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Liu, Boqun; Hasrat, Zariief; Poolman, Bert; Boersma, Arnold J

*Published in:*  
Journal of Bacteriology

*DOI:*  
[10.1128/JB.00708-18](https://doi.org/10.1128/JB.00708-18)

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*Document Version*  
Final author's version (accepted by publisher, after peer review)

*Publication date:*  
2019

[Link to publication in University of Groningen/UMCG research database](#)

*Citation for published version (APA):*

Liu, B., Hasrat, Z., Poolman, B., & Boersma, A. J. (2019). Decreased Effective Macromolecular Crowding in Escherichia coli Adapted to Hyperosmotic Stress. *Journal of Bacteriology*, 201(10), [e00708-18]. <https://doi.org/10.1128/JB.00708-18>

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1 **Decreased Effective Macromolecular Crowding in *Escherichia coli* Adapted to**  
2 **Hyperosmotic Stress**

3

4 Boqun Liu,<sup>a,b</sup> Zariel Hasrat,<sup>a</sup> Bert Poolman,<sup>a,c,#</sup> Arnold J. Boersma<sup>a,d,#</sup>

5 <sup>a</sup> Department of Biochemistry, Groningen Biomolecular Sciences and Biotechnology Institute,  
6 University of Groningen, Groningen, The Netherlands

7 <sup>b</sup> Jilin Provincial Key Laboratory of Nutrition and Functional Food, Jilin University,  
8 Changchun, People's Republic of China

9 <sup>c</sup> Zernike Institute for Advanced Materials, University of Groningen, Groningen, The  
10 Netherlands

11 <sup>d</sup> DWI-Leibniz Institute for Interactive Materials, Aachen, Germany

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13 Running Head: Macromolecular Crowding under Hyperosmotic Stress

14 **# Address Correspondence to:** Bert Poolman, [b.poolman@rug.nl](mailto:b.poolman@rug.nl) and Arnold J. Boersma,  
15 [boersma@dwil.rwth-aachen.de](mailto:boersma@dwil.rwth-aachen.de)

16 **Keywords:** macromolecular crowding, osmotic stress, excluded volume, biochemical  
17 organization of cytoplasm, energy status, FRET-based sensors

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23 **ABSTRACT** *Escherichia coli* adapts to changing environmental osmolality to survive and  
24 maintain growth. It has been shown that GFP diffusion in cells adapted to osmotic upshifts is  
25 higher than expected from the increase in biopolymer volume fraction. To better understand  
26 the physicochemical state of the cytoplasm in adapted cells, we now follow the  
27 macromolecular crowding during adaptation with FRET-based sensors. We apply an osmotic  
28 upshift and find that, after an initial increase, the apparent crowding decreases over the  
29 course of hours, to arrive at a value lower than before the osmotic upshift. Crowding relates  
30 to cell volume until cell division ensues, after which a transition in the biochemical  
31 organization occurs. Analysis of single cells by microfluidics shows that changes in cell  
32 volume, elongation and division are most likely not the cause for the transition in  
33 organization. We further show that the decrease in apparent crowding upon adaptation is  
34 similar to the apparent crowding in energy-depleted cells. Based on our findings in  
35 combination with literature data, we suggest that adapted cells have indeed an altered  
36 biochemical organization of the cytoplasm, possibly due to different effective particle-size  
37 distributions and concomitant nanoscale heterogeneity. This could potentially be a general  
38 response to accommodate higher biopolymer fractions yet retaining crowding homeostasis,  
39 and could apply to other species or conditions as well.

40 **IMPORTANCE** Bacteria adapt to ever changing environmental conditions such as osmotic  
41 stress and energy limitation. It is not well understood how biomolecules reorganize  
42 themselves inside *Escherichia coli* under these conditions. An altered biochemical  
43 organization would affect macromolecular crowding, which could influence reaction rates and  
44 diffusion of macromolecules. In cells adapted to osmotic upshift, protein diffusion is indeed  
45 faster than expected on the basis of the biopolymer volume fraction. We now probe the  
46 effects of macromolecular crowding in cells adapted to osmotic stress or depleted in  
47 metabolic energy with a genetically encoded fluorescence-based probe. We find that the  
48 effective macromolecular crowding in adapted and energy-depleted cells is lower than in  
49 unstressed cells, indicating major alterations in the biochemical organization of the  
50 cytoplasm.

51 **INTRODUCTION**

52 The environment induces changes in the internal organization of a cell, for example during  
53 nutrient depletion or osmotic changes. Nutrient depletion halts diffusion of 100 nm-sized  
54 particles,(1) while osmotic stress decreases the diffusion of 10 nm-sized proteins.(2, 3) Cells  
55 adapt to environmental stresses to resume growth, but their internal structure may be  
56 changed. For instance, the lateral diffusion coefficient of GFP in cells adapted to osmotic  
57 stress is higher than expected from the biopolymer volume fraction.(4) The cytoplasmic  
58 structure, or biochemical organization, can influence GFP diffusion in various ways, for  
59 example by changing the microscopic viscosity, association of proteins with (non)specific  
60 binding partners, the presence of barriers such as membrane invaginations, or sieving  
61 effects by for example the nucleoid or transertions.(2, 4-6) Thus, the change in diffusion  
62 indicates that the biochemical organization has undergone a change, but the nature of this  
63 transition is not well understood.

64 One important aspect of cell physiology is macromolecular crowding,(7-10) which influences  
65 lateral diffusion but also induces excluded volume effects. The steric repulsion between a  
66 high concentration of biomacromolecules ("crowders") reduces the configurational entropy of  
67 these crowders. A biochemical reaction ("tracer") that takes place in this environment  
68 reduces its volume to maximize the configurational entropy for the crowders. This effect can  
69 especially drive large complexes together where crowders are excluded from the volumes in  
70 between the tracers (overlap volumes). In this manner, the excluded volume provides an  
71 additional force to sort biomolecules to provide biochemical organization by favoring  
72 (supra)molecular complexes and membraneless compartments. Excluded volume effects are  
73 increased when for example: (i) the crowders are actually mobile and can increase their  
74 translational degrees of freedom; and (ii) when they are smaller in size than the tracer.(11)  
75 Thus, immobile crowders and/or crowders that are larger than the tracer is display less of the  
76 crowding effect in the classical sense but can induce confinement, where the shape of the  
77 confinement enforces a shape onto the tracer, instead of the minimum volume obtained in

78 classical crowding. Macromolecular crowding, or excluded volume effects, therefore does not  
79 necessarily correlate with the biopolymer volume fraction.

80 Macromolecular crowding is one of the main parameters that changes when the volume of a  
81 cell changes, which can occur when the medium osmolality changes. Upon osmotic upshift,  
82 the cells immediately shrink and many cells counteract this by taking up potassium ions,  
83 which is best documented for *E. coli*.(12-14) Subsequently, *E. coli* synthesizes or takes up  
84 available compatible solutes, and adjusts the proteome to adapt to the osmotic upshift.  
85 Researchers showed that in *E. coli* over 300 genes are up- or downregulated by osmotic  
86 upshift.(15-17) *E. coli* further increases its RNA/protein ratio due to an increase in ribosome  
87 content when adapted to high osmotic strength,(18) possibly to compensate for the  
88 decreased rate of translation.

89 We apply here a set of FRET-based sensors that enable quantification of macromolecular  
90 crowding during adaptation to osmotic stress. The sensors have shown excellent  
91 performance in quantification of crowding during osmotic stress in mammalian cells,(19-21)  
92 and allow detailed analysis of crowding in the bacterium *Escherichia coli*.(19, 22) The  
93 sensors vary in size, with crGE being the largest probe with a linker region that contains two  
94  $\alpha$ -helices and three random coils in between the fluorescent proteins that form a FRET pair  
95 (mCerulean3 as donor and mCitrine as acceptor). The crE6G2 sensor contains a linker with  
96 two  $\alpha$ -helices and a small random coil, while the crG18 probe contains a single long random  
97 coil.

98 Using these probes, we show here that macromolecular crowding increases upon osmotic  
99 upshift and returns within 2-5 hours to a level lower than the crowding prior the osmotic shift.  
100 We explain the lower effective excluded volume with the hypothesis that the biochemical  
101 organization of the cytoplasm is significantly altered, with components that exert less  
102 excluded volume effects for molecules in the size-range of our molecular probes.

103

104 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

105 **Cell growth and confocal imaging.** Cell preparation, growth, and imaging were performed  
106 as described in (19, 22). Briefly, the pRSET A vector containing the synthetic gene encoding  
107 either crGE, crE6G2 or crG18 was transformed into *E. coli* BL21(DE3). The cells were  
108 incubated at 30 °C, shaking at 200 rpm, in 10 mL MOPS medium pH 7.2 with 20mM glucose  
109 and grown overnight. The next day, the cells were diluted into 50 mL of fresh medium to  
110  $OD_{600}=0.05$ . When the  $OD_{600}$  reached 0.1 – 0.2, the cells were imaged. Subsequently, the  
111 concentration of NaCl was raised to 300 mM by addition of pre-warmed 3M NaCl in MOPS  
112 medium, and the cells were imaged to follow their recovery. The  $OD_{600}$  was monitored in  
113 time, and the cell culture was diluted with pre-warmed medium (MOPS medium + 300 mM  
114 NaCl) to reduce the  $OD_{600}$  every time from 0.3 to 0.1. For imaging, a 0.5 mL sample of cells  
115 expressing one of the probes was combined with 0.5 mL of cells that contained monovalent  
116 streptavidin in pRSET A (blank). A parallel culture was maintained under the same conditions  
117 to provide the blank cells. The combined cells were 10x concentrated by centrifugation and  
118 resuspended. Subsequently, 10  $\mu$ L of the cells was transferred to a glass slide modified with  
119 (3-aminopropyl) triethoxysilane and imaged on a laser-scanning microscope (Zeiss LSM  
120 710). The probes were excited using a 405-nm LED, and the emission was split into a 450–  
121 505 (mCerulean3) and 505–797 nm (FRET) channel. The fluorescence intensities for each  
122 cell were determined in ImageJ, and background originating from the blank cells was  
123 subtracted.

124 **Imaging in a microfluidics chamber.** The microfluidic chamber (CellASIC ONIX Microfluidic  
125 Plates) was pre-warmed overnight at 30 °C on the laser-scanning confocal microscope. The  
126 *E. coli* BL21(DE3) with desired crowding probe and the control strain containing monovalent  
127 streptavidin were grown overnight to an  $OD_{600}$  of 0.1-0.3, which is still in the exponential  
128 growth phase, and they were then diluted to  $OD_{600}=0.01$  in MOPS-glucose minimal medium  
129 and subsequently loaded in the microfluidic chamber. After loading, the cells were incubated  
130 with 0.1x MOPS-glucose medium (MOPS-glucose medium diluted 10x with 0.16 M NaCl) at

131 30 °C for 2h. After 2h, the medium in the microfluidics was replaced by 0.1xMOPS-glucose  
132 medium that contained an additional 0.3 M NaCl on top of the 0.16 M. Alternatively, we used  
133 600 mM and 1 M sorbitol instead of the 0.3M NaCl for osmotic upshift in the microfluidic  
134 chamber. The images were collected and analyzed as described above.

135 **Cell volume determination.** The volume of the cytoplasm was determined by  
136 PhotoActivated Localization Microscopy (PALM). The gene encoding LacY was fused to  
137 YPet which can switch “on” or “off” during imaging in PALM.(23) The gene encoding LacY-  
138 YPet was cloned into the pACYC vector and transformed into *E. coli* BL21(DE3). The cells  
139 (inoculated from a single colony) were grown at 30 °C, shaking at 200 rpm, in 10 mL MOPS  
140 medium with 20 mM glucose, overnight. The next day, at  $OD_{600} = 0.2$ , the cells were induced  
141 with 0.1% L-rhamnose. One hour after induction, the cells were imaged by PALM microscopy  
142 before and after addition of 300 mM NaCl.

143 Coverslips were cleaned with 5 M KOH in a sonication bath for 30 minutes, and washed with  
144 demineralized water and acetone (Aldrich). Next, the coverslips were plasma-cleaned for 10  
145 min, and subsequently coated with 2% (v/v) (3-Aminopropyl) trioxysilane (Aldrich) in acetone  
146 for 30 minutes. The coverslips were washed with demineralized water and left drying.

147 For PALM, a home-built inverted microscope based on an Olympus IX-81 with a high  
148 numerical aperture objective (100 X, NA= 1.49, oil immersion, Olympus, UAp0) was used.  
149 Solid-state lasers were from Coherent (Santa Clara, USA): 514 nm (Sapphire 514, 100 mW).  
150 Imaging was performed in semi-TIRF mode with the angle of light exiting the objective  
151 adjusted to create a light sheet restricted to the bottom few micrometers of the specimen.  
152 The fluorescence was recorded using an electron multiplying charge-coupled device (EM-  
153 CCD camera) from Hamamatsu, Japan, model C9100-13. For data acquisition and analysis,  
154 LacY-YPet was continuously illuminated at 517 nm and 3000 frames were recorded with 30  
155 ms for each frame. The data was analyzed with a home-written ImageJ script, in which the  
156 reconstructed images of each fluorescent molecule are represented as a single spot at its  
157 determined coordinates, with a brightness that corresponds to the localization accuracy.(23)

158 **Preparation of cell lysate.** The *E. coli* BL21(DE3) cells were incubated in 10 mL MOPS with  
159 20 mM glucose at 30 °C and shaking at 200 rpm overnight, and then diluted to 1 L of fresh  
160 medium to OD<sub>600</sub>=0.02. When the OD<sub>600</sub> reached 0.2, half of the culture was lysed  
161 immediately, while the other half was lysed after incubation for 5 h with 300 mM NaCl. To  
162 lyse the cells, the cultures were harvested by centrifugation (3000 xg, 30 minutes). The pellet  
163 was resuspended in 10 mM NaPi, 100 mM NaCl, pH 7.4, containing proteinase inhibitor  
164 (cOmplete™, Mini, EDTA-free). Cells were lysed by sonication for 2 minutes, with alternating  
165 5 seconds sonication and 5 seconds cooling, and then centrifuged (20,000xg, 10 min). The  
166 supernatant was immediately used for the fluorescence measurements.

167 **Fluorometry.** Fluorescence emission spectra were measured with a Fluorolog-3 (Jobin  
168 Yvon) spectrofluorometer. A 1.0 mL solution (10 mM NaPi, 100 mM NaCl, 2 mg/ml BSA, pH  
169 7.4) was added to a quartz cuvette and its fluorescence emission spectrum was recorded  
170 after excitation at 420 nm (A). Subsequently, purified sensor was added, mixed by pipette,  
171 and the fluorescence was recorded (B). The desired amount of small molecule or cell lysate  
172 was added, mixed by pipette, and the fluorescence was recorded again (C). The background  
173 spectrum A, prior to the addition of the probe, was subtracted from B or C.

174 **OD<sub>600</sub> measurements during FCCP treatment.** A 96-well plate (Greiner) containing four  
175 batches of each of the different culture/condition combinations (200 µL/well), with the  
176 remaining wells filled with either filter-sterilized MOPS-glucose minimal medium or MQ water.  
177 The plate was covered with gas permeable film and mounted on a plate reader (BioTek  
178 PowerWave 340). While shaking the plate at 30 °C, the absorbance at 600 nm was read  
179 every minute for 3.5 hours using Gen 5 software. After the plate reader measurement, the  
180 OD<sub>600</sub> values were referenced to the average of the absorbance values for MQ water, for  
181 each specific time point.

182

183

184 **RESULTS**

185 **Macromolecular crowding decreases after an osmotic upshift.** To determine the  
186 crowding during adaptation to an osmotic upshift, we added 300 mM NaCl to exponentially  
187 growing *E. coli* BL21(DE3) and allowed the cells to adapt to the increased medium  
188 osmolarity. To monitor the macromolecular crowding, we expressed the crGE probe under  
189 leaky expression of the T7 promoter, which prevents maturation artifacts as we described  
190 previously.(24) To compare our results with literature data, we performed the experiments in  
191 MOPS-glucose medium.(2, 4, 18) We find that under these conditions, the osmotic upshift  
192 initially decreases the OD<sub>600</sub> of the cell culture, which slowly recovers to pre-upshift levels  
193 over about an hour. After this, the cultures maintain a steady growth rate throughout the  
194 experiments (Fig. 1A).

195 We took samples from the main culture for analysis by confocal fluorescence microscopy and  
196 excited the crGE probe at 405 nm, and determined the emission between 450-505 nm for  
197 mCerulean3 and 505-795 nm for the FRET channel, as described previously.(19) Before the  
198 upshift, the FRET/mCerulean3 is  $1.06 \pm 0.009$  (s.e.m.; n = 98; s.d.=0.07), which immediately  
199 increases to  $1.12 \pm 0.01$  (s.e.m.; n = 98) upon addition of 300 mM NaCl (Fig. 1B). These  
200 FRET/mCerulean3 ratios are equivalent to 21 % w/w and 30 % w/w Ficoll, respectively.(19)  
201 The FRET/mCerulean3 ratio follows the OD<sub>600</sub> by returning to the pre-upshift level within 1 h.  
202 After this, the FRET/mCerulean3 decreases further to  $1.00 \pm 0.006$  (s.e.m.; n = 90) over an  
203 additional 1-2 h, where it remains for at least 23 h. This FRET/mCerulean3 ratio is equivalent  
204 to 13 % w/w Ficoll.(19) We maintain the cells in the exponential phase of growth by  
205 continuously refreshing the medium. The observations are similar for the crG18 sensor that  
206 contains a different linker (Fig. S1).(22) We find that addition of 100 mM NaCl does not lead  
207 to significant changes, while the addition of 500 mM NaCl provides a decrease similar to 300  
208 mM NaCl (Fig. S2). This apparent threshold coincides with the occurrence of membrane  
209 invaginations when 300 and 500 mM NaCl is added, which does not occur with 100 mM  
210 NaCl (see also (25) and (2)).

211 To confirm that the ratiometric FRET reports genuine changes in excluded volume, rather  
212 than e.g. binding of specific molecules to the sensors, we performed a series of control  
213 experiments. We investigated the influence of cell lysate on purified sensor (Fig. S3). We  
214 lysed *E. coli* with or without 300 mM NaCl and did not find an effect of the cell-free lysate of 7  
215 mg of total protein/ml on purified crG18. Hence, cytoplasmic macromolecules do not  
216 specifically interact with the sensors. The same applies for small molecule (metabolites,  
217 osmolytes) that are abundant in *E. coli* (19, 22, 26). To confirm that the probes are not  
218 truncated in osmotically stressed cells, we performed SDS-PAGE analysis. The gels show  
219 intact probes in control and osmotically stressed cells (Fig. S4). To assess whether the  
220 mCitrine fluorescence is not quenched by acidification of the cells during adaptation, we  
221 excited the mCitrine directly at 488 nm, and we did not find a decrease in intensity (Fig. S5).  
222 To show that the ratiometric FRET signal is independent of the maturation of the fluorescent  
223 proteins,(24) we exchanged the mCerulean3 with the faster maturing mTurquoise2 (crTC2)  
224 and obtained a qualitatively similar readout (Fig. S6). Also exchanging the acceptor to  
225 cpmVenus (crpGE) did not lead to a different result, excluding effects specific to the  
226 fluorescent proteins.

227 Next, we benchmarked the diffusion of the probes against GFP under conditions of osmotic  
228 stress and adaptation by fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP) (Fig. 1E). The  
229 median diffusion coefficient decreases from  $5.6(\pm 1.6) \mu\text{m}^2/\text{s}$  to  $1.6(\pm 1.3)$ , and subsequently  
230 increases 4h after addition of NaCl to  $4.2 (\pm 0.3)$ . The changes in diffusion do not reflect the  
231 FRET of the sensor precisely, likely because factors such as immobile barriers influence  
232 diffusion differently.(27) These diffusion coefficients compare to  $14.1(\pm 3.8)$ ,  $1.7(\pm 1.1)$  and  
233  $10.3(\pm 3.1)$ , respectively, for diffusion of GFP.(4) The last data value was obtained at 1.02  
234 Osm, while our osmolarity cumulates to 0.88 Osm (the osmolarity of MOPS medium + 300  
235 mM NaCl). The difference in diffusion coefficients of crGE and GFP correspond with the  
236 differences in sizes, but, importantly, the relative changes in mobility indicate that they probe  
237 similar biochemical organization of the cytoplasm.

238 **Macromolecular crowding relates to cell length until cells divide**

239 Macromolecular crowding should relate to the volume of a cell when the number of inert  
240 biomacromolecules is constant. To investigate whether the decrease in crowding indeed  
241 relates to volume changes and cell growth, we determined the cell length and volume during  
242 adaptation. To estimate the volume of the cells, we performed PALM measurements using  
243 the inner membrane protein LacY fused to YPet. We find that the volume decreases by 30%  
244 immediately after adding 300 mM NaCl (Fig. 1F), while three hours after the osmotic upshift  
245 the volume has recovered to ~1.8 fL, which is 82% of the value before the upshift. When  
246 measuring the length of the cells from brightfield images by confocal microscopy (Fig. 1C),  
247 we find that cells immediately become shorter by 20 % upon addition of 300 mM NaCl, and  
248 the length returns to the value before the osmotic upshift after 30 minutes. After 60-90  
249 minutes, the average cell length starts to increase. Afterwards, when most cells divide  
250 (doubling time of 2h), apparently in a synchronized manner, the average cell length  
251 decreases. After this, the average length remains short in the adapted cells. The decrease in  
252 length is more pronounced than in volume, which implies that the adapted cells have an  
253 increased diameter. Yet, the overall trend is similar for both the cell length and volume. We  
254 find that the crowding relates reciprocally with cell length and cell volume (Fig. 1D). After ~2  
255 h, which coincides with the moment the cells divide, the relation between crowding and cell  
256 volume no longer holds. We find these trends for both the crGE and the crG18 (Fig. S1).  
257 Hence, the results indicate that the crowding as anticipated is proportional to the cell volume  
258 after the osmotic upshift, but the relationship changes when cells adapt to the osmotic stress.

259 **Elongation or division are not needed to change crowding**

260 To assess whether cell elongation or division are strictly correlated with crowding during  
261 adaptation to osmotic stress, we studied individual cells in microfluidics devices. This allows  
262 comparison of cells that adapt to those that do not, and we can dissect whether or not cell  
263 division influences the levels of crowding. *E. coli* cells growing in 0.1× MOPS-glucose  
264 medium (supplemented with 160 mM NaCl) in microfluidic devices can be analyzed for at

265 least 6 h (Fig. S7). We observed less fluctuation in apparent crowding when cells grew in  
266 0.1× MOPS-glucose compared to undiluted MOPS-glucose medium, for which we currently  
267 do not have an explanation. Exogenous morpholinopropanesulfonate (MOPS) accumulates  
268 in *E. coli*(29) and may disturb its physiology. We found that the growth rate in 0.1× MOPS-  
269 glucose and MOPS-glucose medium are similar in a liquid culture, which is  $\sim 0.5 \text{ h}^{-1}$ . Hence,  
270 for all the experiments in the microfluidic chamber, we incubated the cells in 0.1× MOPS-  
271 glucose, supplemented with 160 mM NaCl to obtain the same osmolarity as MOPS-glucose  
272 medium.

273 We incubated the cells in the microfluidic chamber for 2 h, after which we replaced the  
274 medium with 0.1× MOPS-glucose with 460 mM NaCl (hence 300 mM extra). To confirm that  
275 crowding changes are independent of the type of crowding sensor, we compared the FRET  
276 signals of crGE, crE6G2 and crG18 during the osmotic upshift. We find a similar decrease in  
277 ratiometric FRET as observed in the experiments in batch culture. We further applied an  
278 osmotic upshift with sorbitol, showing a similar response as equiosmolar amounts of sodium  
279 chloride (Fig. S8). We counted the number of cells and noted that the cell number increased  
280 steadily until the osmotic upshift, after which the osmotic stress reduces the increase  
281 temporally (Fig. S9).

282 We previously found that of the three probes crE6G2 was most sensitive to changes in  
283 macromolecular crowding.(22) Single cell analyses provides a significant amount of noise  
284 (Fig. 2AC), yet for most cells the trend in the FRET/mCerulean3 ratio could clearly be  
285 distinguished with crE6G2, allowing comparison of crowding with cell length and division time  
286 (Fig. 2B). The single cells showed a transient decrease in length in the first 5 minutes after  
287 osmotic upshift, which coincides with the presence of membrane invaginations. After 5 to 10  
288 minutes, the cells started to elongate again. Upon addition of 300 mM NaCl, the shape of the  
289 FRET/mCerulean3 response of individual cells is similar to that of ensemble measurements.  
290 Although the single cell FRET/mCerulean3 data are noisy, we infer that cell division is not  
291 strictly correlated with the macromolecular crowding: Cell division appears to be rather

292 stochastic and unrelated to the FRET/mCerulean3 curve, which is similar for most of the  
293 cells. Furthermore, when we compiled data of cells that grew and compared those that did  
294 not grow, we do not observe a significant difference in crowding levels (Fig. 2D). In both  
295 cases we find the decrease to be significant ( $p < 0.05$ , student's t test). Hence, elongation and  
296 division do not necessarily drive the decrease in crowding upon adaptation to 300 mM NaCl,  
297 but they coincide with the crowding changes on the population level.

### 298 **Energy decoupling also decreases crowding**

299 Next, we determined the crowding in cells that were deprived of energy by using a  
300 protonophore (FCCP) to dissipate the electrochemical proton gradient, and thereby deplete  
301 the cells of ATP. Energy-depleted *E. coli* cells undergo a transition in their internal  
302 organization that hampers diffusion of 100 nm-sized but not 10 nm-sized particles.(1) Our  
303 probes are in the 10 nm size range, that is, our probes behave as a disordered protein with a  
304 distance between the centers of the fluorescent proteins of ~5-10 nm. Therefore, if crowding  
305 would be the only factor influencing diffusion, 10 nm particles should not experience a  
306 change in crowding because their diffusion does not change. If, on the other hand, native  
307 biomacromolecules are assembled into larger structures, e.g. resulting in a transition of the  
308 cytoplasm from a fluid into a more solid-like "colloidal glassy" state (1, 30), an inert 10 nm  
309 particle could experience less crowding. Such a state could be enhanced by the depletion of  
310 ATP, because ATP has been implicated as biological hydrotrope to enhance the solubility of  
311 proteins (31).

312 Because the effectiveness of protonophores depends on various factors (e.g. membrane  
313 concentration, *E. coli* strain, carbon source, medium pH), we first assessed the FCCP  
314 concentration required to halt cell growth and found that 100  $\mu\text{M}$  was necessary under our  
315 experimental conditions (Fig. 3A). Next, we applied FCCP to exponentially growing *E. coli*  
316 cells that contained the crGE probe, and measured the FRET/mCerulean3 ratios (Fig. 3B).  
317 The measurements were performed within two minutes after addition of FCCP. We find that  
318 the FRET/mCerulean3 ratio drops upon addition of FCCP and reaches values comparable to

319 those of cells adapted to 300 mM NaCl. We thus conclude that the effective excluded volume  
320 probed by crGE of 300 mM NaCl-adapted and energy-depleted cells are similar.

## 321 **DISCUSSION**

322 We have used previously developed crowding sensors to probe changes in excluded volume  
323 of *E. coli* cells upon osmotic stress and energy depletion. We show that the effective  
324 excluded volume of *E. coli* increases upon osmotic upshift, but subsequently decreases to  
325 values below those of unstressed cells. We find that in the first 1-2h the changes in crowding  
326 relate in a reciprocal manner to the cytoplasmic volume. When cells adapt to osmotic upshift  
327 conditions (300 mM NaCl), the apparent crowding levels become lower than those of  
328 unstressed cells.

329 Simply based on the biopolymer volume fraction, one would expect an increased  
330 macromolecular crowding in cells that have adapted to growth at increased osmolarities. Yet,  
331 Konopka et al. already showed for the first time that the diffusion of GFP was too high  
332 compared to what was expected from the biopolymer volume fraction.(4) This in combination  
333 with our result confirms that the biopolymer volume fraction is not the sole determinant of  
334 crowding effects, which can be expected from theory(8) and suggests that there is a  
335 structural change in the cytoplasm. Indeed, the group of Hwa recently showed that cells  
336 adapted to hyperosmotic stress have a higher ribosome to overall protein ratio than before  
337 osmotic stress.(18) This could explain the altered dependence on the volume fraction:  
338 Ribosomes are about 20 nm in diameter while our probes contain a disordered domain and  
339 are in the range of 5-10 nm, and thus should exert less of a classical excluded volume effect  
340 compared to a smaller protein crowder. Moreover, if the ribosome is attached to mRNA, its  
341 effective size is much larger and it would not diffuse freely, which is needed for classical  
342 crowding effects. The group of Holt recently investigated the size-dependence of crowding  
343 induced by ribosomes in yeast cells (32) and showed that an increased ribosome  
344 concentration reduced the lateral diffusion of particles in a size-dependent manner: 40 nm  
345 particles had a lower diffusion coefficient than 20 nm particles, while diffusion of 5 nm sized

346 particles was not influenced. Thus, an increase in ribosome to overall protein ratio at the  
347 same biopolymer volume fraction would diminish the crowding effect.

348 The reciprocal relation between the cell volume and crowding during the first 1-2 hours after  
349 the osmotic upshift shows that the macromolecular crowding behaves in a manner that one  
350 would expect from concentrating and diluting a solution of inert crowders. After this, or  
351 concomitantly, a major change in the biochemical transition may occur and the relation  
352 between cell volume and apparent crowding no longer holds. We cannot make a precise  
353 comparison of these time scales with literature data given that the media, strain, and  
354 magnitude of the upshift varies between experiments. But compatible solutes have a  
355 significant influence, a role that the MOPS in our medium could assume.(29) The initial  
356 response of cell elongation or volume growth after osmotic upshifts has been reported to  
357 occur within a few minutes,(33-35) similar to what we observed in microfluidics for cell length.  
358 The time course of the crowding transition of 1-2 hours is in the range of biopolymer  
359 synthesis (and changing the proteome) and proceeds throughout the cell division stage.  
360 Therefore, even though cell elongation resumes rapidly after shock, a new proteome needs  
361 to be synthesized to arrive at a new crowding homeostasis over longer periods. The change  
362 in crowding may be assisted by the biosynthesis of e.g. trehalose, which has been reported  
363 to accumulate to maximum values in up to an hour in *E. coli* grown in medium without  
364 compatible solutes.(36) Although the DNA content can increase under hyperosmotic  
365 stress,(37) especially under higher osmotic shocks than we use, we do not consider the DNA  
366 a classical crowder due to its large size and immobility. However, DNA could have an indirect  
367 effect by reducing the total available volume for other crowders or act through confinement  
368 mechanisms. Together, the kinetics of cell length and crowding suggest that the crowding  
369 changes are initially governed by cell volume, after which the cytoplasm arrives at a new  
370 state through biopolymer synthesis.

371 Although we consider an increase in the ribosome fraction of the total biopolymer content a  
372 likely source of the decrease in effective macromolecular crowding, other phenomena could

373 contribute. For example, we show here that energy dissipation decreases the effective  
374 excluded volume as well, which is an effect that occurs within 2 minutes, which is too fast for  
375 major changes in the proteome or/and ribosome content. Here, we achieve perhaps a state  
376 where the cytoplasm is more gel-like or colloidal glassy and thus leaves more uncrowded  
377 spaces for the probes to occupy.(38) Moreover, even if the sensor and the cytoplasm were  
378 homogeneously mixed, crowder self-associations would decrease the excluded volume  
379 effect of the crowders.(11) Such a state could be enhanced by the absence of ATP that  
380 potentially acts as a hydrotape and solubilizes the proteome.(31) Hence, different  
381 biochemical states of the cytoplasm could yield the same effective excluded volume.

## 382 **CONCLUSION**

383 Cells adapt to external stress to maintain cell growth. We mapped the changes in  
384 macromolecular crowding during adaptation to an osmotic upshift, a condition previously  
385 shown to alter the biochemical organization of the cell. We show that the cells indeed arrive  
386 at a new state where the effect of the excluded volume is decreased, which may be caused  
387 by alteration in the particle size distribution in the cytoplasm or change in biochemical  
388 organization. This would provide a mechanism to adopt higher biopolymer volume fractions  
389 while maintaining an effective crowding homeostasis with excluded volume effects tuned by  
390 the particle size and/or mobility.

## 391 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

392 This work was supported by the China Scholarship Council grant to B.L., The Netherlands  
393 Organization for Scientific Research program grant TOP-PUNT (project number 13.006) and  
394 an ERC Advanced Grant (ABCVolume) to B.P., and The Netherlands Organization for  
395 Scientific Research Vidi grant (723.015.002) to A.J.B.

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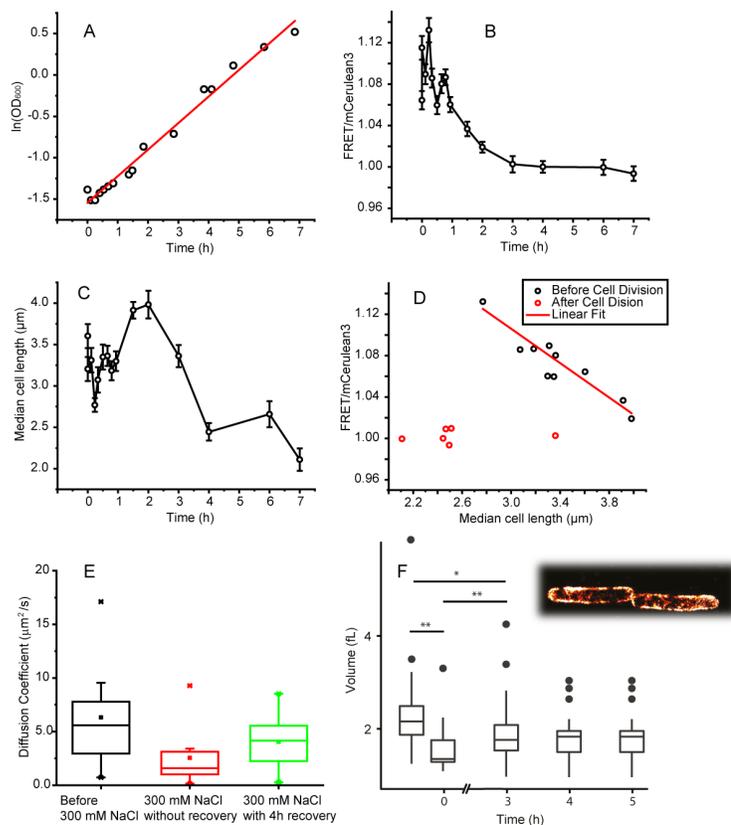
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491 **Figure 1.** Response of *E. coli* BL21(DE3) containing the crGE probe in pRSET A to the  
 492 addition of 300 mM NaCl. **A.** The  $\ln(\text{OD}_{600})$  decreases after the upshift and subsequently  
 493 increases linearly over time (passing the pre-upshift  $\text{OD}_{600}$  after ~1h). The  $\text{OD}_{600}$  is corrected  
 494 for continuous dilution of the culture to maintain the  $\text{OD}_{600}$  between 0.1 and 0.3. The data fits  
 495 a linear curve with  $R^2=0.99$ , indicating exponential growth throughout the course of the  
 496 experiment. **B.** The FRET/mCerulean3 ratio of the crGE probe as measured by confocal  
 497 fluorescence microscopy. The ratios immediately increase after osmotic upshift and decrease  
 498 after one hour to levels lower than prior to the osmotic upshift. All data is for at least 60 *E.*  
 499 *coli* cells, with a FRET/mCerulean3 standard deviation of ~0.05 and a standard error of  
 500 ~0.009. **C.** Osmotic upshift results in a decrease in median cell length as measured by  
 501 fluorescence microscopy (same cells as in panel B), which is followed by an increase in  
 502 length of the synchronized cells until division starts, resulting in smaller cells compared to  
 503 pre-upshift conditions. **D.** Data from panel B and C combined showing the relation (linear

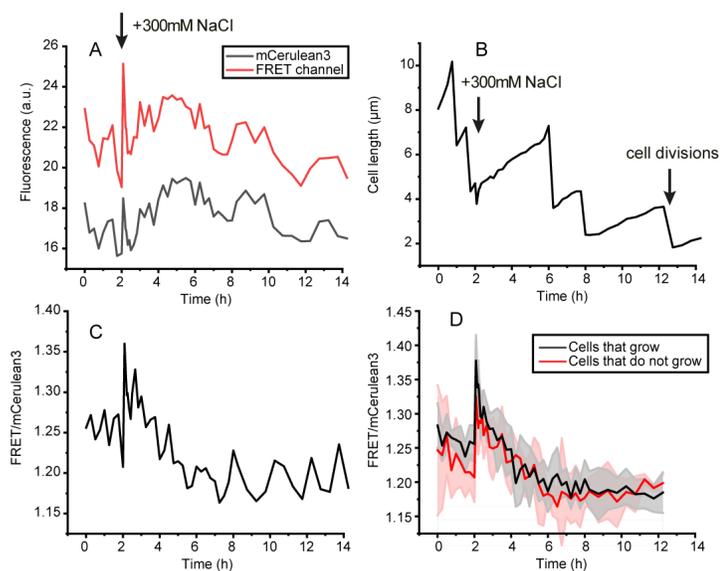
504 approximation:  $R^2=0.82$ ) between the FRET/mCerulean3 ratio and the median cell length  
505 (black circles), which holds until the cells divide. After that, the FRET/mCerulean3 remains  
506 low (red circles), which is after  $t=3h$  in panel B and C. **E.** Lateral diffusion of the crGE probe  
507 in unstressed, and 300 mM NaCl stressed and adapted cells. The FRAP measurements  
508 were carried out as described previously.(28) Displayed are the box plots generated for  
509 measurements of 10-20 cells, each from the same culture to allow comparison. Box  
510 represents 25-75% of the data range, whiskers is within the 1.5 interquartile range, bar in the  
511 box is median, square is average, and stars are outliers. **F.** Cell volume changes during  
512 hyperosmotic stress. *E. coli* BL21(DE3) expressing LacY-YPet was used and the contours  
513 from single-molecule localizations by PALM were used to obtain the volumes of the cells  
514 (see caption). Untreated cells are measured at  $t = -1h$  in MOPS-glucose; to capture the data  
515 point at  $t = 0h$ , the cells were resuspended in MOPS medium without potassium and glucose  
516 to prevent recovery, and subsequently treated with 300 mM NaCl. For time points 3, 4 and  
517 5h cells were left to adapt to 300 mM NaCl in regular MOPS-glucose medium. For each data  
518 point, ~30 cells were imaged and analyzed (\* $P<0.05$ , \*\* $P<0.005$ , paired sample t-test).

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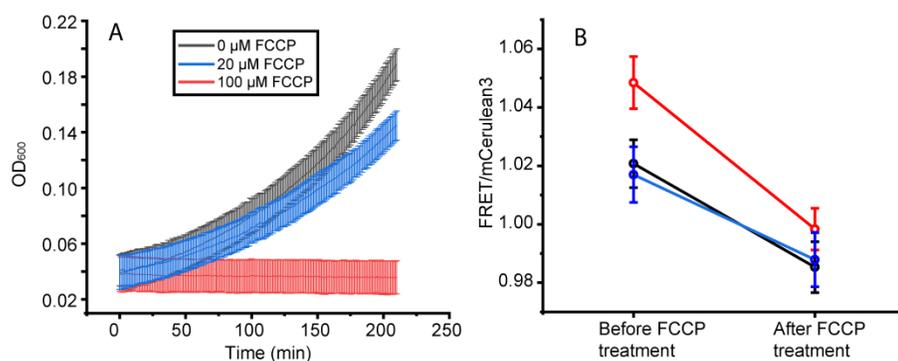
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524 **Figure 2.** Single cell analysis in microfluidics, monitored by confocal microscopy. At 2h, the  
 525 medium flown into the chamber that holds the cells was changed from 0.1×MOPS +160 mM  
 526 NaCl to 0.1×MOPS +460 mM NaCl (net increase 300 mM NaCl). The *E. coli* BL21(DE3) cells  
 527 contained the crE6G2 sensor in pRSET A. **A.** Fluorescence intensity of a single cell over  
 528 time; the emission from the mCerulean3 and the FRET channel are shown. **B.** Cell length of  
 529 the same cell analyzed in panel A, showing elongation and cell division and a small transient  
 530 decrease in cell length following the osmotic upshift at t=2h. The time between cell divisions  
 531 varies significantly. **C.** The FRET/mCerulean3 ratio of the same cell, showing a qualitatively  
 532 similar time course of the crowding as in the batch experiments. **D.** Average of the population  
 533 of cells that grow after osmotic upshift (n=9) compared with cells that do not grow (n=4).  
 534 Shaded areas are the corresponding standard deviations.



535

536 **Figure 3.** Crowding of energy-depleted *E. coli* as probed by crGE. **A.** The effect of FCCP on  
537 the growth of *E. coli* BL21(DE3) in MOPS minimal medium supplemented with glucose. Error  
538 bars are four technical repeats. **B.** Application of 100 μM of FCCP results in an immediate  
539 drop in the FRET/mCerulean3 ratio. Three independent biological repeats are displayed;  
540 error bars are error in the fit of FRET versus mCerulean3 intensity over about 100 cells.

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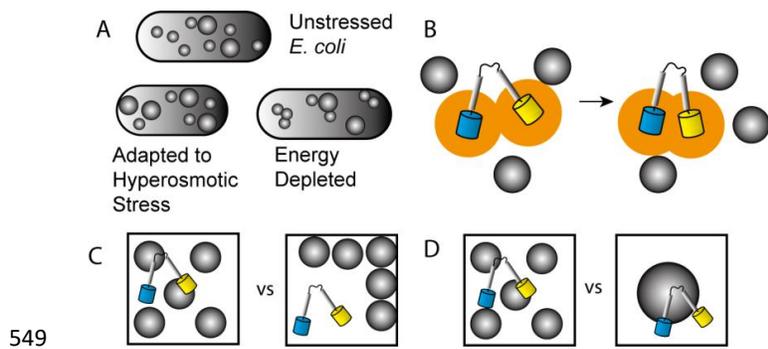
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550 **Figure 4.** Changes in biochemical organization that affect crowding in cells. **A.** Adaptation to  
 551 osmotic stress and energy depletion changes both the size and spatial distribution of the  
 552 macromolecules. **B.** Working mechanism behind probe compression: The excluded volume  
 553 excluded (orange) reduces due to crowding. This is caused by i) increasing the translational  
 554 degrees of freedom for the crowders; and ii) an osmotic pressure difference (depletion force)  
 555 between the bulk and the crowder-inaccessible volume within the probe. **C.** Immobile  
 556 crowders do not affect the behavior described in Fig 4B. Additionally, spatial heterogeneity  
 557 increases the distance between probe and crowder and reduces frequency of collision. **D.** At  
 558 similar volume fraction, smaller crowders provide more entropy gain by virtue of number  
 559 density and larger osmotic pressure differences.

560