

Comparative genomics and proteogenomics highlight key molecular players involved in Frankia sporulation

Lorine Bethencourt, Hasna Boubakri, Najwa Taïb, Philippe Normand, J.

Armengaud, Pascale P Fournier, Céline Brochier-Armanet, Aude P Herrera-Belaroussi

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18 E-mail: aude.herrera-belaroussi@univ-lyon1.fr

Abstract

Sporulation is a microbial adaptive strategy to resist inhospitable conditions for vegetative growth and to disperse to colonise more favourable environments. This microbial trait is 22 widespread in Actinobacteria. Among them, Frankia strains are able to differentiate sporangia in 23 pure culture, while others can sporulate even when in symbiosis with sporulation occurring within 24 host cells. The molecular determinants controlling Frankia sporulation have not been yet described. In order to highlight, for the first time, the molecular players potentially involved in 26 Frankia sporulation, we conducted (i) a comparison of protein contents between Frankia spores 27 and hyphae and (ii) a comparative genomic analysis of Frankia proteomes with sporulating and non-sporulating Actinobacteria. Among the main results, glycogen-metabolism related proteins, as well as oxidative stress response and protease-like proteins were overdetected in hyphae, recalling lytic processes that allow Streptomyces cells to erect sporogenic hyphae. Several genes encoding transcriptional regulators, including GntR-like, appeared up-regulated in spores, as well as tyrosinase, suggesting their potential role in mature spore metabolism. Finally, our results 33 highlighted new proteins potentially involved in Frankia sporulation, including a pyrophosphate-energized proton pump and YaaT, described as involved in the phosphorelay allowing sporulation in Bacillus subtilis, leading us to discuss the role of a phosphorelay in Frankia sporulation.

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Keywords: Frankia sporulation, actinorhizal symbiosis, desiccation, starvation, secondary metabolites

1. Introduction

42 During their life cycle, microorganisms are subjected to point and/or recurrent environmental variations that exert strong selection pressures. To face such physico-chemical variations, some microorganisms have developed dormancy strategies. These strategies generally include morphological differentiation and physiological switches that result in cells with a robust cell wall to prevent water loss and reduced activity allowing the organisms to preserve their genetic material and survive until conditions become favourable again. Elaborate developmental processes have for example been characterized in a limited number of bacterial lineages, leading to the formation 49 of highly resistant spores with a much reduced metabolism, in response to stresses such as desiccation, starvation or DNA damage. Yet, spore differentiation (sporulation) has been characterized in a limited number of bacterial lineages, including Actinobacteria. Indeed, many Actinobacteria can produce, in parallel to their hyphal growth, a variety of spores, e.g. free isolated spores (e.g. Micromonospora) or spores arranged in chains (e.g. Streptomyces), sporangia with motile (e.g. Actinoplanes) or non-motile (e.g. Frankia) spores [1, 2]. Whether resulting in the production of free spores or sporangia, the sporulation process represents a heavy energetic investment which is why the developmental program is tightly controlled [3, 4]. This process has 57 been extensively studied in Streptomyces species [5-8]. In Streptomyces, nutrient deprivation and the resulting growth impairment lead to autolytic degradation of the mycelium (probably involving a programmed cell death (PCD)-like mechanism), resulting in the accumulation of cell wall-derived metabolites (amino acids, amino sugars, nucleotides, and lipids) around the lysing substrate mycelium. This accumulation represents a major trigger allowing cells to acquire the building blocks needed to erect sporogenic structures called aerial hyphae [1, 2]. This is also coupled to synthesis of antibiotics and other secondary metabolites [9]. This correlation between sporulation and secondary metabolites production may exist because of the need to defend the colony when it is undergoing PCD, and both could be under the control of the same regulators [10, 11]. Two major classes of regulatory genes were found very early in Streptomyces coelicolor to be involved in the formation of aerial hyphae and their differentiation to form chains of unigenomic spores: the bld genes (for "bald" in reference to the "hairless" phenotype of mutants lacking the fluffy aerial hyphae) controlling the formation of aerial hyphae that are the precursors of spores (as well as antibiotic production), and whi ("white") genes involved in spore formation, named from the aerial mycelium yielding white colonies caused by the lack of pigmented antibiotics [8, 12-14]. High levels of additional proteins, such as SsgA-like proteins (SALPs) [15], have also been described to control formation of sporulation septa, chromosome segregation and spore maturation processes 74 like spore wall synthesis and separation of spores.

Little research has been reported on sporulation morphogenesis and genetics of other filamentous Actinobacteria, even though some of them show ability to sporulate in unusual environmental conditions [1, 2, 16-19]. Indeed, it is now well known that sporulation allows bacteria to resist conditions that are inhospitable to their vegetative form and/or to disperse to colonise more favourable environments for growth. However, a case of bacterial sporulation falling outside 80 the paradigm described above has been described in a symbiotic context. Actinobacteria related to 81 Frankia genus are able to associate with so-called "actinorhizal" plants such as Alnus spp. This symbiotic association results in the formation of a new root organ, the nodule, where trophic exchanges between plant and bacteria take place: bacteria fix atmospheric nitrogen in dedicated structures, named vesicles or diazovesicles, and in turn the host plant provides photosynthetic 85 carbon substrates. Most isolated Frankia strains have been described as sporulating in liquid culture medium [20] and to form non-motile spores [21]. These will be referred as "Sp-". Yet, certain strains, called "Sp+", have the ability to form numerous and massive sporangia inside host 88 cells (unlike "Sp-" strains that do sporulate *in-vitro* but are unable of *in-planta* sporulation) [22, 23] wherein non-motile spores are found [24]. The expression of sporulation by Sp+ strains in plant 90 cells thus remains undescribed in a symbiotic context where Frankia benefits from a highly 91 favourable habitat for its development and trophic interactions with its host. In the absence of Sp+ strains available in pure culture and since no Sp+ genome has been sequenced to date, our 93 understanding of the molecular mechanisms of Frankia sporulation in plant cells remains very 94 limited. Unlike Streptomyces, environmental signals triggering Frankia sporulation, including sporulation in culture media, and the cellular system(s) involved have been poorly studied, and only with a few isolates in pure culture. Furthermore, depending of the strains used contradictory results were obtained. For instance, depletion in nitrogen and phosphorus of the culture medium 98 has been described as significantly increasing *in-vitro* sporulation on some strains, but without any

effects on others [25]. Cultivating strain at 33°C can inhibit sporulation [25], while Dewedar and 100 Mansour [26] reported that some other Frankia strains showed maximum spore formation at 35°C. 101 Thus, to date, environmental factors involved in Frankia sporulation are poorly described and seem 102 to vary according to the Frankia strains. In addition, genetic determinants controlling the expression of Frankia sporulation are still unknown. A rapid search for protein functional 104 annotations related to sporulation in F. alni ACN14a strain genome suggested the presence of whi (whiA and whiB) and ssgA genes previously described in S. coelicolor genome [27]. However, such an approach based on gene annotation can be incomplete and miss the genetic sporulation 107 determinants specific to Frankia genus.

The aim of the present study was therefore to identify the molecular determinants involved in Frankia sporulation using two complementary approaches: (i) a comparison of protein contents between Frankia spores and hyphae (**in-vivo proteogenomic approach**) and (ii) a comparative genomic analysis of Frankia proteomes and genomes with sporulating and non-sporulating Actinobacteria data (**in-silico approach**). In addition, since a correlation between sporulation and secondary metabolite production may exist [10, 11], we also investigated genes potentially involved in secondary metabolism. These complementary approaches allowed us to retrieve for the first time a large number of proteins up-regulated in spores and to identify new genes 116 potentially involved in Frankia sporulation.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Frankia culture conditions for spore isolation and hyphae preparation

All cultures of Frankia alni strain ACN14a [28] were prepared in liquid BAP+ medium supplemented with 5 mM ammonium in order to repress differentiation of diazovesicles as described previously [29].

For spore isolation, cultures were prepared in 250 mL medium and used after 3- to 5-months 126 incubation (28°C, without agitation). The cells were sedimented (1,500 \times g for 10 min) to obtain 5 127 mL pellets that were then syringed 3 times with 21G needles. The syringed cells were filtered on

compacted cotton in order to recover spores that flowed through the cotton while hyphal fragments were retained in the plug. A total of 3 spore suspension replicates were obtained, with fresh biomass yield between 16 mg and 22 mg.

For hyphae sample preparation, 10-day old cultures were used. This incubation period was chosen to recover hyphae at the beginning of the stationary phase, just before sporulation onset 133 and absence of spores in cultures was confirmed under the microscope before analyses. The cells 134 were sedimented (1,500 \times g for 5 minutes) and the resulting pellets frozen until proteomics analysis. A total of 3 hyphal sample replicates were obtained, with biomass between 350 mg and 500 mg.

2.2. Proteomic sample preparation and nanoscale liquid chromatography coupled to tandem mass spectrometry (nano LC-MS/MS) analysis of tryptic peptides

Proteins were extracted from hyphae as follows: each replicate sample was dissolved in LDS 141 1X (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, Ca) with 100 µL of LDS 1X per 30 mg of pellet. The samples were then heated at 99°C for 5 min, subjected to sonication in an ultrasonic bath for 5 min, and bead-beated with a Precellys instrument (Bertin Technologies, Montigny-le-Bretonneux, France). Samples were centrifuged for 40 sec at 16,000 g and the resulting supernatants were heated for 10 min at 99°C. Proteins were extracted from spores with a recently optimized protocol consisting in a dilution with milliQ water into 1 mL final volume and bead-beating by means of a Precellys instrument (Bertin technologies) [30]. The sample was then centrifuged, and the resulting supernatant was precipitated with trichloroacetic acid (10% w/vol final). After centrifugation, the pellet was dissolved into 50 µL of LDS1X (Invitrogen), subjected to sonication in an ultrasonic bath for 5 min, and then heated for 10 min at 99°C. Hyphae and spore proteins were subjected to a short SDS-PAGE migration. The whole proteome from a single polyacrylamide band was treated and proteolyzed by trypsin, as previously described [31]. Tryptic peptides were analysed with a Q-Exactive HF high resolution tandem mass spectrometer (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, Ma) incorporating an ultra-high-field orbitrap analyser as previously described [32]. MS/MS spectra were assigned with a 155 protein sequence database derived from Frankia alni ACN14a strain genome with standard parameters.

158 2.3. Analyses of differentially expressed proteins: Homology-based functional analysis, Clusters of

159 Orthologous Groups of proteins (COGs) prediction and genome mapping

160 Proteins were quantified based on their spectral counts. Proteome comparison between hyphae 161 and spores was done taking into account the six replicates with the TFold module from the 162 PatternLab software, as previously described [31]. Differentially detected proteins between spores 163 and hyphae were categorized into 4 classes: i) Blue class proteins for which identifications 164 satisfied both, the fold change (*i.e.* ratio of protein quantities) between spores and hyphae (≥ 1.5) 165 and Tfold statistical criteria (t-test, p-value \leq 0.05); ii) Orange class proteins for which 166 identifications did not meet the fold criterion but have low p-values; iii) Green class proteins for 167 which identifications satisfied the fold change criterion but not the statistical criterion; iv) and finally 168 Red class for which identifications did not meet the fold and p -value criteria.

169 The sequences of the 1,385 proteins of F. alni belonging to the blue class (for which 170 identifications satisfied both the fold >1.5 and p-value < 0.05) were uploaded in the STRING 171 database with F. alni chosen as a query microorganism, in order to access sequence identity. 172 These sequences were also assigned to COGs using MicroScope (Microbial Genome Annotation 173 & Analysis) Platform from Genoscope

174 (http://www.genoscope.cns.fr/agc/microscope/home/index.php).

175 A circular genome map of the genome sequence F. alni was drawn using GenVision software 176 from DNAStar (DNASTAR, Madison, WI).

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178 2.4. Construction of actinobacterial predicted proteome databases and identification of candidate 179 genes involved in Frankia sporulation by comparative proteome analysis

180 Three databases were constructed from actinobacterial predicted proteomes downloaded from 181 NCBI website (http://www.ncbi.nih.gov). A first database, named "14_Frankia.db", included the 182 protein sequences of 14 Frankia strains described as sporulating in pure culture (Table 1), among 183 which only four had complete genomes (Frankia alni ACN14a, F. casuarinae CcI3, Frankia 184 EAN1pec and F. inefficax EuI1c). These four proteomes were used to construct a second 185 database referred as "actino_sporange.db" together with six other sporulating actinobacteria out of

the Frankia genus, chosen for their ability to sporulate by producing sporangia: four Actinoplanes 187 strains, one Geodermatophilus strain and one Streptosporangium strain (Table 1). The third database ("actino_non_spor.db") grouped the predicted proteomes of seven Actinobacteria unable to differentiate spores, related to Bifidobacterium, Rhodococcus and Micrococcus genera (Table 1).

All-against-all blasts of protein sequences were performed for each database "14_Frankia.db" 192 and "actino sporange.db" using the BLASTP software (version 2.2.26, with default parameters, [33]). Protein families gathering homologous sequences were assembled using the SiLiX software (version 1.2.9) [34], based on 45% identity over 80% of the length of the shortest sequence. Several identity thresholds ranging from 35 to 95% were tested and 45% was found to be the best compromise between false positives and false negatives within protein families (supplementary data 1).

Based on the assumption that sporangia formation relied on similar (homologous) mechanisms 199 in sporangia-forming Actinobacteria, we searched for protein families largely distributed in Frankia or sporangia-producing strains and absent in non-sporulating Actinobacteria. To do so, we selected for each database homologous protein families represented in at least 80% of genomes 202 included in the respective database. The longest protein sequence of each protein family was then 203 used to query the "actino non spor.db" database using BLASTP (45% identity, e-value $< 10^{-4}$), in order to select groups without homologous protein sequences encoded in the genomes of non-sporulating Actinobacteria.

207 2.5. Phyloprofile analysis of Frankia alni ACN14a gene content

208 In-silico analyses based on proteome comparisons of several Frankia strains with sporulating and non-sporulating Actinobacteria were completed with analyses based this time on gene contents using the "Gene phyloprofile" functionality of the MicroScope Platform from Genoscope (http://www.genoscope.cns.fr/agc/microscope/home/index.php). This functionality (using pre-212 computed homologies and synteny groups) allowed to find genes in the query genome of Frankia *alni* ACN14a (i) with homologues in the genomes of 12 other sporangia-forming strains previously used (Frankia EuI1c, CcI3, QA3, EUN1f, EAN1pec and CN3 strains, the 4 Actinoplanes, the Geodermatophilus and the Streptosporangium strains cited in Table 1), and (ii) without 216 homologues in the genomes of 7 non-sporulating actinobacterial strains (3 Bifidobacterium strains, 217 3 Rhodococcus strains and one Micrococcus strain cited in Table 1), using an identity threshold >45% over 70% of the length of the shortest sequence.

2.6. Search for secondary metabolite gene clusters in Frankia genome

221 A total of 27 gene clusters encoding enzymes involved in production of secondary metabolites 222 have been identified in Frankia ACN14a genome (accession number NC 008278) using AntiSMASH [35] running on the MicroScope Platform [36], including a total of 1,000 genes. These 224 clusters were searched for among (i) protein sequences differentially detected between Frankia 225 ACN14a spores and hyphae proteomes and (ii) families of interest selected from the comparative genomic analyses (using AntiSMASH).

228 2.7. Proteomics data repository

The mass spectrometry raw files and interpreted proteomic data were deposited at the ProteomeXchange Consortium (http://proteomecentral.proteomexchange.org) via the PRIDE 231 partner repository with the data set identifier PXD011620.

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3. Results

236 3.1. Differentially expressed proteins between Frankia alni ACN14a spores and hyphae

High-throughput shotgun proteomic analyses were performed to compare protein contents 238 between Frankia alni ACN14a spores and hyphae. Proteins were quantified based on their spectral counts in 3 biological replicates of spores and 3 biological replicates of hyphae. A total of 2,193 and 2,070 proteins were detected in hyphae and spores, respectively, when compiling the replicates. When merging both spores and hyphae datasets, a total of 2,336 proteins was detected (1,927 proteins were detected in both conditions). Using a Fold Change (FC) threshold of 1.5 and 243 a p-value below 0.05, 1,385 (59%) differentially detected proteins were identified (Blue class),

including 432 proteins more abundant in spores compared to hyphae and 953 up-regulated in hyphae (supplementary data 2).

The genes corresponding to up-regulated proteins in spores and hyphae were scattered 247 throughout the genome of Frankia ACN14a and did not form gene clusters or genomic islands (Fig. 1). Similarly, no correlation between protein abundances in spores versus hyphae and gene location could be established (Fig. 1). Finally, these genes did not cluster with symbiotic genes previously described: clockwise from the top squalene and phytoene biosynthesis genes in green, the two hydrogenase uptake clusters in black, the iron-sulfur biosynthesis cluster in orange, the nitrogenase cluster in red [29] and the cellulase-cellulose synthase cluster in blue [45].

The COG distribution of up-regulated proteins in spores compared to hyphae revealed (i) the importance of COG related to "information storage and processing" (29% of proteins against 17% in hyphae), and (ii) a decreased number of COG related to "cellular processes and signalling" and "metabolism" (19% and 49% of proteins against 28% and 55% in hyphae, respectively). The 257 detailed distribution of proteins into COG functional categories is illustrated in Fig. 2. The most overabundant proteins in spores compared to hyphae included COG-J "Translation, ribosomal structure and biogenesis (17.5% against 5.4% in hyphae), COG-C "Energy production and conversion" (15.4% against 9.3% in hyphae) and COG-K "Transcription" (10.5% against 6.0% in hyphae). In contrast, the most overdetected proteins in hyphae were categorized into COG-E "Amino acid transport and metabolism" (12.9% against 6.6% in spores), COG-M "Cell wall/membrane/envelope biogenesis" (8.0% against 3.8% in spores) and COG-O "Posttranslational modification, protein turnover, chaperones" (7.4% against 4.5% in spores).

265 Table 2 lists the most 30 up- and down-regulated proteins in Frankia ACN14a spores compared to hyphae, respectively. Among the top proteins enriched in spores, 9 proteins were at least 10 times more abundant compared to hyphae (Table 2), including a putative phytase (FRAAL1518, FC = 30.167) and a tyrosinase (FRAAL0531, FC = 20.333). Several transcriptional regulators were also observed as PadR-like (FRAAL2570, FC = 15,571), GntR-like (FRAAL1728, FC = 11.571) and TetR/AcrR-like (FRAAL2521, FC = 11.071).

Conversely, the 30 top proteins over-detected in hyphae were at least 10 times more abundant 272 compared to spores (Table 2). They included among others: (i) some wall-related proteins and cell 273 division determinants (e.g. FRAAL1858 aminopeptidase N, FC = 46.380 and FRAAL2205 cell 274 division protein DivIVA 5, FC = 16.900), (ii) proteins involved in glucose metabolism (e.g. 275 FRAAL0052 glucose-6-phosphate isomerase, FC = 22.710; FRAAL1567 6-phosphogluconate 276 dehydrogenase, FC = 17.75; FRAAL4578 6-phosphogluconolactonase, FC = 10.670; FRAAL5091 277 glucokinase, FC = 10.080), (iii) proteins involved in glutamine metabolism (e.g. FRAAL4683 278 carbamoyl phosphate synthase, FC = 20.000; FRAAL5855 glutamyl-tRNA amidotransferase, FC = 279 10.250; FRAAL5165 glutamine synthetase, FC = 10.000), and (iv) proteins involved in oxidative 280 stress response (e.g. FRAAL5116 rubrerythrin, FC = 29.286 and FRAAL1783 glutathione 281 peroxidase, FC = 12.353).

Proteins involved in glycogen metabolism were also found overabundant in hyphae compared to spores such as FRAAL2118 glycogen debranching enzyme (FC = 10.375) (Table 2) or FRAAL2116 malto-oligosyltrehalose trehalohydrolase (FC = 4.060), FRAAL2117 trehalose synthase (FC = 2.030) and FRAAL5902 glycogen branching enzyme (FC = 1.850) (supplementary data 2).

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288 3.2. Selection of genes potentially involved in the Frankia sporulation by comparative proteome 289 analysis

290 This approach was based on the hypotheses that proteins involved in Frankia sporangia 291 differentiation would be part of a core proteome shared between sporulating Frankia strains and 292 other phylogenetically close Actinobacteria able to differentiate sporangia, and that they would be 293 encoded by homologous genes (hypothesis 1), and would not have homologues in Actinobacteria 294 unable to sporulate (hypothesis 2).

295 Under these hypotheses, two different databases were constructed from the predicted 296 proteomes of Frankia and other actinobacterial strains selected for their ability to differentiate 297 sporangia (Table 1). The first database included only Frankia proteins (named "14_Frankia.db", 298 81,518 protein sequences). This database could be queried to identify core protein families in 299 Frankia. The second (named "actino sporange.db", 72,406 protein sequences) could be used to 300 identify proteins families shared between Frankia and sporangia-forming Actinobacteria. It 301 gathered the four Frankia predicted proteomes annotated as complete and six other sporangia-

302 forming actinobacterial predicted proteomes outside genus Frankia. For each database, homologous protein families were delineated using SILIX program: a total of 1,037 and 1,641 protein families were obtained for the "actino_sporange.db" and the "14_Frankia.db" databases, respectively.

These 1,037 and 1,641 protein families reflected the core proteome shared between Frankia 307 closely related sporangia-forming Actinobacteria proteomes, and between Frankia proteomes, 308 respectively. They were compared to a third proteomic database (named "actino non spor.db") gathering the protein sequences of seven Actinobacteria unable to sporulate (Table 1). Sequence similarity-based comparisons allowed identifying 39 and 221 protein families from "actino_sporange.db" and "14_Frankia.db" databases, respectively, without homologues in the 312 "actino non spor.db" database and were considered as strong candidates potentially involved in Frankia sporulation (supplementary data 3). Among them, 25 and 139 (from "actino_sporange.db" 314 and "14 Frankia.db" databases, respectively) presented functional annotations in ACN14a or CcI3 Frankia genomes (not "hypothetical proteins").

Fourteen protein families with functional annotations were found in common from both "actino_sporange.db" and "14_Frankia.db" databases (Table 3). Two of them included sequences 318 with functional annotations undoubtedly related to bacterial sporulation. The protein family #7 contained sequences annotated "Sporulation and cell division protein SsgA" (e.g. FRAAL2127, FRAAL4594), with SsgA-like proteins (SALPs) previously described to control spore differentiation in S. coelicolor [15]. The protein family #8 included "Stage 0 sporulation protein YaaT" annotated proteins, YaaT protein being involved in the phosphorelay cascade allowing the activation of the 323 DNA binding protein regulator Spo0A in B. subtilis [37]. It is worth noting that these sequences 324 were annotated "hypothetical protein" in all Frankia proteomes used in this study and could only be 325 identified as YaaT protein sequences based on Actinoplanes and Streptosporangium protein annotations. The other 12 groups of homologous proteins corresponded to enzyme categories with very broad cell functions (e.g. decarboxylase, phosphatase, phosphotransacetylase, metallophosphoesterase ...) and without evident or specific involvement in sporulation.

3.3. Common genes identified from both comparative proteome and proteogenomic analyses

331 Six proteins present in Frankia ACN14a proteome were found to be potentially involved in sporulation based on both comparative genomic and proteogenomic approaches (Table 4). Among them, 3 proteins were 1.7 to 4.6 times overabundant in spores compared to hyphae, including: FRAAL1006 3-polyprenyl-4-hydroxybenzoate decarboxylase (UbiD), FRAAL6577 pyrophosphate-energized proton pump (H+-PPase) and FRAAL6045 hypothetical protein. Three genes were 1.8 to 4.6 times under-expressed in spores: FRAAL2019 glycyl-tRNA synthetase, FRAAL3803 putative sulfotransferase and FRAAL1171 putative secreted protein phosphodiesterase domain.

3.4. Additional analyses of Frankia alni ACN14a gene content using "Gene Phyloprofile" functionality

341 In the present study, two alternative methods were performed to identify genes potentially 342 involved in Frankia sporulation (*i.e.* well distributed in Frankia and other sporulating actinobacterial 343 strains and absent in non-sporulating Actinobacteria). In parallel to the *in-silico* analyses based on proteome comparisons, additional and rapid analyses (using "Gene phyloprofile" functionality of 345 the MicroScope Platform) were also conducted based this time on Frankia alni ACN14a gene 346 contents, with respect to the genomes of other sporangia-forming (including Frankia strains EuI1c, CcI3, QA3, EUN1f, EAN1pec and CN3, 4 Actinoplanes strains, one Geodermatophilus and one Streptosporangium strains) and non-sporulating Actinobacteria (Table 1).

The results showed that 57 genes in Frankia ACN14 sequenced genome (Table 5) had homologues in the 12 genomes of other sporangia-forming actinobacterial (Table 1), but not in the genomes of seven actinobacterial strains unable to sporulate. Among them, we found four genes that were also recovered following our previous comparative genomic analyses: FRAAL3803 annotated "putative sulfotransferase", FRAAL5155 annotated "peptidase S51-dipeptidase E", FRAAL6080 annotated "putative Phosphotransacetylase" and FRAAL6577 annotated "pyrophosphate-energized proton pump (H+-PPase)". We also noticed the presence of FRAAL5240 annotated "transcriptional regulator BldD", which was described as a master regulator able, when bound to tetrameric cyclic-di-GMP, to repress the transcription of genes involved in Streptomyces sporulation [2, 38].

It's worth to note that when the genome of S. coelicolor A3 strain was included in the phyloprofile analysis as the most studied model of sporulating Actinobacteria, 10 genes among the 57 were not recovered (Table 5), suggesting that the differentiation of sporangia in Frankia, Actinoplanes and Geodermatophilus strains would involve slightly different genetic mechanisms from those controlling production of spores in Streptomyces.

365 3.5. Further investigation of the FRAAL6577 pyrophosphate-energized proton pump (H⁺-PPase) as a potentially Frankia sporulation involved protein

367 One protein systematically emerged as a strong candidate for Frankia sporulation from all in-vivo and in-silico performed analyses (proteogenomics, comparative genomics and phyloprofile 369 analyses): the FRAAL6577 pyrophosphate-energized proton pump (H⁺-PPase).

We systematically examined the genomic environment of the candidate genes, looking in particular for syntons or groups of neighbouring genes co-inherited across large evolutionary distances that presumably are involved in a related function. In particular, FRAAL6577 forms a synton comprising among others a putative septum site determining protein (FRAAL6565) and a DNA topoisomerase I (FRAAL6579). The protein encoded by FRAL6577 gene is downregulated 375 when ACN14a Frankia strain is in symbiosis with actinorhizal host plant (FC=0.04), while those of the other ones are not modified [29], and downregulated in early steps of contact after 64h (FC=0.28; unpublished), while the other ones are not significantly modified.

3.6. Secondary metabolite gene clusters and Frankia sporulation

Twenty-seven secondary metabolite clusters, encompassing 1,000 genes, have been predicted 381 in the Frankia ACN14a genome. None of these genes were found in the 14 protein families of interest identified through the comparative proteome analysis (Table 3). In contrast, 50 proteins (11.6%) belonging to predicted secondary metabolites clusters were found among the 432 upregulated proteins in spores, and 119 (12.5%) among the 953 upregulated proteins in hyphae (supplementary data 4). Furthermore, some of the most upregulated proteins in both spores and hyphae were found related to secondary metabolite biosynthesis, such as the third and fourth most upregulated proteins in spores FRAAL2348 (hypothetical protein) and FRAAL2570 (Putative PadR

family transcriptional regulator), respectively, or the first and the third most upregulated proteins in hyphae, FRAAL1858 (aminopeptidase N) and FRAAL 6507 (Terpene cyclase), respectively.

390 Of all the 27 secondary metabolite clusters predicted in Frankia ACN14a genome, only cluster #17, involved in bacteriocin biosynthesis, was not represented among upregulated proteins in spores or hyphae. Proteins included in the 26 other clusters were found overdetected in spores or hyphae. The most represented secondary metabolite clusters were involved in the biosynthesis of terpene (41% of the specified proteins were overdetected in spores or hyphae): cluster #27, with 4 and 3 upregulated proteins in spores and hyphae, respectively, and cluster #4, with 1 and 8 upregulated proteins in spores and hyphae, respectively.

Proteins related to Type I Polyketide synthase (t1pks) biosynthesis (cluster #13) were seen only in spores, while proteins involved in other terpene biosynthesis (secondary metabolite clusters #3 and #10), t1pks (secondary metabolite clusters #1 and #14), lantipeptide (secondary metabolite cluster #12) and other pks (secondary metabolite clusters #6 and #15) were found only in hyphae.

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4. Discussion

Sporulation is a microbial adaptive trait that is widespread in Actinobacteria, that live for the most part in soils where they are subject to cycles of desiccation and wetness, and abundance and scarcity of nutrients. Different patterns and molecular mechanisms of sporulation are distributed among the various Actinobacteria genera [1], revealing a wide diversity among this phylum. Although sporulation morphogenesis and genetics have been largely investigated in Streptomyces, sporulation in other filamentous Actinobacteria remained overlooked, even though some of them 410 show original ability to sporulate in unusual environmental contexts, such as Frankia strains [39]. In 411 the case of Frankia, studies on sporulation mainly aimed at understanding environmental factors influencing in-vitro sporulation, spore germination, and spore ability to infect actinorhizal plants [25, 413 26]. But the molecular mechanisms and genetic determinants controlling Frankia sporulation remain largely misunderstood, in large part due to the lack of a genetic transformation system [40]. In the present study, we investigated this issue by coupling comparative genomic and proteogenomic approaches.

4.1. Hypothetical pattern of Frankia sporulation early stages

419 Frankia hyphae analysed through proteogenomics were recovered from 10-days old cultures at 420 the beginning of the stationary phase. This time point just before sporulation onset (the absence of spores in cultures was confirmed under the microscope before analyses) was chosen in order to understand which mechanisms could play during the slowing down of vegetative growth, eventually followed by the initiation of sporogenic structure formation.

A large number of proteins involved in cell division and glucose and glutamine metabolisms 425 were more abundant in hyphae compared to spores, suggesting that even at the beginning of the stationary phase, hyphae would still be growing and metabolically active. However, several 427 observations also suggested that cells would be getting ready to sporulate. Regarding glucose 428 metabolism, glycogen deposition has previously been detected in several Streptomyces spp. (S. antibioticus, S. fluorescens, S. griseus and S. viridochromogenes: [41], and S. venezuelae: [42]), localized in two particular cell-types: (i) in the hyphal region from which aerial branches emerge (up to 20% of total cellular dry weight, [41] and (ii) in the tips of aerial hyphae undergoing sporulation. More precisely, sections of S. coelicolor aerial hyphae including the junction between sporulating and non-sporulating parts showed that glycogen was present only in the sporulating parts [43]. The abundance of proteins involved in glycogen-metabolism in hyphae suggests that glycogen 435 accumulation and degradation play an important part in morphological differentiation of Frankia 436 spores as previously observed for Streptomyces. Second, several proteins involved in oxidative stress response (e.g. rubrerythrin, the second most overabundant protein in hyphae, and glutathione peroxidase) or associated to protease activities (e.g. FRAAL1858 "aminopeptidase" or FRAAL5033 "serine protease") were more abundant in hyphae. Genes with peptidase-related 440 annotation were also highlighted in Frankia proteomes as potentially involved in sporulation, based on comparative genomic analyses of sporulating and non-sporulating Actinobacteria (e.g. FRAAL5155 "peptidase S51-dipeptidase E" corresponding to the protein family #16). All these proteins related to oxidative stress and protease activities recall the lytic process and the 444 extracellular protease cascade linked to starvation that allow Streptomyces cells to acquire the 445 building blocks needed to erect aerial hyphae [1, 2]. In Frankia strains, oxidative stress response

and protease activities occurring in the dying zones of the hyphal network could trigger, similarly to 447 Streptomyces, the sporogenic process, although aerial hyphae have never been observed in 448 Frankia. It is worth to note that the rodlin and chaplin determinants associated in Streptomyces 449 with the formation of aerial hyphae have not been found in the Frankia genome. However, the cellulose synthase also associated with aerial hyphae formation [44] has been identified in the Frankia alni genome and upregulated by plants exudates [45] but it is not overabundant in the 452 fractions. Up to now, only few studies have been focused on Frankia sporulation [25, 26], none of them have been focussed on the early stages of this process and the sporogenic structures still need to be investigated.

Interestingly, a conserved gene cluster (FRAAL2190-2212) comprising murEFXCDG-ftsIWZ-sepF-divIVA-ispA that has 8 proteins identified, all of which overabundant in hyphae. This is confirmatory for the proteogenomic approach since all these determinants are important for polar growth of hyphal tips, which is a hallmark of hyphae [46]. Two distant homologues of polar growth determinants known in Streptomyces (Scy, FilP) have also been identified as more abundant in hyphae than in spores (Scy, FRAAL3687; FilP, FRAAL5914 - supplementary data 2). Conversely, the mreBCD region associated with lateral wall formation in rod-shaped bacteria but with sporulation in Streptomyces [47] was found to be overabundant in spores (FRAAL1917) as well as several neighbouring genes that form a highly conserved synton in sporulating actinobacteria (FRAAL1910-1921).

In parallel to the proteomic analyses of Frankia spores and hyphae, in-silico comparisons of Frankia proteomes and genomes with sporulating and non-sporulating Actinobacteria data allowed 467 us to highlight several genes potentially involved in the early stages of Frankia sporangia differentiation. For instance, phyloprofile analyses revealed the presence of the transcriptional 469 regulator BldD in Frankia genomes. This regulator was described in Streptomyces as a master regulator able, when bound to tetrameric cyclic-di-GMP, to repress the transcription of genes for 471 many key developmental regulatory proteins, including early stage sporulation genes whiB, whiG, 472 ssgA and ssgB that were also present in Frankia genomes [2, 48, 49]. In Streptomyces, BldD-cyclic di‑GMP therefore functions as a 'brake' to prevent sporulation. This regulator was also described as involved in sporangia differentiation in Actinoplanes: a bldD mutant formed morphologically abnormal sporangia and earlier than in the wild type (supporting the role of BldD 476 as a repressor) [50]. In our experiments, BldD was not detected in Frankia spores or hyphae 477 through proteomic analyses (it could be absent in hyphae at the beginning of the stationary phase and in mature spores). Another gene also highlighted as potentially involved in early stages of 479 Frankia sporangia differentiation was the gene encoded "sporulation and cell division SsgA protein" (FRAAL2127 and FRAAL4594). SsgA-like proteins (SALPs) were largely described in Streptomyces to control formation of sporulation septa, chromosome segregation and spore maturation processes [8, 15]. Since the presence of several ssgA genes was previously described 483 in F. alni ACN14a genome [27, 51], its detection was expected in our study, proving the relevance of both comparative genomic and proteogenomic approaches.

4.2. Potential role of phosphorelay in Frankia sporulation

487 One of the main results in this study is the potential role of a Frankia gene annotated 488 "pyrophosphate-energized proton pump" (H⁺-PPase, FRAAL6577, gene name hppa), highlighted 489 by both comparative genomic and proteomic analyses. H⁺-PPase has been described in 490 Streptomyces to convert energy from pyrophosphate hydrolysis into active H+ transport across the plasma membrane [52]. The energy of phosphate hydrolysis used as a driving force for proton 492 movement across cell membrane could play an important role in Frankia sporulation. In addition to FRAAL6577, the most abundant protein in spores compared to hyphae was described as a putative phytase (FRAAL1518, FC = 30.167), a subgroup of phosphatases that catalyse the hydrolysis of phytate through a series of myo-inositol phosphate intermediates. In parallel, kinase-and phosphate transporter- related proteins were significantly overdetected in spores compared to hyphae, such as FRAAL0753 "serine/threonine kinase" (FC = 7.667) and FRAAL4942 "phosphate ABC transporter substrate-binding protein" (FC = 4.440). All these elements could indicate that 499 phosphorelay-like mechanisms could be involved in Frankia sporulation, as it happens in other sporulating bacteria. Indeed, entry into sporulation in Bacillus subtilis is governed by a phosphorelay in which phosphoryl groups from a histidine kinase are successively transferred via relay proteins to the response regulator Spo0A [53]. The presence of yaaT-like gene (FRAAL6582) in Frankia genome (absent in non-sporulating Actinobacteria), described as involved in the 504 phosphorelay cascade allowing the activation of Spo0A in B. subtilis [37], supports this hypothesis (although no homologue of spoA was found in Frankia genomes). Under this hypothesis, it is also interesting to point out that FRAAL6577 forms a synton comprising a putative septum site determining protein (FRAAL6565) and a DNA topoisomerase I (FRAAL6579), two types of proteins which could be involved in spore differentiation and whose regulation could be depending on FRAAL6577. This discovery calls for new proteomics experiments devoted to a comprehensive characterization of the phosphoproteome dynamics during sporulation, a study requiring enrichment of phosphopeptides and their precise quantitation.

4.3. Frankia mature spores: metabolic activity and secondary metabolites

514 Overabundant proteins in *Frankia* spores compared to hyphae were examined to understand 515 molecular mechanisms occurring in the later stages of Frankia sporulation (well after the septation of the sporogenic structures to form sporangia containing mature spores). It is worth to note that proteins categorized in COG-C "metabolism" were detected among the most overabundant 518 proteins in Frankia mature spores, suggesting that these spores were not totally dormant (although 519 less active than hyphae). This result is consistent with previous descriptions of Frankia spores exhibiting low levels of endogenous respiration at least ten-fold lower than the endogenous 521 respiration rate of vegetative cells [54].

A GntR family regulator was observed among the most overexpressed proteins in spores (FRAAL1728, FC = 11.571). GntR family regulator is a poorly characterized transcriptional 524 regulator. GntR-like whiH gene of S. coelicolor has been described to play a crucial role in the 525 septation of aerial hyphae during sporulation [55]. In Frankia alni ACN14a genome, the GntR family regulator was homologous to a FtsK/SpoIIIE-like protein from Bacillus involved in protein 527 secretion [56] and was found in a plasmid replication synton. This GntR family regulator, which is 528 overabundant in spores, could play in Frankia an important role, either (i) in mature spore metabolism, although its exact function would need to be investigated, or (ii) in earlier stages of sporangia differentiation (for instance to permit protein provision to spore wall) and then it would persist in mature spores for specific reasons that should be investigated.

In many Actinobacteria, among them Streptomyces, antibiotics and a wide range of other secondary metabolites can be produced alongside spore production. Some of the regulators of morphological differentiation also affect secondary metabolite production, indicating regulatory links between these processes [10, 11]. In this study, we did not observe clear evidence of a higher involvement of secondary metabolites in Frankia spores or hyphae (11.6% of upregulated proteins in spores belonged to predicted secondary metabolites clusters, against 12.5% in hyphae). However, few elements caught our attention. For instance, the presence of tyrosinase as the second most overdetected protein in spores (FRAAL0531, FC = 20.333) was quite unexpected. 540 Indeed, in Streptomyces, tyrosinase is involved in the biosynthesis of melanin by transforming the tyrosine into L-DOPA (3, 4-dihydroxy phenyl-L-alanine), which is further converted into dopachrome and spontaneously oxidized to indole-5, 6-quinone. The later polymerizes spontaneously into DOPA-melanin, a dark brown pigment [57] thought to protect against UV and 544 free radicals [58]. No black pigment in Frankia alni ACN14a has ever been reported in-vitro, 545 suggesting no melanin is present. In Frankia spores, tyrosinase could therefore be involved in other processes such as auxin transformation [59] or reactive quinone derivatives synthesis [60, 61].

4.4. Conclusions

The aim of the present study was to set up a comprehensive and consistent database of sporulation-associated determinants. It is important to keep in mind that the link between candidate 552 genes and proteins discussed here and their effective role in Frankia sporulation has to be confirmed using functional studies, for instance through gene complementation and tracking their expression during sporulation through RT-qPCR, as functional shifts may have occurred during 555 Actinobacteria diversification. Indeed, in Streptomyces, the spore production process is initiated by the production of aerial hyphae with a hardened tip by the action of a cellulose-like synthase [44] and the synthesis of a lipid-rich envelope comprising an aminated hopanoid to render the spores mildly hydrophobic and permit them to float [62]. Some of these processes linked to sporulation in 559 Streptomyces appear to have been diverted in other lineages such as in Frankia where the cellulose synthase is upregulated in response to contact and the hopanoid machinery is geared to formation of nitrogen-fixing vesicles. More precisely, the role of the hopanoid layers surrounding Frankia vesicles is to provide a barrier to oxygen diffusion that would otherwise destroy the oxygen-labile nitrogenase [63]. It is thus quite strikingly different from its role in Streptomyces. Similar molecular determinants can therefore be found in different actinobacterial lineages, but the fulfilled functions of these genes may have been diverted from their initial role.

566 It might also be interesting to complete this study with metabolic analyses of Frankia spores and hyphae (e.g. primary and secondary metabolic extractions followed by HPLC and/or GC analyses), allowing for instance to detect differences in secondary metabolite contents between both types of cells. Additional shotgun proteomics and phosphoproteomics analyses performed at different 570 stages of Frankia development (e.g. including hyphae recovered at stationary phase or young 571 spores) could also provide a better understanding of molecular mechanisms involved in Frankia sporulation at different intermediate stages.

573 Finally, once the role in Frankia sporulation of the different proteins highlighted in this study will be better understood, it would be interesting to further investigate their expression in a 575 symbiotic context, when Frankia sporulation occurs inside host plant cells. It would help to 576 elucidate what molecular factors could suppress the sporulation capacity of Sp- Frankia strains in-577 planta and allow in Sp+ strains the expression of sporulation inside nodules.

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Table 1. List of Frankia and other Actinobacteria predicted proteomes used in this study. **Table 1. List of Frankia and other Actinobacteria predicted proteomes used in this study.**

Table 2. List of the 30 most up- and down-regulated proteins in Frankia alni ACN14a spores (with the fold change FC between spores and Table 2. List of the 30 most up- and down-regulated proteins in *Frankia alni* ACN14a spores (with the fold change FC between spores and
hyphae)

Table 4. Common genes identified from both comparative genomic and proteogenomic analyses **Table 4. Common genes identified from both comparative genomic and proteogenomic analyses**

Table 5. Analyses of Frankia alni ACN14a gene content using "Gene Phyloprofile" functionality. Table 5. Analyses of Frankia alni ACN14a gene content using "Gene Phyloprofile" functionality.

Frankia alni ACN14a genes with (i) homologs in the 12 genomes of other sporangia-forming actinobacterial (including *Frankia* strains Eul1c, Ccl3, QA3, EUN1f, EAN1pec
and CN3, 4 *Actinoplanes* strains, one *Geodermatophi* Frankia alni ACN14a genes with (i) homologs in the 12 genomes of other sporangia-forming actinobacterial (including Frankia strains EuI1c, CcI3, QA3, EUN1f, EAN1pec and CN3, 4 Actains, one Geodermatophilus and one Streptosporangium strains, given in Table 1 and in Table 1) and in the genomes of 7 actinobacterial strains unable of sporulation (Table1). FRAAL highlighted in gray were not recovered when genome of Streptomyces coelicolor A3 strain was included in
the phyloprofile analysis among sporulating strains (as actinobacterial strains unable of sporulation (Table1). FRAAL highlighted in gray were not recovered when genome of Streptomyces coelicolor A3 strain was included in the phyloprofile analysis among sporulating strains (as the most studied model of sporulating actinobacteria). FRAAL shown in bold were also highlighted in our comparative genomic analyses previously described (Table 3).

Function Class (COG)