

1 **“*Candidatus* Accumulibacter” Gene Expressions in Response to Dynamic**

2 **EBPR Conditions**

3 by Shaomei He and Katherine D. McMahon

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5 **Supplementary Materials**

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7 **Supplementary Material Included:**

8 Supplementary Text 1. RT-qPCR primer design for Accumulibacter clades IA and IIA

9 Supplementary Text 2. PCR condition optimization and standard curve generation

10 Supplementary Text 3. Eligibility of absolute quantification of mRNA

11 Supplementary Text 4. Changes in 16S rRNA abundance across a cycle

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14 Table S1

15 Figure S1

16 Figure S2

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19 **RT-qPCR primer design for Accumulibacter clades IA and IIA**

20 Twelve primer sets were designed to target genes of interest from both clades IA and IIA

21 Accumulibacter. The metagenome sequencing recovered a nearly complete genome of clade IIA

22 (binned as “*Candidatus* Accumulibacter phosphatis” on IMG/M [[http://img.jgi.doe.gov/cgi-](http://img.jgi.doe.gov/cgi-bin/m/main.cgi)

23 bin/m/main.cgi]), but only retrieved partial sequences from clade IA (Garcia Martin *et al.*, 2006).

24 It was estimated that clades IA and IIA genomes had an average nucleotide sequence divergence

25 of 15% (Kunin *et al.*, 2008). Since these two clades are the closest relatives in the sludge

26 microbial community, non-clade IIA genes that share the highest DNA sequence identity to
27 clade IIA in the sludge metagenome are likely from clade IA. Table S1 lists the non-clade IIA
28 genes from the sludge metagenome that have the closest match to clade IIA, as well as non-
29 *Accumulibacter* genes in Genbank that share the highest DNA sequence identity to clade IIA, as
30 a comparison. For every gene studied, the percent identity between clade IIA gene and its
31 homolog from the sludge metagenome is higher than that from the closest non-*Accumulibacter*
32 match in Genbank. Therefore, these closest homologs of IIA genes in the sludge metagenome are
33 very likely from clade IA.

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PCR optimization and standard curve generation

37 To generate an appropriate positive control for PCR optimization, we selected and pooled a total
38 of 14 DNA samples with varied relative abundances of clades IA and IIA, collected from the
39 reactor during a 5-month period. The samples were mixed to generate a community DNA pool
40 that had a balanced distribution of clades IA and IIA (verified by *ppk1*-targeted qPCR). A 30-
41 cycle PCR with an annealing temperature gradient range of 58-65°C was performed on the
42 pooled DNA sample to determine the optimal annealing temperatures for the newly designed
43 primer sets. The reaction mixtures contained 1X PCR buffer II, 3.0 mM MgCl₂, 200 μM of each
44 dNTP, 400 nM of each forward and reverse primer and 0.05 U/μl of AmpliTaq Gold® DNA
45 polymerase (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). Since the *Accumulibacter* genome has a
46 high GC content (64%), betaine was added to 0.5 M final concentration as a denaturant to
47 facilitate the reaction. PCR products were visualized by 2% agarose gel electrophoresis. A single
48 sharp band at the expected amplicon size was obtained for each individual primer pair, indicating

49 that the amplification was specific. The optimal annealing temperature was determined as the
50 highest temperature that still resulted in a high intensity band (Table 1).

51 Positive controls for individual primer sets were generated by PCR amplification with
52 corresponding primer sets, using the pooled sludge DNA sample described above. PCR products
53 were purified (PureLink™ PCR purification kit ,Invitrogen) and the mass concentration of PCR
54 products was determined (PicoGreen dsDNA quantification kit, Invitrogen). Copy number was
55 calculated based on mass concentration and the average molecular weight of each individual
56 PCR amplicon. Six-point calibration curves for qPCR were produced by tenfold serial dilution of
57 positive controls in duplicate, ranging from 10^3 to 10^8 target copies per reaction. Quantification
58 was performed using the iCycler™ iQ optical system software Version 3.0a (Biorad). PCR
59 amplification efficiencies were estimated from the standard curve slope by the formula $10^{-1/\text{slope}}$ -
60 1.

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Eligibility of absolute quantification of mRNA

64 Accurate comparison of gene expression between samples using RT-qPCR often requires
65 normalizing unwanted variations introduced during procedures such as RNA extraction and
66 reverse transcription. Usually a housekeeping gene that has constant expression levels among
67 different samples is used as a reference gene or an internal control to quantify the relative change
68 of target genes (referred to as “relative quantification”). However, choosing an appropriate
69 housekeeping gene that does not vary in all samples under different conditions can be very
70 difficult, even in well-studied bacteria, such as *Pseudomonas* and *Staphylococcus* (Savli *et al.*,

71 2003; Vandecasteele *et al.*, 2001). As we know much less about *Accumulibacter*, it is more
72 challenging to select such an internal standard.

73 Quantifications normalized to sample volumes or cell numbers without comparing to a
74 reference gene (referred to as “absolute quantification”) have also been applied in some cases,
75 especially when evaluating the stabilities of housekeeping genes (Vandecasteele *et al.*, 2001). In
76 our study, due to the difficulties in identifying a good internal standard, we employed absolute
77 quantification. We first evaluated the variation in RNA extraction and RT-qPCR, since these two
78 steps are expected to be the major sources of variation across samples. Replicated extractions of
79 8 different samples indicated a good reproducibility of RNA yield, with an average coefficient of
80 variation (CV) of 7%. A subset of these samples with replicated extractions was used in
81 downstream RT-qPCR, with primer sets targeting *cbb3*-COX, *ppk1*-IA, *ppk1*-IIA, and 16S rRNA
82 genes. For these primer sets, an average CV of 21% was obtained from the overall analyses. By
83 partitioning the variance from the ANOVA (Analysis of Variance), we found that the RNA
84 extraction and reverse transcription steps contributed to 41% of the total observed variance on
85 average, while the remaining 59% was contributed by qPCR step alone. The results indicated
86 that the variance from RNA extraction and reverse transcription is acceptable, particularly when
87 comparing fold changes. Therefore, in this study, we used quantification normalized to the
88 starting sludge volume.

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91 Changes in 16S rRNA abundance across a cycle

92 As anticipated, the 16S rRNA level changed during an EBPR cycle, since bacteria regulate their
93 ribosome content by the growth rate, stringent response to amino-acid starvation, and other
94
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96 mechanisms (Nomura *et al.*, 1984). *Accumulibacter* 16S rRNA levels doubled during the
97 anaerobic phase, and except for a short increase lasting for about 35 min in the beginning of
98 aerobic phase, levels decreased during the remaining aerobic phase. Its anaerobic increase is
99 indeed surprising, because EBPR metabolic models suggest PAO growth only occurs in the
100 aerobic phase, due to the high energy cost, which is more likely to be provided under aerobic
101 conditions. It is not clear whether the increase is simply associated with cells synthesizing a large
102 amount of enzymes necessary for rapid anaerobic acetate-uptake and transformation, or with
103 some other mechanisms. A preliminary study showed that the transcription of *relA* (the synthase
104 of (p)ppGpp, a global stringent response regulator), was negatively correlated to 16S rRNA
105 during the majority of EBPR cycle (correlation coefficient = -0.83, n = 14) (data not shown).
106 This might indicate some stringent control mechanism during EBPR. Such stringent control
107 could promote cyclical turnover and re-synthesis of ribosomes (including rRNA), leading to the
108 observed but otherwise unanticipated changes in 16S rRNA levels. Further study is needed to
109 elucidate the mechanism.

Observed difference in *phaA* and *phaC* regulation

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113 In *Accumulibacter*, genes *phaC* (included in our study) and *phaE* form an operon, encoding the
114 two subunits of the heterodimeric Class III PHA synthase, respectively. Gene *phaA* (included in
115 our study), encoding acetyl-CoA acetyltransferase, is located in an adjacent operon downstream,
116 in the same transcriptional direction as *phaCE*. In *Cyanothece sp.* PCC 7425, to which this *phaC*
117 has the highest similarity, these genes are in a single operon. While in *Accumulibacter*, two short
118 genes (both encoding MaoC domain protein dehydratases) are in the same operon with *phaA*,

119 [separating phaA and phaC into two operons. Downstream of the phaA-containing operon, a](#)
120 [different phaC gene encoding class I PHA synthase forms a separate transcriptional unit in the](#)
121 [opposite direction to phaA. These operon structures are very interesting although the](#)
122 [implications for expression in Accumulibacter are not clear. In *Aeromonas caviae*, a similar](#)
123 [MaoC domain was also found downstream of phaC, and exhibited \(*R*\)-specific enoyl-CoA](#)
124 [hydratase activity and played a role in channeling \(*R*\)-3-hydroxyacyl-CoA monomer from \$\beta\$ -](#)
125 [oxidation of fatty acid to PHA synthesis \(Fukui *et al.*, 1998\). This might suggest that the phaA](#)
126 [investigated in our study might also be involved in fatty acid metabolism, in addition to PHA](#)
127 [biosynthesis, thus subjecting to a separate regulation from phaC. The potential relationship](#)
128 [between fatty acid and PHA metabolisms is of particular interest since Wilmes *et al.* \(2008\)](#)
129 [proposed a role of fatty acid \$\beta\$ -oxidation in EBPR metabolism. Further experimental](#)
130 [investigation is needed to elucidate this.](#)

Table S1. Summary of genes with the closest match to clade IIA

Gene	IMG/M OID of IIA	Closest match to IIA in sludge metagenome		Closest match to IIA in Genbank (non-Accumulibacter)	
		OID of non- IIA homolog	ID ¹ to IIA (%)	Organism	ID ¹ to IIA (%)
Pyruvate dehydrogenase complex	2001099980	2001086930	92.31	Dechloromonas aromatica RCB	81.76
Pyruvate synthase (pyruvate flavodoxin/ferredoxin oxidoreductase)	2001062970	2001144560	92.96	Rhodoferrax ferrireducens T118	71.21
Citrate synthase	2001061560	2001103000	94.66	Azoarcus sp. EbN1	84.85
Isocitrate lyase	2001006860	2000000540	100	Dechloromonas aromatica RCB	89.81
		2000224990	99.22		
Succinate dehydrogenase/fumarate reductase, Fe-S protein subunit	2001061540	2000037440	98.3	Dechloromonas aromatica RCB	85.65
Fumarate reductase subunit C	2001024420	2001036520	80.3	Chromobacterium violaceum ATCC 12472	64.39
Methylmalonyl-CoA mutase, N-terminal domain/subunit	2001062840	2000234230	90.55	Nocardioides sp. JS614	65.12
		2000052210	84.09		
Acetyl-CoA acetyltransferase	2001070320	2001139020	91.11	Chromobacterium violaceum ATCC 12472	64.19
Poly(3-hydroxyalkanoate) synthetase	2001070280	2000319730	99.73	Cyanothece sp. PCC 7425	47.45
Heme/copper-type cytochrome/quinol oxidases, subunit 1	2001010230	2000086280	99.41	Dechloromonas aromatica RCB	87.29
Cbb3-type cytochrome oxidase, subunit 1	2001063240	2001042560	97.4	Azoarcus sp. BH72	87.32
Nitrous oxide reductase	2001002170	2001100970	90.79	Dechloromonas aromatica RCB	90.05
		2000131850	97.76		

¹ Percentage of DNA sequence identity

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1 **Supplementary Figure Legend**

2 **Figure S1.** Transcription profiles during a normal EBPR cycle. The y-axis shows the normalized
3 transcript levels by comparison with the first time point. The maximal fold change (MFC) is the
4 ratio of the maximal to minimal cDNA copy number during a cycle.

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6 **Figure S2.** A heatmap showing the clustering pattern of gene expression during an EBPR cycle,
7 generated from the heatmap function using R software package (R Development Core Team,
8 2008). The expression levels of each gene were indicated as the ratio to its maximal expression
9 during a cycle in order to be at the same scale.

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11 **Supplementary Reference**

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