

1 **Role of DNA Methylation in Persister Formation in Uropathogenic *E. coli***

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17 **Key words:** Persister, DNA adenine methylation, Methylome, Transcriptome, Urinary tract
18 infection

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21 Abstract

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23 Uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* (UPEC) persister bacteria play crucial roles in clinical
 24 treatment failure and relapse. DNA methylation is known to regulate gene expression in
 25 bacteria, but its role in persister formation has not been investigated. Here, we created
 26 adenine methylation deletion mutant (Δdam) and cytosine methylation mutant (Δdcm) from
 27 UPEC strain UTI89 and found that the Δdam mutant but not Δdcm mutant had significant
 28 defect in persister formation during exposure to various antibiotics (gentamicin,
 29 fluoroquinolones and cephalosporin) and stresses (acid pH and hyperosmosis), and that
 30 complementation of the dam mutant restored its persister defect phenotype. PacBio
 31 sequencing of epigenetic genomewide methylation signature and RNA sequencing of the
 32 Δdam mutant were performed to define, for the first time, the role of adenine methylation in
 33 persister formation. Methylome data analysis showed that 99.73% of m⁶A modifications on
 34 GATC were demethylated in the Δdam mutant, and demethylation nucleotide site related
 35 genes suggested an overwhelming effect on transcription and metabolic processes.
 36 Transcriptome analysis of the Δdam mutant in comparison to wild type showed that flagella
 37 biosynthesis, galactitol transport/utilization, and signaling related genes were upregulated
 38 while pilus, fimbriae, virulence, glycerol, nitrogen metabolism pathways and transcriptional
 39 regulators were downregulated. The comparative COG analysis of methylome and
 40 transcriptome enriched pathways identified translation, ribosomal structure and biogenesis,
 41 and cell motility were upregulated, whereas DNA repair, secondary metabolite biosynthesis
 42 and diverse transport systems, some of which are known to be involved in persister formation,
 43 were downregulated in the Δdam mutant. These findings provide new insights about the
 44 molecular basis of how DNA adenine methylation may be involved in persister formation and
 45 offer novel therapeutic targets for combating persister bacteria.

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47 Introduction

48

49 Urinary tract infections (UTIs) are among the most common infectious diseases worldwide.
 50 UTIs often result in recurrent UTI (RUTI) that last weeks or months in patients, and almost
 51 half of all women will experience a UTI in their lifetime¹. The most common causative agent
 52 of UTIs is uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* (UPEC)². The long-term exposure or frequent
 53 retreatments can result in development of antibiotic resistance³. Type 1 pilus mediated
 54 UPEC entry into bladder epithelial cells and invasive adhesins exist in virtually all UPEC
 55 isolates⁴. Once internalized in bladder epithelial cells, the bacteria can persist for a long time
 56 in a quiescent state, and this process enables the persistent bacteria, also called intracellular
 57 bacterial community (IBC) to escape host cell elimination and resurge from the reservoirs.
 58 Some studies estimated that 50-78% recurrent strains are genetically identical to the original
 59 strains, indicate the persistence of the original strain^{5 6 7}. The RUTI cases were defined as
 60 “persistence” of the same strain as the initial strain caused the infection⁸.

61

62 “Persisters”, which were discovered more than 70 years ago ⁹, are a subpopulation of
 63 dormant and metabolically quiescent bacteria that are tolerant to antibiotics and stresses.
 64 UPEC bacteria can transform into persisters, which can exhibit tolerance to not only
 65 antibiotics but also host cell defenses ¹⁰. Persistence or tolerance is due to epigenetic changes
 66 and differs from genetic antibiotic resistance. Antibiotic tolerance can facilitate subsequent
 67 development of antibiotic resistance ^{11 12}. In addition, the presence of persister bacteria is an
 68 important cause of relapse and complicated UTIs clinically ¹⁰. Typically, IBCs and biofilm
 69 structures which are embedded in self-secreted extracellular matrix (ECM) containing
 70 dormant persister cells can act as reservoirs for persistent infections and relapse once
 71 antibiotic stress is removed ¹³ and can pose significant challenges for clinical treatment ¹⁰.

72

73 Persisters are phenotypic variants that are formed through epigenetic changes that involve
 74 multiple redundant pathways to survive lethal antibiotic stress. These include toxin-antitoxin
 75 (TA) modules, stringent response (ppGpp) ^{14, 15}, DNA repair, metabolism ¹⁶, energy
 76 production, protein degradation pathway (trans-translation), signaling pathways, antioxidant
 77 system, and efflux and transporters ^{17 18}. To better understand persister cells development and
 78 functioning, classical genetic processes is not sufficient, the epigenetic controlling gene
 79 expression is urgently required. The primary epigenetic-modification system is made of a
 80 restriction endonuclease and DNA adenine or cytosine methyltransferase. In *E. coli*, DNA
 81 cytosine methylase (Dcm, encoded by *dcm*) is not known to be involved in gene regulatory
 82 control whereas DNA adenine methylase (Dam, encoded by *dam*) plays an essential role in
 83 regulating epigenetic circuits as the orphan methylase ¹⁹. Dam methylates adenine of
 84 5'-GATC-3' motif in newly synthesized DNA to m⁶A (N⁶-DNA adenine methylation) ²⁰,
 85 which can regulate various important biological processes, including transcriptional control,
 86 mismatch repair, chromosome replication and host-pathogen interactions ^{19, 21}. In *E. coli* and
 87 its relatives, lack of Dam methylation causes pleiotropic defects, indicating that the multiple
 88 DNA-protein interactions are under GATC methylation control ^{22 23}. DNA methylation has
 89 been found to be required in biofilm production as absence of Dam in *S. enteritidis* affected
 90 the ability to form biofilm on polystyrene surfaces ^{24 25 26}. In addition, it has been reported
 91 that a tautomerizing demethylation could disrupt the biofilm formation in anoxic conditions
 92 in *P. aeruginosa* ²⁷. Furthermore, a biphasic epigenetic switch- N(6)-adenine
 93 DNA-methyltransferase (ModA) in *Haemophilus influenzae* was found to control biofilm
 94 formation, where Dam ON formed more robust biofilms than Dam OFF ²⁸. Persister cells are
 95 known to contribute to the antibiotic tolerance observed in biofilms ²⁹. However, the role of
 96 *de novo* DNA methylation in persister formation is unknown. In this study, we hypothesized
 97 that epigenetic modification by DNA methylation may affect the persister phenotype
 98 generation.

99

100 To address the role of DNA methylation in persister formation, we constructed Δdam mutant
 101 and Δdcm mutant in uropathogenic *E. coli* strain UTI89 and found that, compared with the
 102 parent strain, the Δdam mutant but not had significant defect in persister formation. We also

performed high-resolution DNA methylation analysis of the entire genome (methylome) as well as transcriptome analysis of the *Adam* mutant in comparison with the parent strain UTI89. Methylome analysis showed numerous genomic positions were demethylated in the *Adam* mutant. Genome-wide clusters of orthologous gene (COG) distribution analysis indicated predicted genes are involved in transcription and metabolic pathways. Transcriptome analysis revealed that galactose/propanoate metabolism and flagellar assembly were preferentially overexpressed, whereas the transcription regulator, sugar phosphotransferase systems (PTS) and secretion-related pathways were down-regulated in the *Adam* mutant. The COG comparison revealed key pathways enriched in transcriptional control, cell motility, DNA repair process and secondary metabolite transport to be involved in Dam-mediated persister formation. Together, our findings define an important role for DNA methylation in persister formation in *E. coli*.

Material and Methods

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

The bacterial strains used in this study were UPEC strain UTI89 and its derivatives and were routinely cultured in Luria-Bertani (LB) broth at 37°C with shaking (200 rpm) or on LB agar after incubation overnight. Bacterial stock stored at -80°C was transferred into fresh LB medium and grown overnight before use. Ampicillin (Amp^R), chloramphenicol (Cm^R) and tetracycline-resistant (Tet^R) transformants were selected on LB agar plates containing the respective antibiotic at the concentration of 100, 25 and 10 µg/ml. Strains, plasmids and primers used in this study are listed in Supplementary Table 1.

Construction of *E. coli* UTI89 *dam* knockout mutant and its complemented strains

Disruption of *dam* in the *E. coli* chromosome was achieved by λ-red recombination system as previously described^{30 31}. Primers designed for the purpose are listed in Supplementary Table 1. Briefly, knockout-DNA fragments were generated by using primers KO-dam-F/R with 50nt extensions that are homologous to regions adjacent to the *dam* gene from UTI89 and template chloramphenicol resistant cassette (cat) from plasmid pKD3, which was flanked by FRT (flippase [FLP] recognition target) sites. The above PCR product was electroporated into the competent UTI89 (*dam*+) cells contained pKD46 plasmid carrying λ-red recombinase. The transformants on LB (Cm^R) plates were selected and verified by primers V-dam-F/R. For complementation experiments, the *dam* gene operon, including its natural promoter and terminal regions, was cloned into plasmid pBR322. The new constructs along with the empty vector control pBR322 were transformed into the *dam* mutant competent cells by electroporation³². The complemented strain and plasmid insertions were confirmed by PCR and DNA sequencing. Meanwhile, we also constructed the *dcm* knockout mutant in the UTI89 to investigate correlation between persister formation under various antibiotic stresses.

Persister assay

Persister assay was performed by determining the bacterial survival as colony-forming units (CFUs) per ml after antibiotic exposure as previously described³³. Stationary phase cultures (10h) were exposed to various antibiotics including 40 µg/ml gentamicin, 10 µg/ml levofloxacin, 10 µg/ml ciprofloxacin, 96 µg/ml cefalexin 8 µg/ml norfloxacin and 200 µg/ml ampicillin for various times. The initial cell number was determined by sampling 10 µl and serially dilution in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), washing before plating on LB agar. The CFU counts were measured after overnight incubation at 37°C.

Susceptibility to various stresses

For heat shock, bacterial cells were placed in a water bath at 52°C for 1.5h. For acid stress (pH 3.0) and hyperosmosis (NaCl, 4M), bacterial cultures were washed twice with acid or hyperosmotic LB medium and resuspended in the same volume of corresponding medium. Aliquots of exponential and stationary phase cultures were treated with various stresses and were incubated at 37°C at different time points and washed before plating on LB plates in the absence of antibiotics to measure CFU count.

PacBio SMRT sequencing and DNA methylation analysis

Bacterial DNA methylation analysis was performed by SMRT (Single molecule, real-time, PacBio) and high throughput DNA *de novo* sequencing. Detection of base modification and methylated motif was conducted by employing the SMRT analysis portal following genome assembly. Briefly, genomic DNA was extracted from stationary phase culture of *E. coli* UTI89 and *dam* mutant, sequencing libraries and cluster were established, primer was annealed and samples were sequenced on the PacBio RS II System as previously described³⁴. The obtained sequence raw data sets were analyzed to reveal the genome-wide base modification and the identification of m⁶A, m⁴C, and m⁵C of corresponding methylation (recognition) motifs. SMRT sequencing raw reads of low quality were filtered and the DNA fragment assembly was conducted. Reads were processed and mapped using BLAST mapper and the Pacific Biosciences SMRT Analysis pipeline using the standard mapping protocol. Reads from the strains were mapped to UTI89 genome reference sequence. The pulse width and inter pulse duration (IPD) ratio for each base were measured, which is arising when the DNA polymerase copies past the modification³⁵, and modification for each base was determined using an *in-silico* control. Sequence motif cluster analysis was done with a cutoff of -10log(*p*-value) score > 30 (*P* value < 0.001).

RNA sequencing and DEGs analysis

Each of the strains used for RNA samples for three replicates was grown for 10h in LB medium, and then cell pellets were collected by centrifugation at 12,000 rpm (4°C) to discard

the supernatant. Total RNA was extracted using bacteria RNA kit (Omega Bio-tek, USA) according to manufacturer's protocol. The RNA concentration was then determined using a Nanodrop 2000 machine and RNA quality was tested by visualization on agarose gels. Qualified total RNA was further purified and enriched. Following rRNA removal, fragmentation, synthesis of the second strand, adenylation of 3' ends, adapter ligation, and amplification were performed before sequencing using an Illumina HiSeq 2500 (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA). Reads were assessed and quantified before aligning to a reference genome (NCBI accession no. NC_007946.1) of *E. coli* UTI89. For the statistical analysis, using two criteria: $|\log_2(\text{Fold Change})| > 2$ and $\text{FDR} < 0.01$ as the cut-off values for screening significant differently expressed genes (DEGs). DEGs was performed using an EdgeR package in the R statistical environment, P values were adjusted for multiple testing with the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure as a false discovery rate (FDR) value³⁶.

COG analysis

The predicted genes (corresponding to demethylated nucleotide sites) were derived from methylome and transcriptome in the *Adam* compared to parent strain UTI89. COG categories and protein functional annotations for common DEGs were downloaded from the NCBI COG database³⁷. The amino acid sequences were aligned to the COG database as previously described³⁸. The COG IDs of all annotations were then classified based on their COG terms. Each pathway was matched to DEGs via in-house whole genome and transcripts.

KEGG and GO pathway enrichment analysis

Pathways information from the KEGG (Kyoto encyclopedia of genes and genomes) database and GO (gene ontology) were used to investigate the response of biological processes to *dam* deletion. The top 10 significant enrichment of KEGG and GO were identified in the R statistical environment³⁹. We selected the KEGG pathways with a P value < 0.05 and the GO pathways with $\text{FDR} < 0.05$ as significantly enriched. A GO biological processes concept network plot (cnetplot) within the pathways was constructed. The enrichment information was visualized by the following: for KEGG pathways, it depicts enrichment scores using P values with different color and gene count as bar height, for GO pathways, the cnetplot displayed most significant terms and the linkages of genes involved.

Comparative COG analysis of methylome and transcriptome of the *Adam* mutant

COG database is a popular tool for comparative genome annotation. To better understand DEGs related protein function on a transcriptomic level and allow tracing the effect of genomewide demethylation in *Adam*, the transcriptome COG IDs were assigned in accordance with the cellular roles of the respective up- and down-regulated genes. An FDR value < 0.05 is considered to be statistically significant. P values were adjusted for multiple

testing with the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure as a false discovery rate (FDR) value³⁶. Data preparation and statistical analysis were performed using R software (R Foundation for Statistical Computing) and GraphPad Prism software (GraphPad).

Results

dam deletion mutation impaired persister formation in *E. coli* UTI89

To study the role of DNA methylation in *E. coli* persister formation, we constructed *dam* and *dcm* knockout mutants (Δdam , Δdcm) from the parent strain UTI89 and examined if the mutants had any defect in persister formation under various antibiotic exposure and stress conditions. We first analyzed the tolerance to diverse antibiotics (ampicillin, gentamicin, levofloxacin, ciprofloxacin, norfloxacin, cefalexin). Our results showed that the Δdcm mutation had no apparent effect on persister formation compared with UTI89 (data not shown). In contrast, the Δdam mutant had significant defect in persister formation with various antibiotic or stress exposures. Specifically, we found that the Δdam mutant was more easily killed by various antibiotics such that deletion of *dam* resulted in a $\sim 10^2$ fold decrease in persister formation. Although the Δdam mutant was initially killed to the same extent as the parent strain, during prolonged exposure to antibiotics, the Δdam mutant had diminished ability to form persisters in stationary phase (cultured for 10 h, $\sim 10^9$ CFU/mL) (Figure 1A-F), except for ampicillin, which is known to affect growing bacteria but is unable to kill nongrowing bacteria⁴⁰.

Because persister formation was closely associated with cellular metabolic state and growth cycle, the age of bacterial culture could also affect the persister level⁴¹. Thus, we evaluated effect of both log phase and stationary phase on the Δdam mutant in response to different stresses. The effects of stress on the Δdam mutant were determined in the exponential phase bacteria (cultured for about 3h, $\sim 10^8$ CFU/mL) with the following stresses: hyperosmosis (4M NaCl, 2d), heat (52°C, 1.5h) and acid (pH 3.0, 3d). During the hyperosmosis and acid exposure, the Δdam mutant displayed a dramatic decrease in persister numbers compared with the parent strain UTI89, but no significant effect on sensitivity to the heat stress was seen (Figure 1G). When bacterial population was grown to stationary phase, non-growing bacteria were more tolerant to external stresses. Nevertheless, for stationary phase cultures, the Δdam mutant exhibited a similar defect in persister formation as shown by hypersensitivity to hyperosmosis (Figure 1H), as in exponential phase. In addition, complementation of the Δdam mutant restored the level of persisters to the wild-type level in antibiotic (levofloxacin) exposure assay, whereas the Δdam mutant transformed with empty vector remained susceptible as the Δdam mutant alone (Figure 1I).

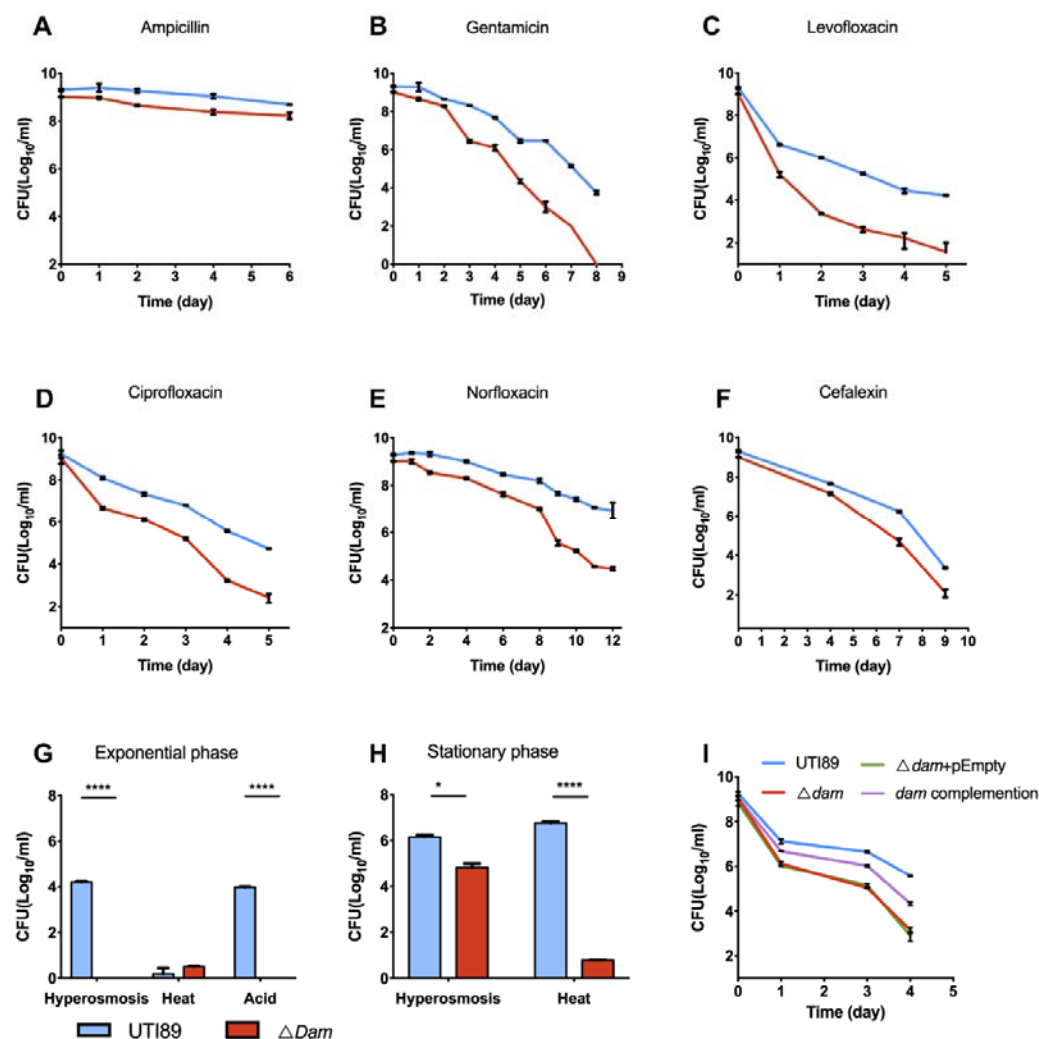


Figure 1. Persister formation of the Δdam mutant under various antibiotic treatment and multiple stresses. Persisters of stationary phase bacteria ($\sim 10^9$ CFU/mL) were determined daily after exposure to (A) ampicillin (200 μ g/ml), (B) gentamicin (40 μ g/ml), (C) levofloxacin (10 μ g/ml), (D) ciprofloxacin (10 μ g/ml), (E) norfloxacin (8 μ g/ml), (F) cefalexin (96 μ g/ml). (G). Susceptibility of exponential phase bacteria ($\sim 10^8$ CFU/mL) exposed to hyperosmosis (NaCl, 4 M) for 2d, heat (52°C) for 1.5 h, and acid (pH 3.0) for 3d. (H) Susceptibility of stationary phase bacteria ($\sim 10^9$ CFU/mL) exposed to hyperosmosis for 5d, heat (52°C) for 1.5 h. (I) Persister formation of the Δdam mutant, dam complementation strain, $\Delta dam+pEmpty$ vector and parent strain UTI89 under levofloxacin (7.5 μ g/ml) treatment.

Genome-wide identification of Dam methylation

To identify the Dam methylation sites and targeted modification type, PacBio SMRT sequencing of whole genome DNA *de novo* was performed to determine the modification signature in the *Δdam* mutant compared with the parent strain UTI89 using the PacBio RS II System. The reads from the strains were mapped to the UTI89 genome reference sequence. The methylated motif (m⁶A, m⁴C and base modification) detected and the identification of corresponding methylation are shown in Table 1 (the *Δdam* mutant) and Table 2 (wild type UTI89). The motif string with methylated DNA base-modification sequences was detected, fraction referred to the proportion of relevant motif in the whole genome, and the mean score was used to evaluate the strength of modified base signal directly. Bacterial methylome can provide a wealth of information on the methylation marks present in bacterial genomes. The most obvious difference was that a total of 41359 genomic positions were found to be methylated in the parent strain UTI89, which were all demethylated in the *Δdam* mutant (demethylated motif strings in the *Δdam* mutant were marked in red in Table 2). Based on the base modification profiles, these methylated bases were found to be predominately m⁶A modifications of GATC (99.73%). DNA adenine methylase methylates the adenine in GATC site, and the methylome analysis indicated that almost all the GATC motifs in the genomic DNA of the *Δdam* mutant were demethylated because of the *dam* deletion.

Table 1. DNA base modifications in the *Δdam* mutant.

Motif string ^a	Modification type	Fraction ^b	Mean score ^c
GAAGNNNNNNNGG	m ⁶ A	0.9987	280.62
CCANNNNNNNCTC	m ⁶ A	0.996	279.74
CCCGGRYV	m ⁴ C	0.4434	60.68
GHCCAGGV	modified base	0.3266	49.18
CCWGGANHD	m ⁴ C	0.2309	50.92

Table 2. DNA base modifications in wild type UTI89

Motif string ^a	Modification type	Fraction ^b	Mean score ^c
GAAGNNNNNNNTGG	m ⁶ A	0.9987	237.40
CCANNNNNNNCTTC	m ⁶ A	0.996	239.97
GATC	m⁶A	0.9973	253.76
CCCGGRY	m ⁴ C	0.4965	65.61
CCAGGAH	m⁴C	0.4229	52.58
TCCGGRYAD	modified base	0.3577	49.14
GHCCAGGR	modified base	0.3405	49.78
CCWGGVNYR	modified base	0.1721	46.88

^aN: A/T/C/G, R: A/G, Y: C/T, V: G/A/C, H: A/T/C, D: G/A/T, W: A/T

^bFraction: proportion of relevant motif in the whole genome.

^cMean score: to evaluate the strength of modified base signal directly.

291

292 The genomewide distribution of methylated bases in UTI89 and the *Adam* mutant was
 293 determined using PacBio SMRT sequencing technology. Clustering of methylated
 294 nucleotides based on sequence context identified 8 recognition motifs in the parent strain
 295 UTI89, which were m⁶A, m⁴C and modified base methylation (Figure 2A). In the *Adam*
 296 mutant, 5 recognition motifs were determined, however, 3 motifs matched to UTI89 were
 297 not detected, of which, the main methylation of recognition motif is GATC (m⁶A) (Figure 2B,
 298 red arrow in 2A) compared with UTI89. The results showed that adenine of GATC in the
 299 *Adam* mutant was demethylated. Different methylation types would affect the gene
 300 expression and relevant protein function. To better understand the global responses to
 301 demethylation, we performed a comparative analysis between the differentially methylated
 302 sites related genome-informatics in UTI89 and the *Adam* mutant (Figure 2C, D). Common
 303 methylation motif related genes were classified through protein functions determined from
 304 the COG database. Classification of predicted proteins is highlighted with different colors in
 305 the whole genome, of which, the circles are GC level, GC skew, RNA, positive-strand COG
 306 and negative-strand COG in UTI89 (Figure 2C) and the *Adam* mutant (Figure 2D) from
 307 inside to outside. Differentially methylated sites in *Adam* are shown in Figure 2E. COG
 308 analysis assigned 4296 genes to 22 functional categories (Table 3), with the top 10 including
 309 the following categories: general function prediction only (R, 10.59%), carbohydrate
 310 transport and metabolism (G, 9.71%), function unknown (S, 8.99%), amino acid transport
 311 and metabolism (E, 8.38%), transcription (K, 7.36%), energy production and conversion (C,
 312 6.98%), cell wall/membrane/envelope biogenesis (M, 6.03%), inorganic ion transport and
 313 metabolism (P, 5.66%), and ribosomal structure and biogenesis (J, 4.38%). COG analysis of
 314 the relevant gene clusters suggested the overwhelming effects caused by defects in
 315 methylation of GATC motifs on the genome-wide transcription involved in diverse cellular
 316 functions such as metabolism, transcription, translation, DNA repair, energy production,
 317 signal transduction, cell motility, and transport pathways (Table 3).

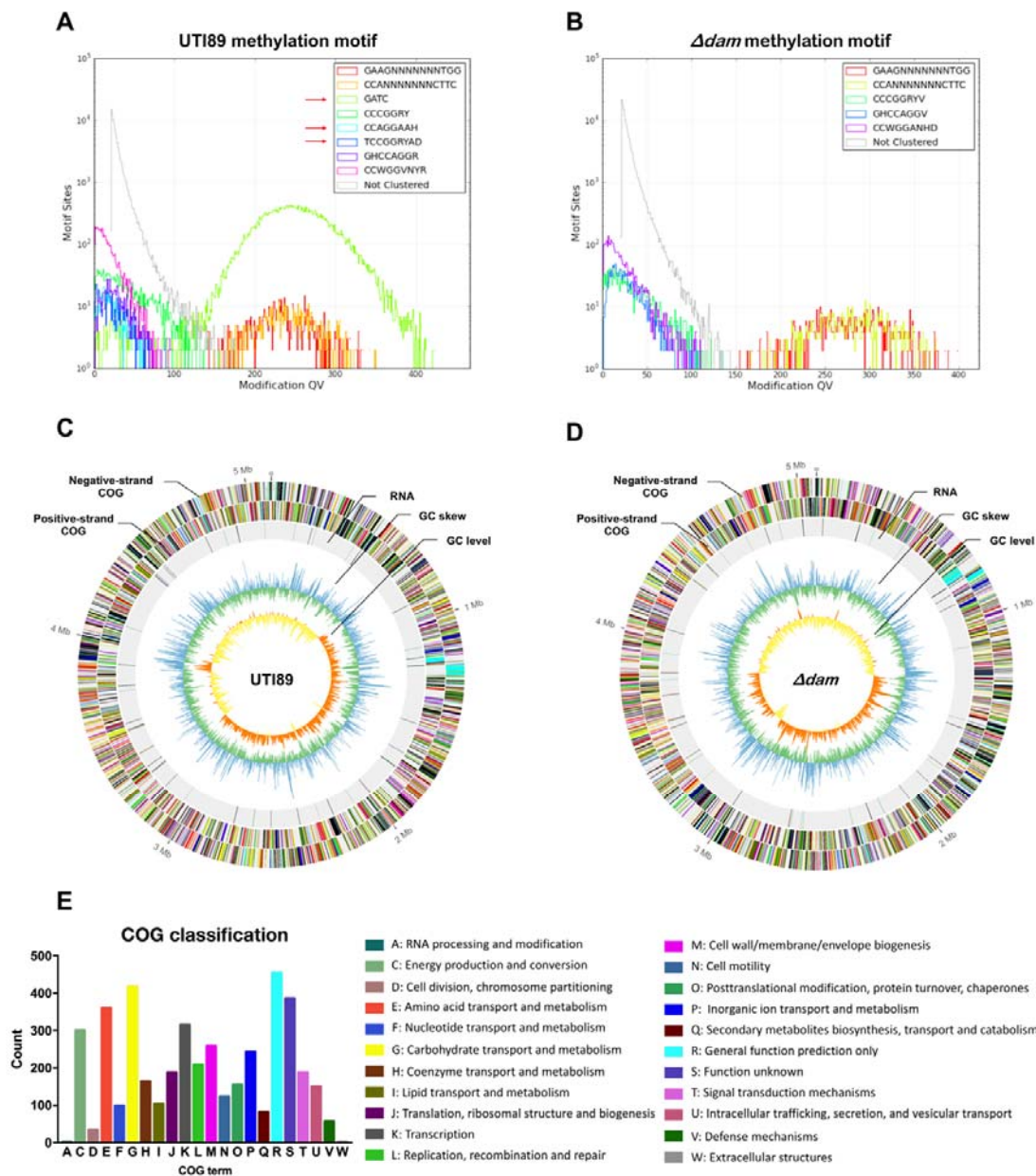


Figure 2. Comparison of UTI89 and *Adam* methylome. (A) The methylation patterns and corresponding motifs detected in UTI89. (B) The methylation patterns and corresponding motifs detected in *Adam*. (C) Circle map displaying the distribution of methylated bases in UTI89 chromosome, including RNA, GC characters and COG classification of detected methylation-site associated genes. (D) Circle map displaying the distribution of methylated bases in *Adam* chromosome, including RNA, GC characters and COG classification of detected methylation-site associated genes. Tick marks display the genomic positions in megabases. (E) COG classification and distribution of predicted protein function of demethylated nucleotide site related genes in *Adam*. COG terms are highlighted with different colors.

Table 3. COG class and distribution of predicted protein function of demethylated genes in *Adam* versus UTI89.

Function annotation: COG class	Count	Percentage
R: General function prediction only	455	10.59%
G: Carbohydrate transport and metabolism	417	9.71%
S: Function unknown	386	8.99%
E: Amino acid transport and metabolism	360	8.38%
K: Transcription	316	7.36%
C: Energy production and conversion	300	6.98%
M: Cell wall/membrane/envelope biogenesis	259	6.03%
P: Inorganic ion transport and metabolism	243	5.66%
L: Replication, recombination and repair	209	4.86%
J: Translation, ribosomal structure and biogenesis	188	4.38%
T: Signal transduction mechanisms	188	4.38%
H: Coenzyme transport and metabolism	164	3.82%
O: Posttranslational modification, protein turnover, chaperones	155	3.61%
U: Intracellular trafficking, secretion, and vesicular transport	151	3.51%
N: Cell motility	124	2.89%
I: Lipid transport and metabolism	104	2.42%
F: Nucleotide transport and metabolism	99	2.30%
Q: Secondary metabolites biosynthesis, transport and catabolism	82	1.91%
V: Defense mechanisms	57	1.33%
D: Cell cycle control, cell division, chromosome partitioning	35	0.81%
A: RNA processing and modification	2	0.05%
W: Extracellular structures	2	0.05%

Comparative transcriptome analysis of the *Adam* mutant

In addition to global characterization of methylation patterns in genomic DNA and function annotations, we sought to focus on the effect of demethylated GATC sites on the transcription of the *Adam* mutant, to shed light on its effect on altering vital pathways of persister formation. To this end, we generated RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) data of UTI89 and *Adam*. With both $|\log_2\text{Fold Change}| > 2$ and false discovery rate (FDR) < 0.01 as cut-off criteria, the total number of DEGs is listed in Supplementary Table 2. Comparison of *Adam* to the parent strain UTI89 identified 1345 differentially expressed genes (DEGs). Of these DEGs, 153 genes were significantly upregulated and 1192 genes were significantly downregulated (Figure 3B). Heatmap cluster analysis of these selected genes revealed that the expression profiles of the control and the *Adam* mutant were distinct, and the set of genes significantly down-regulated in *Adam* but not in UTI89 (Figure 3A), is of especial interest, as these genes may be involved in persister formation, such as *fmr*, *usp* operons, *fim* clusters, *tra*

operons, *repA*, *ccdAB* (type II toxin-antitoxin system toxin), *tss* clusters (type VI secretion system), *arcAC*, *gsp* clusters (type II secretion system), GntR family transcriptional regulator (Supplementary Table 2), some of which are known to be involved in persister formation. Functional KEGG enrichment analysis of the DEGs was identified, the top 10 most significantly enriched biological processes (up and down DEGs) are listed in Figure 3C and Supplementary Table 3. The largest number of upregulated DEGs were enriched in flagellar assembly (eco02040) in the *Δdam* mutant, while the down-regulated DEGs were significantly enriched in ABC transporter (eci02010) pathway. In addition, compared with UTI89, galactose metabolism and propanoate metabolism were overexpressed, whereas transmembrane transport sugar phosphotransferase systems (PTS) and secretion-related pathways were down-regulated in the *Δdam* mutant.

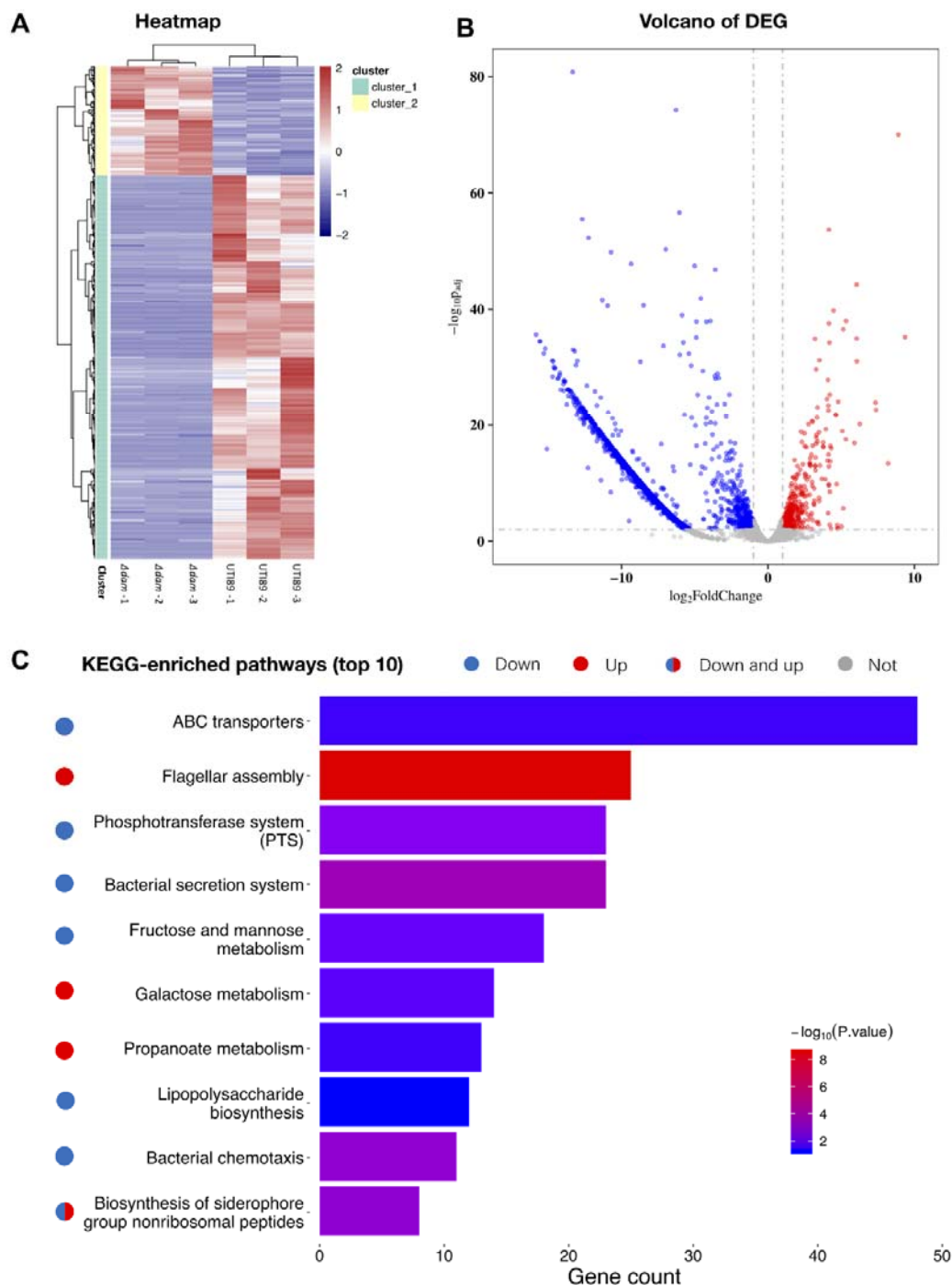
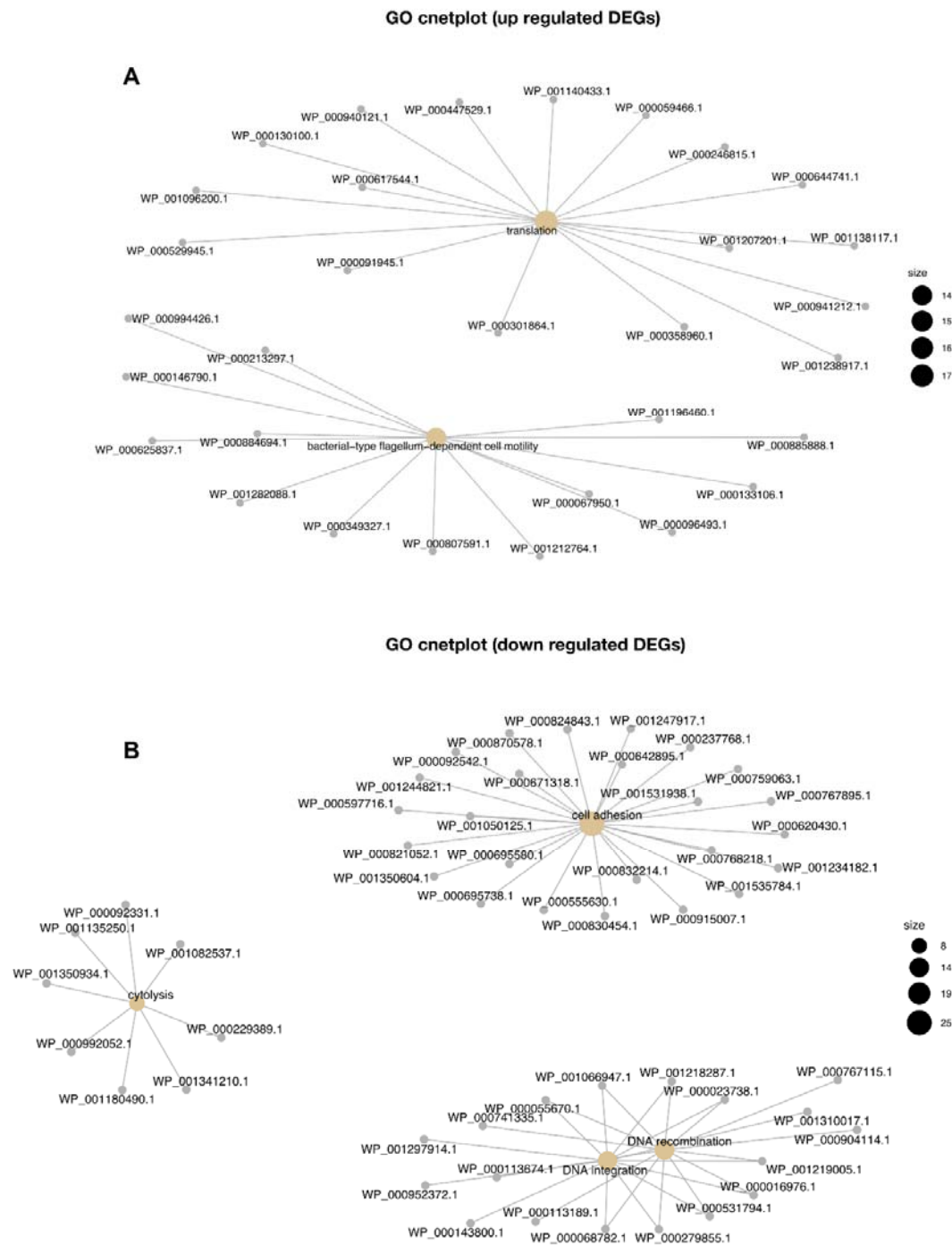


Figure 3. RNA-seq analysis and KEGG pathway of DEGs in the *Adam* mutant. (A) Heatmap showing clear differences between *Adam* and UTI89 in terms of relative levels of expression (upregulation, red) or (downregulation, blue). Row values were calculated using gene expression levels (in fragments per kilobase per million; FPKM). (B) Volcano plots of DEGs between the *Adam* mutant and UTI89.. In plots, circle points indicate each gene of

Adam. Two criteria of $|\log_2(\text{fold change})| > 2$ and false discovery rate (FDR) < 0.01 are highlighted in dotted lines, respectively. (C) Top 10 enriched KEGG pathways of DEGs. Enrichment analysis was performed with a significant criterion, P value < 0.05 . The regions were ranked by P value. $\log_{10}(P \text{ value})$ ranged from blue (relatively low) to red (relatively high) in the *Adam* mutant versus UTI89. For each KEGG pathway, the bar shows the number of enriched genes. The red circle points indicate significantly upregulated, the blue circle points indicate significantly downregulated DEGs, the red + blue circle points indicate significantly up and down regulated DEGs and the gray circle points indicate no statistical significance.

Functional analysis by biological network to identify key pathways in the *Adam* mutant

To compare functional differences between UTI89 and *Adam*, we used an FDR of 0.05 to perform a GO term enrichment analysis and performed cnetplot (concept network plot) analysis based on DEGs (Figure 4). It shows cluster distribution and relationship of proteins in each pathways. We identified enriched pathways in upregulated and downregulated genes from the *Adam* mutant compared to the parent strain UTI89 (Figure 4). The upregulated pathways include translation (GO:0006412) and flagellum-dependent cell motility (GO:0071973), and downregulated processes include cell adhesion (GO:0007155) (fimbriae relevant protein), DNA integration (GO:0015074) (transposase, integrase and recombinase), DNA recombination and repair (GO:0006310) (integrase, excisionase, recombinase and endodeoxyribonuclease) and cytolysis (GO:0019835) (lysis protein) (Supplementary Table 4).



384

385 **Figure 4. Gene ontology term enrichment cnetplot analysis of DEGs in *Adam*.** (A)
386 Biological processes enriched from up-regulated DEGs. (B) Biological processes enriched
387 from down-regulated DEGs. The brown nodes represent key pathways involved based on
388 regulated DEGs and predicted protein functions. The size of the nodes reflects the number of
389 enriched DEGs. Enrichment analysis was performed with a significant FDR < 0.05.

Comparative analysis of transcriptome and methylome COG class in *Adam*

To further verify the alteration of gene expression that is related to demethylation in *Adam*, we performed COG functional category analysis of transcriptome and compared with COG terms of demethylated annotation (Figure 5A). The transcriptome COG demonstrated a correlation with predicted methylome COG, and the results showed that up-regulated DEGs accounted for a relatively small fraction, with statistically significant ($FDR < 0.05$) pathways mapped in J (translation, ribosomal structure and biogenesis) and N (cell motility) being identified (Figure 5B). Most of genes were down-regulated and annotated to multiple functional categories that were extensively affected by the DNA demethylation, with statistically significant ($FDR < 0.05$) pathways mapped in L (DNA replication, recombination and repair) and Q (secondary metabolite biosynthesis, transport and catabolism) being identified (Figure 5C). These alterations could be associated with diminished persister formation in *Adam*.

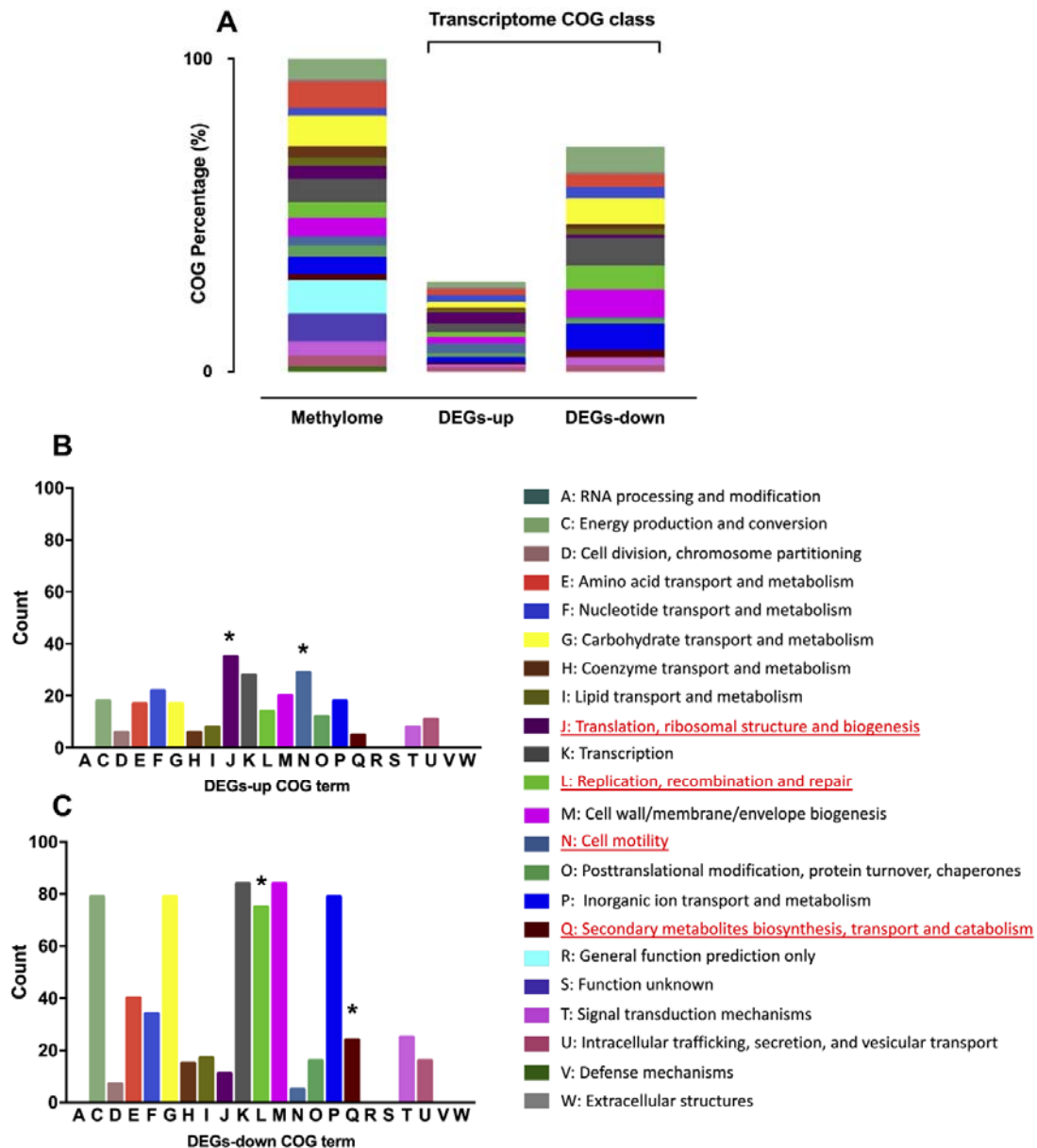


Figure 5. The comparative analysis of transcriptome and methylome COG in *Adam* compared with UTI89. (A) The transcriptome COG IDs are mapped to methylome COG classification. COG terms of transcripts are assigned by the cellular function of respective up-regulated (B) and down-regulated (C) genes (*FDR < 0.05). The underlined and red marked terms are significant functional categories.

Discussion

Although DNA adenine methylation in bacterial genome has been shown to affect various biological processes such as transcriptional control, mismatch repair, DNA replication, and host-pathogen interactions in bacteria^{19,21}, the link between DNA methylation and bacterial persister formation has not been investigated previously. In this study, we found that the *Adam* mutant but not the *Adcm* mutant of *E. coli* UTI89 had significant defect in persistence to multiple antibiotics and stresses compared with the *dam* (+) parent strain. In addition, complementation of the *Adam* mutant with the wild type gene restored the persistence phenotype close to the wild type level, which confirms the role of DNA adenine methylation in persister formation. Although a previous study examined the transcription of a small number of targeted genes (*papIB*, *papEF*, *qnrA*, *arcA*, *gyrB*, *mdh*, *recA*, and *rpoS*) in a *dam* mutant in different UPEC strains *E. coli* C119 and CFT073⁴², here we performed a more comprehensive whole genome and transcriptome level analysis by SMRT and RNA-seq and obtained crucial methylome information linking the gene expression differences in the *Adam* mutant strain which provides important insights and potential explanation about its defect in persistence. It is of interest to note that the methylated state is usually correlated with transcriptional repression¹⁹, and loss of methylation due to *dam* mutation could lead to a more generalized transcriptional activation of genes in the *Adam* mutant, which could partly explain the reduced persister formation of the *Adam* mutant.

Our genome-wide methylome analysis of the *Adam* and UTI89 showed that the most obvious difference was that there existed 41359 m⁶A modifications of GATC in UTI89 which were all demethylated in the *Adam* mutant (Table 1, 2). The disparity illustrated that the deletion of *dam* in UTI89 caused an overwhelming effect on the whole genome (4296 genes of relevant predicted marks), and the distribution of COG classification analysis identified many genes involved in key pathways including metabolism, transmembrane process, transcription, cell motility being affected (Table 3). Lacey et al.⁴³ conducted Dam methylation analysis of different growth phases (log phase, stationary phase, death phase) of *E. coli* and indicated a role of Dam in transcription and cell survival. It is interesting to note that genes *fadR*, *parE* involved in transmembrane transport/nucleoside binding/sulfur metabolism overlapped in our study. In addition, many of methylated sites identified in the above study of the wild type strain of stationary phase are located within genes that encode proteins involved in transport or transcriptional regulation, which were downregulated in the *Adam* mutant in our study, a finding that is consistent with their observations.

Our transcriptome analysis identified that crucial transcriptional regulators were massively downregulated in *Adam* (Supplementary Table 2), these regulators are known to be involved in persister formation with the activation of stress response, including LexA⁴⁴ NtrB⁴⁵, Fis⁴⁶, Fnr, Lrp⁴⁷, SoxS⁴⁸, ArcA^{47 49}, which may be responsible for the defect in persister formation in the *Adam* mutant or survival in various stresses as shown in this study. It also revealed that demethylation in the *Adam* mutant impaired persister formation by affecting extensive gene expression, such as upregulating genes involved in flagellar synthesis and assembly and galactose metabolism, propanoate metabolism and downregulating genes

involved in different types of fimbrial biosynthesis, pilus synthesis, metabolism (carbon and nitrogen source), sugar phosphotransferase systems (PTS) and secretion-related pathways.

The transcriptome data analysis indicated that Dam tightly controls flagella transcription in *E. coli*, as shown by upregulation the expression of flagella biosynthesis including flagella biosynthesis (*flg* operon) and assembly (*fli* operon) process in the *Adam* mutant. The results were consistent with previous observations that flagella synthesis genes (*flgE*, *flgJ*, *fliG*, *flhB*) were related to persister formation^{41, 50}. It is likely that upregulation of flagella genes in the *Adam* mutant is a reflection of suppression of flagella genes by Dam methylation in normal wild type bacteria which is important for persister formation. The overexpression of the flagella genes in the *Adam* mutant is reminiscent of the PhoU mutant⁴¹, where PhoU serves as a metabolic switch in suppressing cellular metabolism in the wild type strain but its loss of function in the mutant leads to hyperactive metabolism and inability to form persisters thus showing higher susceptibility to antibiotics and stresses. Moreover, we observed the most enriched KEGG and GO pathways in persister formation of *Adam* mutant include cell adhesion, motility and translation. Previous studies have shown virulence attenuation in *Salmonella* Dam mutants with defective DNA methylation^{21, 51}, since UPEC surface appendages such as fimbria and pili are known virulence factors involved in attachment and adhesion to bladder epithelial cells, the downregulation of genes for these structures as seen in the *Adam* mutant in this study is consistent with the observation that DNA methylation is important for virulence of UPEC bacteria as mutations in DNA methylation caused virulence attenuation and defect in biofilm formation⁵². Extensive pili operons involved in adhesion and virulence in UPEC including *sfa*, *fimHX*, *auf*, *pap* and *tra* related fimbriae were down-regulated in the *Adam* mutant and indicate their regulation by DNA methylation. Previous studies described that methylation of the *pef* GATC II site by Dam were required for plasmid-encoded fimbriae (*pef*) transcription⁵³, pyelonephritis-associated pili (*pap*) promoter was governed by DNA methylation state in GATC sites, expression of *pap* pili was controlled by phase variation (cell cycle), resulting in the heterogeneous bacterial population with pili (“phase ON” state) or without pili (“phase” OFF state)⁵⁴. It will be of interest to determine if the *Adam* mutant is more attenuated for virulence and persistence in a UTI animal model in future studies. Dam acts as a switch for global gene regulation, and previous studies showed the connection between DNA methylation and stationary phase transcription^{43, 55}, and our finding that DNA methylation is more specifically involved in persister formation is an extension of this observation. Since Dam in *E. coli* is necessary for cell cycle timing through methylation of *oriC*⁵⁶, future studies can be performed to assess the role of Dam methylation in cell cycle regulation in possible transition of growing cells to persister cells.

Furthermore, our comparative analysis of omics COG data identified potentially the most important pathways responsible for persister formation due to the altered methylation nucleotide sites (Figure 5A). We found that J (translation, ribosomal structure and biogenesis), N (cell motility) (Figure 5B) were significantly up-regulated and L (DNA replication, recombination and repair) and Q (secondary metabolites biosynthesis, transport and catabolism) (Figure 5C) were significantly down-regulated. It is known that DNA

replication and repair are essential to DNA damage response, and persister cells require DNA repair machinery (RecA, RecB) to survive the antibiotic stress^{57 50}, and it is of interest to note that *recA* involved in DNA repair pathway was downregulated in the *Δdam* mutant in our study. In addition, the secondary metabolites were reported to be important for bacterial sensing and damage response to the adverse environment, for secondary metabolites achieving their functions, ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transmembrane transporters are crucial⁵⁸. The upregulation of genes in translation, motility and the downregulation of genes in DNA repair, transport due to *dam* deletion provides possible explanation of significantly diminished persister formation. Taken together, the COG classification analyses are consistent with the KEGG and GO functional annotation results and suggest that Dam mediates persister formation through affecting multiple pathways including translation, motility, signaling and transport, DNA repair in the cell.

In summary, we found that the *Δdam* mutant had a significant defect in persister formation under antibiotic and stress conditions. Our findings suggest that DNA adenine methylation plays an important role in persister formation by maintaining genome stability (DNA replication, recombination and repair) and systematically affecting diverse cellular functions including bacterial adhesion (fimbriae and pilus), flagella biosynthesis, galactitol transport/utilization, diverse transport systems, metabolism (carbon, purine, and amino acid) and transcriptional repression. Further studies are necessary to determine DNA methylation specific switch factor on the crucial transition process toward persister formation. In addition, it would be of interest to determine if the *Δdam* mutant has attenuated virulence and defect in creating persistent infection in animal models in the future. Because of the importance of Dam in persister formation, we believe Dam may serve as a novel therapeutic target for future drug development against bacterial persisters.

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Author contributions

Y.Z., W.H.Z conceived and designed the experiments, W.H.Z supervised the work, S.L., Y.Y.X. performed the experiments, S.L., Y.Y.X., Y.Z. analyzed the results. Y.Y.X. wrote the manuscript.

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