstained with lead citrate. Images were recorded with TECNAI SPIRIT 120 kv (with a bottom-mounted EAGLE 4Kx4K Camera).

**SNAP labelling, fluorescence microscopy and image analysis**

 For membrane and chromosome staining, 500 μl of exponential-phase cells were centrifuged and resuspended in 100 μl of PBS containing the fluorescent membrane dye FM 4-64 (1 μg/ml, Molecular Probes, Invitrogen) and the DNA stain 4,6-Diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) (2 μg/ml, Sigma). Samples were incubated for 2 min in the dark and mounted on 220 1.2% agarose pad. Strain CDIP1357 was grown 2 h in TY and expression of the SNAP<sup>Cd</sup>-*prkC* fusion was induced with 50 ng/ml of ATc for 2 h. For SNAP labelling, the TMR-Star substrate (New England Biolabs) was added at 250 nM, and the mixture was incubated for 30 min in the dark under anaerobiosis. Cells were then collected by centrifugation, washed and resuspended in PBS. Cell suspension (3 μl) was mounted on 1.7% agarose-coated glass slides. The images were taken with 300 ms exposure times for the autofluorescence and 900 ms exposure times for the SNAP using a Nikon Eclipse TI-E microscope 100x Objective and captured with a CoolSNAP HQ2 Camera. The images were analysed using ImageJ (30).

#### **Detection of phospho-threonine by western blot on soluble and insoluble fractions.**

 Cells were grown for 6 h in TY and then harvested by centrifugation. The pellets were re- suspended in PBS containing protease and phosphatase inhibitor cocktails (Sigma-Aldrich) and 0.12 μg/ml of DNase. Cells were lysed for 45 min at 37°C and then centrifuged. The soluble fraction was diluted twice with 2X Sample buffer (150 mM Tris-HCl pH6.8, 30% glycerol, 1.5 % SDS, 15% β-mercaptoethanol, 2 μg/ml of bromophenol blue). After 2 wash- es with PBS, the insoluble fraction was resuspended in 2X PBS containing 1% SDS, and mixed with 2X Sample buffer. Western blots were performed using an anti-P-Thr primary antibody (Cell signaling) followed by a goat anti-rabbit horseradish-peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibody (Sigma-Aldrich) and developed using the SuperSignalWest Femto chemiluminescent Kit (Thermo scientific).

## **Peptidoglycan and polysaccharide II analysis**

 Peptidoglycan (PG) samples were prepared from 1.5 l of *C. difficile* grown in BHI (OD600nm of 1) as previously described (31). Purified PG was then digested with mutanolysin (Sigma Aldrich) and the soluble muropeptides were separated by reverse phase high-performance liquid chromatography (RP-HPLC) (31). Polysaccharides II (PSII) were extracted from *C. difficile* grown in BHI (OD600nm of 1) as previously described (32). PSII was lyophilized and 245 its structure was checked by  $[$ <sup>1</sup>H] and  $[$ <sup>13</sup>C] NMR. Spectra were acquired on a 400 MHz Bruker spectrometer equipped with a Prodigy probe. PSII was lyophilized and its structure 247 was determined by  $[$ <sup>1</sup>H] NMR. For the quantification of PG and PSII, 500 ml of culture (OD600nm of 1) was used to purify PSII covalently linked to PG (PG-PSII). PG-PSII was pu-rified as previously described (33) without the acetone treatment. Linkage between PG and 250 PSII was disrupted after an incubation for 48 h at  $4^{\circ}$ C in hydrofluoric acid (48%). The pellet containing PG was washed three times in H2O and the hydrofluoric acid supernatant that contains PSII subunits was evaporated and resuspended in H2O. Both, PG and PSII were lyophilized and then weighted.

 For the PSII dot blot, exponential phase cultures were harvested by centrifugation. Superna- tant and total crude cell extracts were kept as separate fractions. The supernatant fraction was recovered and precipitated with 10% TCA for 30 min. The supernatant and the total 257 crude cell fractions were treated with 100  $\mu$ g/ml of proteinase K (Sigma) for 1 h at 37°C. Samples were then serially diluted and 5 μl of each dilution were spotted onto an activated polyvinylidene difluoride membrane. The membrane was washed in H2O, blocked for 15 min in TBST (20 mM Tris-HCl, 150 mM NaCl, 0.05% Tween20, pH7.5) containing 10% milk, and then washed in 5% milk in TBST for 2 min. After overnight incubation in PSII- LTB rabbit antiserum (1:8,000) (34), the membrane was washed once in TBST with 5% milk, twice in TBST for 5 min, and once in TBST with 5% milk for 10 min. Following incu- bation with goat anti-rabbit horseradish-peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibody at 1:10,000 dilution for 1 h, the membrane was washed 5 times in TBST for 5 min, and re-vealed using the SuperSignalWest Femto chemiluminescent substrate.

## **Isolation of cell-wall proteins and proteomic analysis**

 *C. difficile* strains were grown for 6 h in TY at 37°C and 20 mL of each culture was then 269 centrifuged. The cell pellets were washed with PBS, resuspended (OD<sub>600nm</sub> of 100) in 75 mM Tris-HCl pH6.8, 15% glycerol, 7.5% β-mercaptoethanol, 0.75% SDS and boiled for 10 min at 100°C. Proteins were precipitated with 10% TCA, washed with 90% cold acetone, 272 dried, resuspended in urea 8 M/NH<sub>4</sub>HCO<sub>3</sub> 100 mM and sonicated. Total protein extracts (50 µg) were reduced with TCEP (10 mM) (Sigma) for 30 min and alkylated with iodoacetamide 274 20 mM (Sigma) for 1 h. Proteins were digested with rLys-C 1 µg (Promega) for 4 h at 37°C and with Trypsin 1µg (Promega) overnight at 37°C. The digestion was stopped with Formic acid (FA) 4%. Peptides were desalted on C18 Sep-Pak Cartridge (WAT054955, Waters) and eluted with Acetonitrile (ACN) 50%/FA 0.1% and then ACN 80%/FA 0.1% before being dried in vacuum centrifuge. Peptides were resuspended with ACN 2%/FA 0.1%. A na- nochromatographic system (Proxeon EASY-nLC 1000, Thermo Fisher Scientific) was cou-280 pled on-line to a Q Exactive<sup>TM</sup> HF Mass Spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Peptides (1 μg) were injected onto a 47 cm C18 column (1.9 μm particles, 100 Å pore size, ReproSil- Pur Basic C18, Dr. Maisch GmbH) and separated with a gradient from 2 to 45 % ACN at a flow rate of 250 nl/min over 132 min. Column temperature was set to 60°C. Data were ac quired as previously described (35). Raw data were analyzed using MaxQuant software ver- sion 1.5.1.2 (36) using the Andromeda search engine (37). The MS/MS spectra were searched as previously described (35) against an internal *C. difficile* database containing 3,957 proteins and the contaminant file included in MaxQuant. The statistical analysis was performed with Perseus 1.5.2.6 (38) as previously described (35). Missing values for LFQ intensities were imputed and replaced by random LFQ intensities that are drawn from a normal distribution at the low detection level. Statistical significance was assessed with a two-sided *t*-test of the Log2 transformed LFQ intensities with a permutation-based FDR cal- culation at 5% and S0=2 (39). Differentially regulated proteins are visualized on a Volcano- Plot. The mass spectrometry proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE (40) partner repository with the dataset identifier PXDX012241.

# **Golden Syrian hamster infections**

 Golden Syrian hamsters were first treated with a single oral dose of 50 mg/kg of clindamycin. Five days after the antibiotics treatment, the hamsters were infected by gavage with 5000 spores of either the 630∆erm strain or the ∆*prkC* mutant. Spore inocula were standardized before challenge. Eight animals per strain per experiment were used for the infection and we performed two independent experiments. Colonization was followed by enumeration of *C. difficile* cells in feces samples and was started 2-day post infection and 302 each day until the death of the animal. Briefly, feces were resuspended in PBS at  $10 \text{ mg.m}$ <sup>1</sup> and serially diluted with PBS before plating on BHI supplemented with 3% of defibrinated horse blood and the *C. difficile* selective supplement containing cycloserine (25 µg/ml) plus cefoxitine (8 µg/ml). All animal experiments were conducted according to the European Union guidelines for the handling of laboratory animals and Procedures for infection, eutha- nasia, and specimen collection were approved by the Central Animal Care Facilities and Use committee of University Paris-Sud (agreement 92-019-01; protocol number 2012-107).

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#### **Results**

#### **CD2578 is the PASTA-STK of** *C. difficile*

 CD2578 (PrkC) from *C. difficile* contains a cytosolic N-terminal kinase domain and an extracellular motif containing repeats of a PASTA that are separated by a trans-membrane segment (Fig 1A). Based on its predicted amino acid sequence, the kinase domain of PrkC has a high level of sequence identity with that of *B. subtilis* (PrkC), *S. aureus* (Stk1), *S. pneumoniae* (StkP), *Enteroccoccus faecalis* (IreK) and *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (PknB) (43 to 50%). The conserved lysine within the ATP-binding P loop of the kinase domain is

 present and corresponds to position 39 in PrkC (Fig 1A). This residue is essential for the phosphotransfer in other STKs (41). As observed for the PASTA-STKs in other firmicutes, a trans-membrane segment is predicted from amino acid 375 to 397 (42, 43). The extracellular sequence of PrkC contains 2 PASTA motifs (Fig 1A) while up to 7 PASTA motifs are typi- cally present in STKs of other firmicutes (17). Interestingly, *C. difficile* contains a very atyp- ical Ser-Gly-Asn (SGN) rich region of 100 amino acids at the C-terminal part of the protein (Fig 1A). This SGN-rich region is absent from PASTA-STKs of other firmicutes. Interest- ingly, SGN-rich regions are found in some cell wall anchored proteins of bacilli and in CwpV, a surface associated protein in *C. difficile* but their function have yet to be character-ized*.* 

 

#### **The** *prkC* **locus of** *C. difficile*

 The *prkC* gene likely belongs to a large cluster of genes, which ranges from *dapF* (*CD2590)* to *CD2578-prkC* (Fig 2A). As usually observed in other firmicutes (44, 45), a gene (*CD2579-stp*) encoding a PP2C-type phosphatase (STP), which is probably involved in the dephosphorylation of the PrkC substrates, is adjacent to *prkC*. Upstream of *stp*, we found genes encoding proteins involved in translation (*rlmN*, *rsmB*, *def* and *fmt*), transcription (*rpoZ*), DNA replication (*priA*) and metabolism (*gmk* and *coaBC*)*.* This cluster is conserved in *B. subtilis* and *B. cereus* with the exception of 3 genes that are only present in *C. difficile*; *CD2582* and *CD2583* encoding membrane proteins and *dapF* encoding a diaminopimalate epimerase (Fig 2A). To determine if *prkC* is co-transcribed with *stp* as observed in other firmicutes, and the other genes located upstream of *stp* such as the *rlmN* gene, RT-PCR ex- periments were performed. PCR products were detected using primer pairs located in adja- cent genes (*prkC*/*stp* or *stp/rlmN*) with RNAs processed by a reverse transcriptase but not with untreated RNA used as negative control (Fig 2B). This result indicated that the *prkC*  gene is in operon with *stp* but also *rlmN*. Using a genome-wide transcriptional start site (TSS) mapping (25), we identified a unique TSS in the *prkC* locus located 23 bp upstream of *dapF* suggesting that this gene might be the first gene of a large operon. We found a TG-N-TATAAT extended -10 box specific for the consensus of  $σ<sup>A</sup>$ -dependent promoters upstream of the TSS (Fig 2A). However, we cannot exclude the existence of additional promoters be- tween *dapF* and *prkC* that were not identified in the genome-wide TSS mapping (25). 

**Localization of the PrkC protein**

 To determine the cellular location of PrkC, we expressed the *prkC* gene fused to a HA tag 353 under the control of the inducible promoter P<sub>tet</sub> (pDIA6103-P<sub>tet</sub>-*prkC*-HA). A western blot analysis of the membrane or cytoplasmic fraction with an anti-HA antibody revealed two bands corresponding to proteins of about 100 kDa and 50 kDa (Fig S2A). These two proteins were only detected in the membrane fraction (Fig 1B). The expected molecular weight of the PrkC-HA tagged protein is around 75 kDa and the band detected around 100 kDa likely cor- responds to PrkC-HA. Indeed, the PrkC and StkP proteins of *B. subtilis* and *S. pneumoniae* are detected with an apparent molecular weight higher than their expected size (42, 43) and the phosphorylation of the kinase results in a reduced electrophoretic mobility (46). The lower band at 50 kDa could be a form of degradation product that might correspond to the extracellular domain fused to HA. It is worth noting that PrkC of *B. subtilis* is sensitive to protease cleavage (42).

 To determine the localization of PrkC, we used a 630∆*erm* strain containing a plasmid en-365 coding a SNAP<sup>Cd</sup>-PrkC protein fusion produced under the control of the P<sub>tet</sub> promoter. The 366 - production of the SNAP<sup>Cd</sup>-PrkC protein is stable as shown by western blot using an anti-SNAP antibody (Fig S2B). After 2 h of induction, we detected the SNAP<sup>Cd</sup>-PrkC fusion pro- tein fusion at the septum of dividing cells (Fig 1C). Thus, the PrkC protein is membrane as-sociated and localizes at the septum during cell growth.

# **Deletion of the** *prkC* **gene in** *C. difficile* **and detection of PrkC activity**

 To study the role of PrkC in the physiology of *C. difficile*, we inactivated the *prkC* gene by allelic exchange in the strain 630∆*erm* (24). Deletion of the *prkC* gene from codon two to the stop codon was confirmed by PCR (Fig S1). The *prkC* mutant was complemented with the wild-type *prkC* gene (pDIA6103-Ptet-*prkC*) or a modified copy of *prkC* (pDIA6103-Ptet-*prkC-*K39→A) with the lysine residue required for phosphotransfer replaced by an alanine.

- The kinase activity of PrkC was demonstrated by comparing the profiles of phosphorylation
- of the wild-type (WT) strain or the ∆*prkC* mutant carrying either pDIA6103, pDIA6103-Ptet-

 *prkC* or pDIA6103-Ptet-*prkC-*K39→A. We assumed that PrkC and PrkC-K39→A were pro-duced to the same level and were located in membrane because we detected similar levels in

- 
- 381 the membrane fraction of these proteins with an HA tag fusion (PrkC-HA or PrkC-K39 $\rightarrow$ A-
- HA) (Fig S2A). We detected proteins phosphorylated on threonine in the WT strain both in
- soluble and insoluble fractions by western blot analysis with an antibody against phosphory-
- 384 lated threonine residues ( $\alpha$ -PThr (Fig 1D). Some bands that were detected in the WT strain and with a lower intensity in the complemented strain disappeared in the ∆*prkC* mutant and

 in the strain producing a modified PrkC-K39→A protein. This result strongly suggested that PrkC has a kinase activity *in vivo* and that the lysine at position 39 (Fig 1A) is essential for the phosphorylation of PrkC targets as observed in the PASTA-STKs of other firmicutes (17, 41).

# **Impact of** *prkC* **deletion on growth, sporulation and germination**

 The 630∆*erm* strain and the ∆*prkC* mutant exhibited nearly identical doubling time and growth yield in TY (Fig S3A). No difference in CFU was also observed between the two strains (Fig S4A and data not shown). We also performed co-culture of the WT and ∆*prkC* mutant strains in TY (Fig S3C). We observed that the ∆*prkC* mutant was less abundant than the wild-type strain by two-fold after 8 h or 24 h of growth. This suggests that there is no drastic difference in fitness associated with the inactivation of *prkC*. The growth of the 398 ∆*prkC* containing pDIA6103-Ptet-*prkC* was similar to that of the WT strain in the presence of 15 ng/ml of ATc but was affected when we added 50 ng/ml of ATc (Fig S3B). This growth defect was also observed in the ∆*prkC* mutant expressing *prkC-*K39→A (Fig S3B). In con- trast, the addition of increasing concentrations of ATc had no effect on the growth of the WT strain harboring an empty plasmid (Fig S3B). A qRT-PCR analysis also showed that expres- sion of *prkC* was similar in the WT and complemented strains in the presence of 15 ng/ml of ATc (Fig S3D). In the presence of 50 ng/ml of ATc, the expression of *prkC* probably in- creased in the ∆*prkC* strain containing pDIA6103-Ptet-*prkC* because we detected a drastic overproduction of the SNAP-PrkC fusion in the presence of 50 ng/ml when compared to 20 ng/ml (Fig S2). Over-production of PrkC is likely responsible for the growth defect observed in the presence of 50 ng/ml of ATc suggesting that a proper level of *prkC* expression is im- portant for the fitness of *C. difficile.* Since the kinase activity of PrkC is apparently not re- sponsible for the growth defect when the protein is overexpressed, the trans-membrane seg-ment or the extracellular domain are probably involved in this toxicity.

 To determine if PrkC is involved in sporulation, we measure sporulation levels of the WT and the ∆*prkC* mutant strains after 24 h or 72 h of growth in SM. No significant differences were observed between both strains for the quantity of spores produced (Fig S4A). When we 415 tested the ability of purified spores to germinate, we observed that the drop in the  $OD_{600nm}$  of spore suspensions after the addition of taurocholate was similar for the WT and the ∆*prkC* mutant (Fig S4 B). In *B. subtilis*, PrkC is involved in the germination of spores in the pres- ence of *B. subtilis* muropeptides (47). However, purified muropeptides from *C. difficile* (0.1 to 0.01 mg/ml) failed to induce spore germination of the WT or the ∆*prkC* mutant (data not  shown). Bryostatin is a molecule involved in STK activation that induces germination of *B. subtilis* spores (47). This compound at 1 µM or 10 µM had no effect on *C. difficile* spores (data not shown)*.* All these results indicated that PrkC is not involved in the control of sporulation and spore germination in *C. difficile*.

# *prkC* **deletion affects cell morphology**

 To determine if deletion of *prkC* had an effect on the cell morphology, we analyzed by phase contrast microscopy cells of the 630∆*erm* strain, the ∆*prkC* mutant, and the complemented strain during exponential growth phase (Fig S5A). The ∆*prkC* mutant cells were more elon- gated than those of the WT strain and the complemented strain (Fig S5A). We then meas- ured the cell size using cells labeled with DAPI and FM4-64 (Fig 3A and 3B). The ∆*prkC* mutant cells had an average cell size of 9.2 μm whereas the WT and the complemented strains had an average cell size of 4.5 μm and 6.4 μm, respectively (Fig 3B). We detected elongated cells (Fig 3A, blue arrows) and cells with several septa and undivided (Fig 3A, green arrows). Interestingly, we observed septation defects for the ∆*prkC* mutant (Fig 3A, white square, Fig 3C and Fig S5B). Our analysis revealed that 4% of the cells had abnormal septation (Fig 3C and S5B, yellow arrows) and that 1% of the cells had adjacent septa which created mini-cell lacking DAPI-stained DNA (Fig 3C and Fig S5B, white arrows). We then analyzed by TEM the cell morphology and the structure of the septa for the WT, the ∆*prkC* mutant and the complemented strains. Cells with normal septation were observed for the WT strain, complemented strain and ∆p*rkC* mutant (Fig 4A) while some cells of the ∆*prkC* mutant displayed aberrant septation with the presence of multiple and adjacent septa (Fig 4B). Mini-cells attached to each other were also observed (Fig 4B left) and these probably arise from the formation of several septa in close proximity (Fig 4B, right, red arrows). These results indicated that deletion of the *prkC* gene in *C. difficile* affects bacterial cell morphology and septum formation.

#### *prkC* **deletion increases sensitivity to detergents and autolysis**

 To determine if *prkC* deletion also affects the cell envelop, we tested the sensitivity of the *prkC* mutant to compounds with a detergent activity. The presence of 0.006% SDS affected the growth of the ∆*prkC* mutant but did not affect the WT and the complemented strains (Fig 5A). It is worth noting that in the gastrointestinal tract, *C. difficile* is subjected to the bacteri- cidal effects of secondary bile salts that solubilize phospholipids, impair membrane integrity and weaken cell wall (48). We therefore tested the sensitivity of the ∆*prkC* mutant to the  secondary bile salt, deoxycholate (DOC) and to the primary bile salt, cholate. While the sen- sitivity to cholate (0.03% or 0.04 % in TY) was similar for all the strains (data not shown), we observed that the growth of the ∆*prkC* mutant was reduced in the presence of 0.03% DOC (Fig 5B), a physiological concentration encountered in the gut (49, 50). In addition, the autolysis in the presence of 0.01% of the non-ionic detergent Triton X-100 is more rapid for the ∆*prkC* mutant than for the WT and the complemented strains (Fig 5C) while no differ- ence in autolysis was observed in the absence of Triton (Fig S6A). This result suggested that the ∆*prkC* mutant is more sensitive to the PG hydrolysis.

#### **PrkC controls sensitivity to antimicrobial compounds targeting the cell envelop**

 Given that the deletion of *prkC* affected cell morphogenesis, we tested the sensitivity of the *prkC* mutant to antibiotics targeting cell wall biosynthesis (46, 51). Using disk assays, we showed that the size of the zone of inhibition increased for the ∆*prkC* mutant compared to the WT and the complemented strains for all ß-lactams tested (Fig 6A). Thus, the *prkC* mu- tant is more susceptible to ticarcillin, amoxicillin, imipenem and several cephalosporins (cefoxitin, ceftazidime and cefepime). In contrast, we did not observe any differences for antibiotics that target transcription or translation (Fig 6A and Fig S6B). We also observed an important reduction in the MIC of the ∆*prkC* mutant compared to the WT strain for the gly- copeptide, teicoplanin (>12-fold), but not for vancomycin (2-fold) (Table 1). In addition, we observed a slight increase in the susceptibility of the mutant to amoxicillin and imipenem (4- fold) and a more substantial increase for the cephalosporins tested (Table 1). The MIC for the second-generation cephalosporin, cefoxitin, was reduced by more than 6-fold for the ∆*prkC* mutant compared to the WT strain whereas the MIC for the third generation cephalo- sporins, ceftazidime, cefepime and cefotaxime, was reduced for the ∆*prkC* mutant by 20- 17.5- and 8-fold, respectively. The same increase in sensitivity to cefoxitin, ceftazidine and cefepime was seen for the ∆*prkC* mutant carrying pDIA6103-Ptet-*prkC*-K39→A (Fig 6A), suggesting that the kinase activity of PrkC is required for *C. difficile* to express an intrinsic high-level of resistance to cephalosporins (1).

 Cationic antimicrobial peptides (CAMPs) that are produced by both bacteria and the host also target the cell envelop and/or membrane of bacteria (52). Thus, we tested the resistance of the WT and mutant strains for several CAMPS of bacterial origin. The MIC of the ∆*prkC* mutant for polymixin B, bacitracin and nisin was 6-, 22- and 4.5-fold lower, respectively than the MIC for the WT strain (Table 1). In the gastrointestinal tract, host-produced antimi-crobial proteins such as lysozyme inhibit colonization of many Gram-positive pathogens by  hydrolyzing the PG and breaking the integrity of the cell wall. However, *C. difficile* is known for its intrinsic resistance to lysozyme that might be associated with high level of deacetylation of its PG (26). Interestingly, using an antimicrobial disk assay realized on Pep-M plates, we observed a greater size of the zone of inhibition for the ∆*prkC* mutant (17 mm)

when compared to the WT strain (7.25 mm) in presence of 800 μg of lysozyme (Fig 6B).

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- These results indicated that *prkC* deletion is involved in resistance to CAMPs and lysozyme.
- 

# *prkC* **deletion affect motility, sedimentation and biofilm formation**

 To identify other phenotypes associated with cell envelop properties, we first tested motility on semi-solid BHI plates and observed a reduced motility for the ∆*prkC* mutant compared to the WT and complemented strains (Fig 7A). After 48 h, the motility of the WT strain is 1.35 mm +/- 0.2 mm while the motility of the ∆*prkC* mutant is 0.8 mm +/- 0.1 mm. We also ob- served that the ∆*prkC* mutant formed more aggregates at the bottom of the tube than the WT and complemented strains (Fig S7A). We also tested the ability of these strains to form bio- film after an exposure to compounds triggering an envelope stress such as DOC or polymix- in B. In the presence of sub-inhibitory concentration of polymixin B (20 μg/ml) or DOC (0.01%), the ∆*prkC* mutant formed, respectively, 6- and 10-fold more biofilm than the WT and complemented strains after 24 h, respectively (Fig 7B and C). However, no difference in biofilm formation was observed without these compounds (data not shown). When we quan- tified the biofilm formed in presence of DOC at 24 h, 48 h and 72 h (Fig S7B), we found that the ∆*prkC* mutant formed biofilm earlier than the WT strain (at 24 h) while more biofilm was produced by the WT strain than the ∆*prkC* mutant at 48 h. A previous work show that extracellular DNA (eDNA) is a major component of the matrix in DOC-induced biofilms (29). In both the ∆*prkC* mutant and the WT strain, DOC-induced biofilms were rapidly dis- persed when treated with DNase (Fig S7C). Moreover, we detected eDNA in the extracellu- lar matrix for the ∆*prkC* mutant at 24 h and 48 h but only at 48 h for the WT strain (Fig 7D). Since eDNA is required for biofilm stability (29), the early release of eDNA detected in the ∆*prkC* mutant might be responsible for the premature biofilm formation. Thus, deletion of *prkC* seems to affect the motility, the ability of *C. difficile* to sediment and to form biofilm under conditions that induce cell envelop stress.

# **Comparison of the PG structure and composition between the WT strain and the**

**∆***prkC* **mutant**

 Based on the changes in cell-shape and increased susceptibility to ß-lactams and lysozyme of the ∆*prkC* mutant, we hypothesized that these phenotypes could be due to modification of the PG structure or composition. However, we showed that the muropeptide profiles of the WT strain (black) and the ∆*prkC* mutant (red) are almost identical (Fig S8). Indeed, we found no difference in the abundance of dimers containing a 3-3 cross-link (peaks 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15 and 17) generated by L,D-transpeptidases that might be associated with the high level of intrinsic resistance of *C. difficile* to some ß-lactams (31) or containing a 4-3 cross- link (peaks 18, 19, 21) catalyzed by D,D-transpeptidases, a target of ß-lactam (Fig S8). Moreover, the ratio of 4-3 to 3-3 cross-linking was not affected in our conditions. In addi- tion, the amount of deacetylated muropeptides (peaks 4, 7, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17, 18, 19, 21) (31), was similar in the WT strain and the ∆*prkC* mutant (Fig S8). As muropeptides deacetylation contribute to a high level of resistance to lysozyme in *C. difficile* (26), the in- creased sensitivity of the ∆*prkC* mutant to lysozyme cannot be explained by changes in the level of PG deacetylation (Fig S8). Our results suggested that susceptibility of the *prkC* mu- tant to some ß-lactams or lysozyme is not related to changes of its PG structure or composi-tion.

#### **Impact of the** *prkC* **deletion on the PSII**

 In firmicutes, the wall teichoic acids (WTA) are involved in cell division, maintenance of cell-shape and susceptibility to CAMPs or ß-lactam (53). The 630∆*erm* strain of *C. difficile* has an atypical wall teichoic acid known as polysaccharide II (PSII) composed of hexaglyco- sylphosphate repeats (34, 54). To know if the phenotypes observed for the ∆*prkC* mutant were associated with changes in the abundance, localization and/or structure of the PSII, we first purified the PSII of the WT and ∆*prkC* mutant strains. Their structure was analyzed by 545 NMR and showed that the <sup>1</sup>H NMR and <sup>13</sup>C HSOC spectra from the 630 $\Delta$ erm PSII were in good agreement with previous data (32, 54) and that no difference in the PSII structure was detected between the *prkC* mutant and the WT strain (Fig S9).

 We also investigated a possible role for PrkC in controlling PSII localization. Using an im- munoblot analysis with an antibody raised against PSII (34), we observed that more PSII was shed in the supernatant during growth by the ∆*prkC* mutant when compared to the pa- rental and complemented strains during growth (Fig 8A). By contrast, we detected similar quantity of PSII in membrane fraction for all strains (Fig S10). Thus, this result suggests that the deletion of *prkC* leads to an enhanced release of PSII into the supernatant.

 To precisely quantify the amount of PSII and PG in the cell wall of the WT and the ∆*prkC* mutant strains, we fractionated cells to recover the cell wall containing the PSII covalently linked to PG. We then separated these two compounds and quantified the amount of each product. Interestingly, we observed that the amount of PG purified from the ∆*prkC* mutant was lower compared to the WT strain, which represented 55 % of the quantity purified from the WT strain (Fig 8B). Similarly, but to a lesser extent, a reduction of 33 % in the quantity of PSII was observed for the ∆*prkC* mutant (Fig 8C). It is possible that the reduction in PG for the ∆*prkC* mutant could interfere with the localization of PSII and could explain the in-crease shedding of PSII in the supernatant (Fig 8A).

#### *prkC* **deletion affects cell wall associated proteins**

 Several properties of the bacterial cell envelop can be partly attributed to proteins localized at the cell surface. We extracted proteins non-covalently anchored to the cell wall of the ∆*prkC* mutant and the WT strains (55) and compared their relative abundance by mass spec- trometry (Table 2 and Fig S11). A first family of proteins is the CWPs that contain a CWB2 motif responsible for their anchorage to the cell wall by interacting with PSII (56, 57). In- deed, we found that 27 CWP proteins with CWB2 (out of 29 in strain 630) including the S- layer protein, SlpA, were more abundant in the cell wall of the WT strain than in the ∆*prkC* mutant while a unique CWP protein, Cwp7, was more abundant in the ∆*prkC* mutant. Other 573 non-covalently anchored proteins present of the cell surface (with SH3 3 or PG4 motifs) were also found in different amount in the WT strain and the ∆*prkC* mutant. Interestingly, some of them are involved in cell wall metabolism including L,D-transpeptidases, carboxy-peptidases and putative cell wall hydrolases.

### **Virulence and colonization of the ∆***prkC* **mutant in the hamster model**

 The different phenotypes of the *prkC* mutant suggest that PrkC can play a role during critical steps of the infectious cycle of *C. difficile* (4). To determine a possible role of PrkC in CDI, we compared the virulence of the WT strain and the ∆*prkC* mutant in the acute Golden Syri- an hamster model of infection. Despite a trend towards a delay in the death of the hamsters infected with the *prkC* mutant, no significant difference was observed for the average time of post challenge survival between hamsters infected with the WT and the ∆*prkC* mutant strains (Fig 9A). When we monitored the daily level of gut colonization of the WT and the ∆*prkC* mutant, we found no significant difference in the average level of gut colonization the day the hamster died as determine by the average CFU per g of feces for each hamster (Fig 9B). However, a significant change in gut colonization was observed between the two strains

40 h post infection (Fig 9C). Despite the fact that the ∆*prkC* mutant has a delay in gut colo-

nization, this delay has no significant effect on the virulence in this infection model.

# **Discussion**

 In this work, we showed that the *prkC* mutant of *C. difficile* has pleiotropic phenotypes such as an increased sensitivity to various antimicrobial compounds (CAMPs, lysozyme, DOC, ß-lactams), modifications in motility, cell aggregation and biofilm formation, and also changes in cell morphology and septum formation or localization. The increased sensitivity to several antimicrobial compounds detected for the *C. difficile* ∆*prkC* mutant has been ob- served in other firmicutes. The *prkA* mutant of *L. monocytogenes* is more sensitive to lyso- zyme and several CAMPs (58) while the *ireK* mutant of *E. faecalis* has an increased sensi- bility to bile and cholate (45) but not to DOC as observed for the *C. difficile* ∆*prkC* mutant. The inactivation of the PASTA-STKs in *S. pneumoniae*, *S. pyogenes*, *E. faecalis, L. mono- cytogenes* and *S. aureus* results in an increased susceptibility toward ß-lactams but the extent and pattern of the effects vary among species and strains (18, 45, 58, 59). These specific patterns of sensitivity observed for the PASTA-STK mutant for each firmicute might be as- sociated with differences in the targets phosphorylated by the PASTA-STK, in the penicil- lin-binding proteins (PBPs) and in their affinity for the different ß-lactams. As observed in *B. subtilis* and *S. aureus* (18, 42), the PrkC kinase of *C. difficile* controls biofilm formation under cell-membrane stresses conditions. Several factors probably contribute to the in- creased biofilm formation in the ∆*prkC* mutant in the presence of DOC or polymixin B. This may include a decreased motility, an increased sedimentation and changes in the amount of CWPs that modify adhesive properties of the cell surface. For example, the Cwp84 protein, which is less abundant in the ∆*prkC* mutant is known to negatively control biofilm formation (60). In addition, premature autolysis by the ∆*prkC* mutant probably releases eDNA earlier in presence of DOC resulting in the increased biofilm formation observed at 24 h for the mutant (29). By controlling cell lysis, PrkC seems able to affect biofilm formation in re-sponse to cell membrane stresses.

Changes in the homeostasis and the integrity of the cell envelop might explain most of the

phenotypes of the *C. difficile* ∆*prkC* mutant including modification of cell shape that is de-

- termined by the orderly processing and assembly of each cell wall component (53, 61, 62).
- The absence of PrkC probably modifies the abundance, composition and/or structure of
- component(s) of the cell envelop, including the PG, the glycopolymers (PSII and/or LTA-

 PSIII) and/or cell-wall associated proteins (56). In other Gram-positive bacteria, PASTA- STK phosphorylates enzymes involved in PG and/or teichoic acid synthesis, modification, assembly and/or turnover. This includes enzymes of the Glm pathway, Mur enzymes, MviM, a flippase involved in the transport of the lipid II anchored compounds across the membrane, a penicillin-binding protein, LTA synthetases but also transcriptional regulators such as WalR-WalK and GraR that control cell wall metabolism (17, 18, 63). In *C. difficile*, we did not detect a transcriptional effect of the *prkC* deletion on genes encoding enzymes involved in the synthesis of envelop components (E. Cuenot, unpublished data). These results strongly suggest that PrkC does not act by modifying the activity of a transcriptional regulator but rather by phosphorylating one or several protein(s) directly or indirectly controlling the syn-thesis, assembly or turnover of at least one component of the envelop.

 Teichoic acids play a role in protecting bacteria from stressful conditions by modifying the properties of the cell surface. Changes in teichoic acids resulted in phenotypes similar to those we observed in the ∆*prkC* mutant. This include increased ß-lactam susceptibility, au- tolysis, modification of cell morphology and defect in septa positioning and numbers (53, 64). In *C. difficile*, the biosynthesis of the PSII*,* its properties as well as the phenotypes asso- ciated with defect in PSII are poorly studied (32, 34). Furthermore, less information is avail- able on atypical LTA (32). However, we noted that the ∆*prkC* mutant shares common phe- notypes with the *lcpB* mutant encoding a protein involved in tethering PSII (34) that includes elongated cell, presence of multiple septa and increased ability to form biofilms (34). While the structure of PSII is not altered in the ∆*prkC* mutant, we observed a slightly reduction in the amount of PSII anchored to the cell wall and an increased quantity in PSII released in the supernatant of the ∆*prkC* mutant. These changes in PSII localization might be caused by the dysregulation of PSII synthesis/anchorage or the production/assembly of another cell enve- lope component such as PG in the absence of PrkC. Indeed, anchoring of the PSII to PG is probably affected by the reduced amount of PG detected in the ∆*prkC* mutant.

 As observed for *L. monocytogenes* and *E. faecalis, C. difficile* is inherently resistant to cephalosporin and PASTA-STK inactivation leads to a robust increase in sensitivity towards these antibiotics that target PG synthesis by inactivating PBPs (45, 65). In *C. difficile*, we showed that the kinase activity of PrkC is required for the high level of resistance to cepha- losporin. The sensitivity of the ∆*prkC* mutant to teicoplanin, an antibiotic that affects trans- glycosylation by PBPs and to bacitracin that interferes with PG synthesis through its role on lipid II recycling also suggests a possible role for this kinase in controlling PG metabolism (66). Other phenotypes such as lysozyme resistance or autolysis are also related to PG struc ture or metabolism. However, we failed to detect any modification in the composition of PG, in reticulation of PG, 3-3 to 4-3 cross-link ratio or PG deacetylation under our experimental conditions. Changes to these would have offer, to a certain extent, an explanation for the increased sensitivity to cephalosporin and lysozyme. Nevertheless, it is possible that local- ized and/or subtle changes in PG composition occur at the septum, which is where PrkC is localized during growth. These changes would be difficult to detect. The main difference between the ∆*prkC* and the WT is a decrease in the total amount of PG. This might be linked to a reduced size of the glycan chains formed. It is interesting to note that proteins potential- ly involved in PG metabolism are also detected in different amount in the cell wall of the WT and ∆*prkC* mutant strains (Table 2). All these results suggest that PrkC has an effect directly or indirectly on PG synthesis or turnover in *C. difficile*. In *L. monocytogenes*, it has been suggested that the PASTA kinase might specifically regulate PBPs resulting in cepha- losporin resistance(58). In *Enterococcus faecium,* mutants in class A PBPs are sensitive to cephalosporins and suppressor mutations that restore cephalosporin resistance are found in *ireK* and *ireP* encoding a STK and a STP, respectively (67). In *E. faecalis*, IreB negatively controls cephalosporin resistance and IreB is a small protein of unknown function and the only substrate of IreK kinase identified to date (68). However, the molecular mechanisms linking IreB, IreK and maybe PBPs that could explain their role in the control of cephalo- sporin resistance remain unknown. Interestingly, CD1283, the IreB-like protein of *C. dif- ficile,* contains one threonine (T7) and this residue is phosphorylated in IreB of *E. faecalis*. CD1283 might contribute to the regulatory pathway downstream of PrkC. In addition, the PrkC-mediated phosphorylation of proteins controlling cell division and the synthesis of cell envelop components is another interesting hypothesis. Indeed, PrkC is localized at the sep- tum and the deletion of the *prkC* gene affects *C. difficile* cell morphology with elongated cells, abnormal septum localization and defect in cell separation. In *S. pneumoniae* and other streptococci, ∆*stkP* mutants have longer cells than the WT and a modified shape and exhibits cell division and separation defects (69). Several proteins involved in cell division such as DivIVA, MapZ, GspB or FtsZ are phosphorylated by the PASTA-STKs in *B. subtilis*, *S. pneumoniae* or *S. aureus* (17, 18, 69). In *S. pneumoniae*, phosphorylation of DivIVA con- trols cell shape and the localization of PG synthesis machinery required for cell elongation and cell constriction (69). The phosphorylation by PrkC of an orthologous of one of these proteins, especially DivIVA, could explain several cell morphology associated phenotypes observed for the *prkC* mutant. Altogether, our results indicate that the PASTA-STK of *C.* 

- *difficile,* PrkC, is probably involved in the control of the envelop biogenesis and/or cell divi-sion.
- Finally, the virulence of the ∆*prkC* mutant is similar to that of the WT strain while a col- onization delay of the hamster gut is observed for the mutant. This can be explained by a global increased in sensitivity of the ∆*prkC* mutant to antimicrobial compounds and the pos- sible changes in its cell envelop properties. Our results highlight the involvement of PrkC in controlling several processes corresponding to critical steps of CDI including resistance to DOC, known to inhibit growth of vegetative cells in the gastrointestinal tract (4), to lyso- zyme, a critical component of the innate immune system and to CAMPs produced by the microbiota and/or by the host (3) that are compounds present in the hamster model. Fur- thermore, dissecting the role of PrkC in controlling the resistance to antibiotics promoting CDI such as cephalosporins (1) could pave the way to new strategies for the prevention of
- these infections.
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# **Table 1. MIC of the strain 630∆***erm* **and of the ∆***prkC* **mutant for antibiotics targeting cell wall and CAMPS**



714 MICs for antibiotics were determined using E-test with the exception of cefotaxime.<br>715 The MICs for cefotaxime and antimicrobial peptides were determined by the method

The MICs for cefotaxime and antimicrobial peptides were determined by the method of dilution.

# 717 **Table 2. Change in cell wall associated proteins in** *C. difficile* **between the 630∆***erm* 718 **strain and the ∆***prkC* **mutant.**





719  $\frac{4}{1}$  cell wall metabolism<br>720  $\frac{4}{1}$  FDR<0.05

\*FDR<0.05

^protein containing one trans-membrane domain

SH3 domain (PF08239), CWB 2 motif (PD04122) and PG4 motif (PF12229)

# 

# **Figure Legend**

# **Figure 1. Organization, localization and kinase activity of the PrkC protein.**

A. Organization of the domains of *C. difficile* CD2578-PrkC*.* PrkC contains a cytoplasmic

- kinase domain in N-terminal part (brown), a trans-membrane (TM) segment, two PASTA
- domains (green) and an atypical SGN (Ser, Gly, Asn) rich domain in C-terminal part (pink).
- The conserved lysine residue (K39) within the ATP-binding P loop of the kinase that is re-quired for phosphotransfer is indicated.
- B. Localization of the PrkC-HA tagged protein. Cells expressing *prkC* fused to HA were grown in the presence of 15 ng/ml of ATc, and harvested during exponential growth. Sam-ples were fractionated into membrane (Mb) and cytoplasm (Cy) fractions. Protein fractions
- were analyzed by western blot using an antibody raised against HA.
- C. Localization of the SNAP-PrkC fusion during growth. The SNAP-PrkC protein was pro-
- duced during exponential growth phase in the presence of 50 ng/ml ATc. After labeling with
- the TMR-star substrate, PrkC-SNAP localization was analyzed by fluorescence microscopy.
- AF (autofluorescence). The scale bar represents 5 μm.
- D. Western blot performed after fractionation in a soluble fraction (1) and an insoluble frac-
- tion (2) obtained from exponential phase cultures of the WT, the ∆*prkC* mutant, the com-
- plemented strain and the ∆*prkC* mutant carrying pDIA6103-*prkC*-K39→A (K→A). An α-P-
- Thr antibody was used to detect phosphorylated threonine. We indicated by red arrows the
- bands detected in the WT strain that disappeared in the ∆*prkC* mutant.
- 

# **Figure 2. Genetic organization of the** *prkC* **locus**

- A. Schematic representation of the gene cluster present upstream of *prkC*. The locus between *CD2590-dapF* and *prkC* includes genes encoding proteins involved in translation, transcrip-
- tion, DNA replication, metabolism and membrane proteins. The genome-wide TSS mapping
- (25) indicated the presence of a promoter upstream of *dapF*. The extended -10 box and the
- TSS are indicated in bold.
- B. PCR realized with primers annealing in *prkC* and *stp* (IMV936 and IMV908, line 1 and 2) or *stp* and *rlmN* (IMV935 and IMV907, line 3 and 4) either on RNA extracted from 630∆*erm* (line 1 and 3) or on cDNA synthesized by reverse transcription from the same
- RNA using primer IMV843 (line 2 and 4). Smart Ladder (200-10,000 bp).
- 

# **Figure 3. Morphology of the ∆***prkC* **mutant**

- A. Fluorescence microscopy was carried out on the WT, the ∆*prkC* mutant and the comple-
- mented (Comp) strains. Membranes and DNA were visualized with FM4-64 (red) and DAPI
- (blue), respectively. A blue arrow showed an elongated cell and green arrows non-separated
- cells. The white square indicates the presence of a septum with an aberrant structure. Scale
- bars represent 5 μm.
- B. Cell size distribution for the WT, the ∆*prkC* mutant and the complemented (Comp)
- strains. The measurement was done on cells labeled with FM4-64 and DAPI. Means and
- errors of the means were calculated after the measurement of at least 600 cells for each
- strain. The analysis was performed with the software Imaje J.
- C. Presence of aberrant septation and anucleated minicells in *ΔprkC* mutant cells. Fluores-
- cence microscopy of cells staining with FM4-64 and DAPI revealed the presence of aberrant
- septum (yellow arrows) and anucleate minicells (white arrows) in the ∆*prkC* mutant. Scale bars represent 5 μm.
- 

# **Figure 4. Presence of abnormal septa in the ∆***prkC* **mutant cells**

- A. TEM pictures showing normal septal structure in the 630∆*erm* (WT), the ∆*prkC* mutant and the complemented (Comp) strains. Scale bars represent 100 nm.
- B. TEM pictures showing aberrant septal structure in the ∆*prkC* mutant cells. In the right panel, we can distinguish the beginning of the synthesis of two septa (white arrows) has be-
- gun near an apparent normal septum. Scale bars represent 200 nm.
- 

# **Figure 5.** *prkC* **deletion increases sensitivity to detergents and autolysis**

- A. Resistance to SDS stress of the ∆*prkC* mutant, the 630∆*erm* (WT) and the complement strains (Comp) was tested on BHI plates containing 0.006 % of SDS. This experiment was performed in triplicate and this plate is representative of the results obtained.
- B. Growth of the WT strain (black circle), the ∆*prkC* mutant (white circle) and the comple- mented strain (white square) in 24-well microplates containing TY medium in the presence of 0.03% DOC. A growth curve without DOC is presented in Fig S3. 4 independent cultures were done.
- C. Autolysis of the WT (black circle), ∆*prkC* (white circle) and complemented (black 788 square) strains in the presence of  $0.01\%$  Triton X-100. The OD<sub>600nm</sub> of the samples incubated at 37°C was determined every 5 min until complete cell lysis was reached. 4 independent experiments were done.
- 

# **Figure 6. Sensitivity of the ∆***prkC* **mutant to antibiotics targeting cell-wall and to lyso-zyme.**

- A. Sensitivity to antibiotics targeting the cell wall. Histograms representing the diameters of growth inhibition area after 24 h of incubation on BHI plates for the 630∆*erm* strain pDIA6103 (WT, black), the ∆*prkC* mutant pDIA6103 (medium grey), the complemented strain (Comp, dark grey) and the ∆*prkC* mutant expressing PrkC-K39A (pale grey). We used antibiogram disks containing Ticarcillin 75 μg, Amoxicillin 25 μg, Imipenem 10 μg, Ceftazidime 30 μg, Cefepime 30 μg or Erythromycin 15 μg. Cefoxitin was tested at 100 μg. The results presented correspond to 7 experiments (Ticarcillin, Amoxicillin, Imipenem) or 4 experiments for cephalosporins. Data were analyzed by t test. \* indicates P<0.05.
- B. Sensitivity to lysozyme was determined on Pep-M plates. 800 μg of lysozyme was added
- to a 6-mm disk. Histograms representing the diameter of growth inhibition measured for the
- 630∆*erm* pDIA6103 (WT, black), the ∆*prkC* mutant pDIA6103 (medium grey), and the
- complemented strain (Comp, dark grey). The experiment was performed in quadruplicate. 806 Data were analyzed by t test. \* indicates P<0.05.
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# **Figure 7. Sedimentation, biofilm formation and motility of the ∆***prkC* **mutant**

- A. Motility test on 0.3% agar BHI plates. The plates shown are representatives of 3 in-dependent tests.
- 811 B and C Mean values of the OD<sub>570nm</sub> measured after crystal violet staining of the mass of
- biofilm obtained after 24 h in presence of 20 μM polymixin B (B) or 0.01% DOC (C). Error
- bars show standard deviation of three independent experiments performed in triplicate. Data
- 814 were analyzed by t test. P values were 0.031 and 0.0045 for polymixin B (B) and DOC (C),
- respectively. On the picture, crystal violet staining revealing the amount of biofilm formed after 24 h corresponding to the values represented above.
- 
- D. Detection of e-DNA in the matrix of 24 h and 48 h DOC-induced biofilms formed by the
- WT strain and the ∆*prkC* mutant. The experience was done in triplicate. We presented a gel
- representative of the results obtained.
- 

# **Figure 8. Impact of** *prkC* **deletion on PSII localization and PG and PSII production**

- A. Immunoblot detection of PSII using a serum antibody raised against this glycopolymer (34) in supernatants of the WT, ∆*prkC* and complemented strains. For each sample, we nor-824 malized by using the OD<sub>600nm</sub> of the corresponding culture. ND, not diluted. All immunob-lots are representative of at least four replicates.
- B and C. Quantification of the PG (B) and PSII (C) present at the surface of the WT and the
- ∆*prkC* mutant strains. The values were normalized to the WT levels considered as 1. Error
- bars represents standard deviation of at least 4 independent experiments.
- 

# **Figure 9.** *prkC* **deletion affect gut establishment and not virulence**

- A. Average survival time (h) post-infection for hamsters challenged with 630∆*erm* or ∆*prkC* spores.
- B and C. Average quantity of CFU per g of feces determined the day of animal death (B) or
- 40 h post infection (C) for hamsters challenged with 630∆*erm* or ∆*prkC* spores. The average
- values (B) were calculated with 16 and 12 hamsters for the WT strain and the ∆*prkC* mutant,
- respectively due to the absence of feces at this time point for four hamsters.
- The average values (C) were calculated with the totality of hamsters for both groups. Data 838 were analyzed by a Mann-Whitney test. \* indicates P<0.05. The sensitivity threshold of the 839 method is  $10^3$  g/feces.
- 

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