Evolutionarily Driven Domain Swap Alters Sigma Factor Dependence in Bacterial Signaling System

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Abstract

Functional diversity in bacteria is introduced by lineage-specific expansion or horizontal gene transfer (HGT). Using modular bacterial signaling systems as a template, we experimentally validate domain swapping of modular proteins as an extension of the HGT model. We take a computational approach to explore the domain architecture of two-component systems (TCS) in select pseudomonads. We find a transcriptional effector domain swap that reconstructed a duplicated sigma54-dependent TCS to a sigma70-dependent TCS. Through functional genomics approaches, we determine that the implicated TCSs are involved in consumption of short-chain carboxylic acids. We verify the relationship between the domain-swapped TCSs utilizing a

mutational screen, in which we switch the specificity of the sigma70-dependent TCS output to the

sigma54-dependent TCS input, and vice versa. Our findings suggest that this domain swap was

maintained throughout α-, β-, γ- proteobacteria, thus domain swapping has potential to lead to

fitness advantages and neofunctionalization.

Keywords

Domain swap; Two-component system; Response regulator; Bacterial evolution; Coevolution;

Specificity; Insulation; Protein-protein interaction; Transcriptional regulation; Sigma factors;

Sigma70; Sigma54; Protein-DNA interaction; DAP-seq; Functional genomics

Introduction

Bacteria use two-component systems (TCS) to sense and respond to signals in their

environments. In a canonical TCS, a histidine kinase (HK) is auto-phosphorylated by ATP upon

stimulation [1]. The phosphorylated HK can then engage in a phosphotransfer event to its cognate

response regulator (RR) [2]. Although sequences encoding TCSs can be highly redundant in a

single bacterial genome [3–7], biochemical and genetic evidence suggests that interactions between

HKs and RRs are conserved between cognate pairs. Coevolutionary events of duplication and

divergence have led to the apparent orthogonality of cognate pairs of HKs and RRs [8–16].

HKs and RRs are both modular proteins consisting of constant interacting domains, such

as histidine-phosphotransfer (HPt), specifically HisKA, and catalytic ATPase (CA) domains in the

HK and receiver (REC) domain in the RR (Figure 1a,b). Importantly, TCSs with HisKA domains

are usually highly insulated [16], while HKs from other families, for instance with HisKA_2 or HWE

domains, are otherwise promiscuous [17,18]. HKs and RRs are often found accessorized with a variety

of N-terminal input or C-terminal effector domains [3,19–23]. The input domains in HKs typically encode

for sensing functionality, whereas the appended domains in RRs confer output function. In the

context of the coevolution of TCS, the domains tethered to a pair of HKs and RRs are typically

carried through to descendants during the processes of lineage-specific evolution. However,

hypotheses of domain swapping in bacteria have emerged as a potential mechanism for the

diversification of TCSs [13,14,24,25].

In a domain swap the core parts of the TCS (HPt, CA, and REC domains) remain intact,

while the variable input or output domain is replaced by a different domain [24,25]. Domain swaps are

hypothesized to occur via horizontal gene transfer (HGT) and homologous recombination [25]. A

domain swap in a TCS can change the input or sensing parts of a HK, diversifying the molecular

inputs for the cascade [21,23], or it can alter the output domain of a RR, modifying the function of the

entire signalling cascade [19].

The output parts of RRs, the effector domains, dictate the final effect of a signaling

cascade. RRs can harbor output domains that lead to chemotactic responses [26,27], regulation of

small molecules such as cyclic nucleotides [28], or transcriptional regulation [4,19]. Transcriptional

effector domains (TEDs) interact primarily with DNA in a sequence-specific manner to regulate

the transcription of a gene. TEDs are diverse in structure, protein-DNA interaction, protein-protein

interaction, and function, and are therefore binned into separate sub-classes or families [19]. In this

study we predominantly observe TEDs associated with RRs that confer activation of genes with

sigma54 factors (AAA+ tethered to HTH_8, NtrC family), and regulation of genes with sigma70

factors (GerE, NarL family or Trans_reg_C, OmpR family) (Figure 1c).

We take a computational approach to explore the domain architecture of RRs in a select

set of pseudomonads, with the goal of identifying evolutionarily driven domain swaps. All

computational predictions are then substantiated by original experimental results. Our findings

lead us to observe a domain swapping event that altered the sigma factor dependence of a cluster

of carboxylic acid responsive sigma54-dependent, NtrC-like RRs native to proteobacteria.

Results

Phylogenetic analysis of TCS domains from Pseudomonas RRs reveals TED swap

We identified all RRs in five representative pseudomonads: *P. aeruginosa* PAO1, *P. stutzeri* RCH2, *P. putida* KT2240, *P. fluorescens* FW300-N2E2, and *P. fluorescens* FW300-N2C3. We subdivided these RRs by their output domains, taking into account only RRs with TEDs (Supplementary Table 1). The phylogenetic tree of the REC domains importantly agrees with a previously published tree of *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 REC domains [29]. Our results demonstrate that the REC domains of RRs do not clade by species, but instead clade by TEDs (Figure 2, left panel). This observation is consistent with the current understanding how highly redundant proteins evolve in bacteria [16,30]. A domain swap can be hypothesized when RRs of one family cluster with RRs of another. Such an event can be observed within the AAA⁺-HTH_8/NtrC-like cluster (red and green) of the REC phylogenetic tree, where REC domains with an alternative TED, GerE/NarL-like (blue) are present (Figure 2, left panel).

To test a coevolutionary hypothesis between HKs and RRs, we applied the same phylogenetic strategy to sequences of HPt-CA (HisKA-HATPase_C) domains of all of the HKs in the same *Pseudomonas* strains. We observed that the leaves of the HPt-CA tree predominantly cluster by the domain architecture of their cognate RRs (Figure 2, right panel). We noted that the cognate HKs for the major clade of NarL-like RRs are hybrid HKs (grey bars), whereas the cognate HKs of the NarL-like RRs within the swapped cluster are more similar in domain architecture to the Ntr-like HKs. These results suggest that our initial observation and hypothesis of a functional domain swap was probable.

We next wanted to determine the evolutionary distance of the domain swap, asking whether it was present in pseudomonads only, or all proteobacteria. Using representatives from α-, β-, γ-, and δ- proteobacteria, selected for their high proportions of NtrC-like and NarL-like RRs, we were able to recapitulate the results of the *Pseudomonas* REC domain-based phylogenetic

tree. The proteobacteria REC phylogenetic tree reveals that the swap is found in the select strains

of α-, β-, and γ- proteobacteria, but not observed in the selected δ-proteobacteria (Supplementary

Figure 1). This discrepancy could be the result of gene loss in the selected representatives, or it

could indicate that the swapped clade never existed in δ-proteobacteria. Notably, in the new view

of the tree of life [31], it is hypothesized that δ-proteobacteria are more distantly related to the rest

of the proteobacterial clade than previously thought. Together these results lead to the hypothesis

that a domain swap likely occurred at the cuspis of the proteobacteria (α-, β-, γ-) clade.

Determining the Functional Similarity of the RRs in the Swapped Cluster

104   While the phylogenetic analysis can be used to hypothesize a proteobacteria-specific

domain swap, it does not inform on the functionality of the representatives. Closer observation of

the swapped cluster reveals that there are four subclusters, three of which harbor AAA+ domains

(NtrC-like/sigma54-dependent) and one of which harbors a GerE domain (NarL-like/sigma70-

dependent) (Figure 2 (close-up panel)). We hypothesized that if the domain swap is real, then the

signal cascades of the representatives within the clade should have similar functional inputs or

outputs. We focused our efforts on the functions of the TCSs in *P. putida* KT2440, because it is a

well studied model strain with a readily available genetic toolkit to enable follow-up and validation

studies.

113   Because the domain swap occurs within the NtrC-like cluster, we were able to hypothesize

that the signaling cascades were likely involved in nutrient uptake of carbon or nitrogen sources

[32–35]. We also used the annotations of the representatives within the swapped cluster that had been

previously identified as amino acid or di-carboxylic acid sensors [33,36–38]. However the functions of

the NarL-like representatives were unknown. We therefore applied high-throughput functional

genomics to explore the input signals and output genes of all of the relevant TCSs represented

within the cluster.

We applied an automated pipeline of DNA-affinity purification tethered to next generation

sequencing (DAP-seq), commonly used to biochemically determine genomic sites of protein-DNA

interaction for transcription factors like RRs [39,40] (Supplementary Figure 2a), to the entire subset of

RRs in the swapped cluster. We found high-confidence DNA binding targets for all of the NtrC-

like RRs (Supplementary Figure 2b, Supplementary Data 1,2). Aligning the high-confidence

targets from all of the NtrC-like RRs enabled us to manually assign a binding motif to the

homologs. Using the motifs identified from the high-confidence homologous hits, we were able to

query each genome for additional DNA binding targets (Supplementary Figure 2b, Figure 3a,c).

This analysis enabled us to hypothesize gene targets for the NtrC-like TCSs PP_1066, PP_0263,

PP_1401 to be upstream of PP_2453, PP_1188, and PP_1400 respectively. For all predicted

binding targets see Supplementary Table 2. As we were only able to find genomic targets for

AO356_22615 and AO356_25435 from *Pseudomonas fluorescens* FW300-N2C3

(Supplementary Figure 2b, Supplementary Data 1,2), we were unable to identify a binding motif

or a conserved genetic output for the NarL-like RRs by this method.

To determine the input signals for the cluster, we utilized a dataset of randomly barcoded

transposon libraries for next generation sequencing (RB Tn-seq) of *P. putida* KT2440 grown with

single carbon sources [41]. The genes with low fitness scores (fitness < -2) under a given growth

condition have condition-specific essentiality [42,43]. We observed that the gene clusters harboring

the RRs of interest each had low fitness scores for growth with either glutamic acid, succinic acid,

a-ketoglutaric acid, or butyric acid (Figure 3a). We speculated that genes and their corresponding

TCSs with synonymous fitness values represented a signaling cascade where the input signal

was the carbon source. Using this dataset, we proposed that the NtrC-like RRs, PP_1066,

PP_0263, and PP_1401 are regulated by glutamic acid [38], succinic acid, and a-ketoglutaric acid

[36,37] respectively. We also hypothesized that the NarL-like RR, PP_3551, is regulated by butyric

acid. As we were not able to identify binding sites or a DNA binding motif for PP_3551, we relied

on the gene cluster and fitness data to hypothesize an output for the butyric acid responsive TCS

[44,45]. The neighboring gene PP_3553 demonstrated a low fitness score consistent with the TCS,

making it a good candidate for the signaling cascade's output.

From the above results we were able to generate hypotheses for the signals and the

regulated genes of the TCSs in question. To validate these hypotheses, we generated GFP

reporter strains by tethering the upstream regions (~200bp) of the hypothesized output genes to

a GFP coding sequence on a broad host range plasmid. The *P. putida* KT2440 reporter strains

responded to the proposed signals with increased fluorescence above background (Figure 3b).

In concert with our predictions, when the reporter strains were stimulated in genetic backgrounds

absent of the corresponding transcriptional RR, fluorescence response was ablated (Figure 3b).

Interestingly, we observed that the WT strain bearing the p2453 reporter plasmid was slightly

activated by cultivation in butyric acid, indicating either sensing promiscuity by PP_1066's cognate

HK, PP_1067, or cross-talk with PP_3552, the cognate HK for PP_3551. We also observed that

when p3553 was grown with glutamic acid, fluorescence decreased below the minimal media (-)

levels, leading us to hypothesize that there is another component either within or external to the

identified TCSs that downregulated GFP expression.

Taken together, these results show that all of the input signals for the RRs in the swapped

cluster are short chain carboxylic acids (Figure 3c). We propose that these TCSs regulate either

uptake genes for carboxylic acids or metabolic genes involved in the TCA cycle or beta-oxidation.

We noted that the signal for HK-RR-promoter (PP_3552-PP_3551-pPP_3553) was unknown until

this study. We therefore rename the REC paralogs in the extra-familial subcluster the Carboxylic

Acid Responsive TCSs, CarSR I, II, III, IV (PP_0263, PP_1066, PP_1401, PP_3551).

Exploring the sequence space of the RRs in the swapped cluster

We next explored whether the CarSR TCSs were closely related using a coevolution

hypothesis, which dictates that if HK-RR pairs interact then the interacting residues should

coevolve across orthologs. In this view, closely related TCSs share more sequence space than

do TCSs that are distantly related [13,16]. We applied co-variance analysis [46,47] to HPt-CA-REC domains

of cognate HK-RR pairs to identify co-varying residues (Supplementary Figure 3) between HPt-

CA and REC domains. Our results are consistent with previous studies [10,15], where the first alpha

helix of the REC domain, previously shown to share points of contact with HPt domain [48], contained

the highest scoring residues. Importantly, the CarR cluster is well-insulated within the broader

NtrC-like, sigma54-dependent, cluster of the REC phylogenetic tree (Figure 2b,c), indicating that

its closest relatives are NtrC-like. We hypothesized that if the NarL-like and NtrC-like RRs in the

CarR subcluster could be engineered to switch specificity, despite their differences in TEDs and

sigma factor preference, then it was more likely that the RRs in the cluster share REC sequence

space.

To test if we could switch the specificity of the extra-familial CarR RRs, we applied site

directed mutagenesis at the positions of the predicted interacting sites to both PP_1066 (hereafter

referred to as RR_g) and PP_3551 (hereafter referred to as RR_b) (Figure 4a). Native or mutant RRs

(indicated by *) were expressed under the control of an arabinose inducible system (pBAD) and

GFP was driven by either the glutamic acid or butyric acid responsive promoters, hereafter

referred to as pRR_g (p2453) and pRR_b (p3553). To validate the use of the single plasmid system,

we complemented the ΔRR_g or ΔRR_b background strains with heterologous expression of RR_g or

RR_b. We determined that both of the heterologous RRs can respond to their expected signal in a

dose-dependent manner (Supplementary Figure 4). To ensure that there was no interference

between the two TCSs, the specificity-switch experiments were performed in double knockout

(dKO) background strains ($\Delta RR_g \Delta RR_b$). We observed leaky levels of GFP expression from native

RR_g-pRR_g in the dKO background in minimal media (-) (Figure 4b). In contrast, GFP expression

under the control of native RR_b-pRR_b in minimal media was tightly regulated (Figure 4b).

Consistent with our previous results (Figure 3b), we observed increased levels of GFP expression

when RR_g-pRR_g was grown with either glutamic acid and butyric acid (Figure 4b). We also

observed an increase in fluorescence when RR_b-pRR_b was grown with butyric acid, however we

did not observe the expected decrease in baseline fluorescence (Figure 3B) when RR_b-pRR_b was

grown with glutamic acid. When cultivated in minimal media with or without the addition of glutamic

acid, mutant RR_b*-pRR_b behaved like RR_g-pRR_g, demonstrating the characteristic leaky expression

in minimal media, and an increase in GFP expression in glutamic acid. However, when grown in

butyric acid, expression increased above the levels of growth in glutamic acid (Figure 4b). These

results suggest that RR_b* interacts with HK_g (PP_1067), but might also interact with HK_b (PP_3552)

when grown in butyric acid. GFP expression driven by RR_g*-pRR_g was leakier than its counterpart,

RR_b-pRR_b, which could be the result of either expression driven by a different promoter with

different dynamics or from interactions at a higher level of regulation. RR_g*-pRR_g demonstrated

the expected decrease in GFP expression below baseline observed in previous experiments

(Figure 3b) under glutamic acid growth conditions. Strikingly, RR_g*-pRR_g shows a statistically

significant increase in GFP expression when grown with butyric acid, suggesting that RR_g*

switched its specificity from HK_g to HK_b. Taken together, these results show, empirically, that

gradual changes in critical specificity determining residues made over time could be responsible

for the differentiation of the CarSR TCSs. Furthermore they demonstrate biologically relevant

evidence that these distinct extra-familial TCSs with different sigma factor dependencies, the

CarR RRs, are closely related.

Interrogating an alternative hypothesis

As an alternative to our working hypothesis, we conceived that if bacteria from other

distantly related phyla explored similar sequence space, the CarR subcluster could be derived

from HGT alone, and not a domain swap. To test this hypothesis, we queried the configuration of

RR families in bacterial phyla with high counts of NarL-like and NtrC-like RRs. Bacterial and

archaeal TCSs have been previously curated in a TCS census by Galperin et al. [19,49]. By querying

this dataset, we were able to find representative strains from Firmicutes, Bacteroides,

Acidobacteria, δ-Proteobacteria, and γ-Proteobacteria (*P. Putida* KT2440) that have high counts

of both NarL-like and NtrC-like RRs in their genomes (Supplementary Figure 5a). To test our

alternative hypothesis, we identified all RRs and their corresponding REC domains from the

representative species, made a REC domain-based phylogenetic tree, and mapped onto it the

corresponding RR family (Supplementary Figure 5b). We observed a similar configuration to

pseudomonads and proteobacteria trees (Figure 2b, Supplementary Figure 1), indicating that the

domain architecture we observe in present day bacteria is as ancient as the bacterial domain of

life, and the alternative hypothesis of HGT fails.

Observation of HK domain architecture in related TCS

On closer observation of the cognate HKs to RRs in the carboxylic acid sensing subcluster,

we found that the cognate HKs of the NtrC-like RRs are transmembrane bound with a d_Cache

domain and the cognate HKs to the NarL-like are cytosolic with a PAS domain. While both of

these sensing domains directly interact with small molecule ligands, they likely did not evolve

through lineage-specific expansion. To reconcile the discrepancy, we hypothesize that the HK

domain architecture observed in the pseudomonads carboxylic acid sensing subcluster is the

result of domain loss, where a common ancestor harbored both a periplasmic d_Cache domain

and a cytosolic PAS domain (Supplementary Figure 6). We anticipate that a closely related TCS

might exist in nature with the predicted domain architecture.

Discussion

In this work, we discover and provide evidence for a carboxylic acid sensing NtrC-like TCS

that underwent a domain swap, altering its sigma factor dependence (Figure 5). Our proposed

model assumes that an ancestral HK had promiscuous d_Cache and PAS carboxylic acid sensing

domains. Consistent with our characterization that the TCS senses carboxylic acids, both

d_Cache and PAS domains have been observed to interact directly with small molecules [50–52]. We

further propose that when the domain swap occured, the output gene was promiscuous within

carboxylic acid metabolism and could moonlight a beneficial function [53]. The *in vivo* mutational

screen provides evidence that insulated, extra-familial RRs within the same species share

sequence space and are closely related. In a previous study, an extra-familial specificity swap of

an Omp family HK enabled interaction with an Ntr family RR in *C. crescentus*, leading the authors

to hypothesize that a duplicated Ntr family TCS may have overlapped in sequence space with an

Omp family TCS [12]. Their results demonstrated how lineage-specific evolution of a duplicated TCS

facilitated insulation from unwanted cross-talk. In contrast, our work highlights how domain

swapping can alter the output TED (and classification) of an already well-insulated TCS.

NtrC-like RRs require sigma54 transcription factors to activate genes in their regulons,

whereas NarL-like RRs interact with sigma70. It is well documented that cellular levels of small

nucleotide, (p)ppGpp, in combination with the protein DksA heavily regulate RNA polymerase's

(RNAP) preference for sigma70 (housekeeping or extracytoplasmic function (ECF) family) [54–56] or

sigma54 [57–62]. While the exact environmental conditions needed for pseudomonads to reach the

appropriate levels of (p)ppGpp and DksA for sigma54 occupation of RNAP are unknown [61,63,64], it

can be reasoned that the switch is lifestyle dependent. We find the functional switch, resulting

from the identified domain swap, to be especially notable, because the TCSs implicated in this

study were found to be metabolite responsive systems, and could therefore play a major role in

survival and fitness. We speculate that the capability to consume carboxylic acids without the

regulatory constraints dictated by sigma factor dependence, may have given a fitness advantage

to the ancestral organism in which the swap originated.

Domain swapping in general is an important biological phenomenon that can impact all

domains of life [25]. Complicating our interpretation of bacterial evolution, HGT is known to mobilize

genes or entire gene clusters that can be subsequently integrated into foreign genomes [65–70]. The

narrative of HGT becomes even more entwined when we consider domain swapping. In this study

we applied a simple and straightforward strategy to identify domain swapping in a well-studied,

modular signalling system. While we focused our attention on a single domain swap, our results

(Figure 2, Supplementary Figures 1, 6) and results of previous studies [7,24] suggest that domain

swapping in TCS is prevalent. Our strategy, however, is not limited to signalling systems. Given

the potential ubiquity of domain swapping, we propose that this strategy can be applied to other

complex modular proteins and systems to detangle their intricate evolutions and cryptic functions.

Nature's pre-engineered enzymes and proteins provide attractive parts for practical

applications [71,72] and potential answers to plug-and-play biology via synthetic domain swapping [73,74].

One key and critical component of synthetic domain swapping is identifying domain boundaries

for a seamless swap [74–76]. In a previous study a library based approach was implemented to identify

domain boundaries between REC domains and TEDs for *E. coli* RRs, however their successes

were only shown for inter-family TED swaps [76]. In this study, we demonstrate that nature devised

the appropriate domain boundary between a REC domain and an extra-familial TED to engineer

a functional signaling cascade. Such evolutionarily driven domain swaps could be an untapped

source for identifying optimal domain boundaries in synthetic biology applications.

Taken together, this work establishes and validates domain swapping as a mechanism for

neofunctionalization of modular genes. By applying hypotheses grounded in the established

theories of evolution of TSCs, we were able to link an orphaned sigma70-dependent TCS to a

well-described family of sigma54-dependent TCSs. Our results validate the close relationship

between systems that would have otherwise been described as distantly related. Ultimately, our

work provides evidence for an extension to the current model of neofunctionalization to include

functional part sharing via domain swapping.

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Author Contributions

M.E.G., A.K., and H.Z. performed phylogenetic computational analyses; M.E.G. and L.R. designed and built expression strains for DAP-seq; M.E.G. developed and conducted the automated pipeline for DAP-seq experiments; A.K. analyzed DAP-seq data; M.E.G. ran co-variance analysis; M.E.G. and V.F. conducted and analyzed *in vivo GFP reporter* experiments;

320 M.E.G. designed the experiments and wrote the first draft. M.R.I. performed single carbon source

321 fitness assays. J.D.K. provided support and resources. A.M. provided resources supervision and

322 support. All authors reviewed and edited the final draft.

Declarations of Interest

324 J.D.K. has financial interests in Amyris, Lygos, Demetrix, Napigen and Maple Bio.

Figure and Figure Legends

328 Figure 1: ***Domain architecture of TCSs with transcriptional effector domains (TEDs):***

329 Modularity of canonical TCS in its genomic (A) and cellular (B) contexts. (C) RR families

330 designated by the domain architecture of transcriptional effector domains (TEDs) found in TCS

331 relevant to this study annotated by their cellular function.

Figure 2: **Phylogenetic analysis of TCS domains from *Pseudomonas* RRs reveals TED domain swap:** Phylogenetic trees of REC (left) and HPt-CA (right) domains of RRs and HKs from select Pseudomonads. Trees are annotated with species and transcriptional effector domain (TED) at the leaves. Hybrid HKs on the HPt-CA tree are highlighted in grey, and are notably associated with TCS that have GerE TEDs. The domain swap at the focus of this work is highlighted in black. A close-up of the domain swap cluster for REC (left) and HPt-CA (right)

domains trees annotated with protein name and/or TED. Lines are drawn to match predicted

cognate HK-RR pairs.

Figure 3: *Determining the functional similarity of the RRs in the swapped cluster*: (A)

Heatmap of fitness data for TCS gene clusters within the domain swapped cluster. A low fitness

score (fitness< - 2) indicates a gene has condition-specific essentiality. DAP-seq results are

briefly summarized with a red box upstream of the gene in which an orthogonal DNA binding motif

was identified. (B) GFP reporter plasmids in WT and ΔRR backgrounds were grown in minimal

media with glucose plus a second carbon source - glutamic acid, a-ketoglutaric acid or butyric

acid. Fluorescence was measured by flow cytometry and measurements are reported as GFP

Mean x 10^3 after gating. Statistical significance was determined between conditions by t-test (* =

p-value < 0.05, n.s. = not significant). (C) Summary of findings from functional genomics studies.

The relationship of the *P. putida* TCSs is shown by a pruned phylogenetic tree to the left, and

results, RR family, validated sigal, signal chemical structure, validated regulated genes,

orthogonal binding motif identified by DAP-seq are drawn as a table to the right. If the findings

were not validated by reporter assay, the results are displayed in grey.

Figure 4: ***Exploring the sequence space of the RRs in the swapped cluster:*** (A) Sequence alignments of native RRs PP_1066 (RR$_g$), PP_3551 (RR$_b$), and mutated RRs PP_1066* (RR$_g$*), PP_3551* (RR$_b$*). Residues with high co-variance scores > 1.1 are marked in a grey background and red text for RR$_g$-derived residues or blue text for RR$_b$-derived residues. Structural information for the REC domain is shown below the sequences, where arrows are β-barrels and ribbons are α-helices. (B) RR$_g$, driving glutamic acid responsive promoter (pRR$_g$) switches its specificity to butyric acid responsive when mutated to RR$_g$*. RR$_b$, driving butyric acid responsive promoter (pRR$_b$) partially switches its specificity to glutamic acid responsive when mutated to RR$_b$* . Statistical significance was determined between conditions by t-test (* = p-value < 0.05, n.s. = not significant).

Figure 5: ***Proposed route for evolution of carboxylic acid sensing TCS with alternative***

sigma factor dependence: Within an ancestral host, an Ntr-like TCS with carboxylic acid sensing

capabilities was duplicated. A transcription factor with a GerE DNA binding domain recombined

with the duplicated gene to form an active and functional Ntr-like TCS with a GerE DNA binding

domain. Both TCSs encoded in the same genome undergo duplication, divergence, and domain

loss to achieve insulated pathways with insulated signal detection. Each system in its modern

form can detect unique carboxylic acids and activate unique sets of genes. The key difference

between the related systems is they interact with different types of promoters either sigma54 or

sigma70, which are known to be active under different environmental constraints. We hypothesize

that the ancestral strain in which the domain swap originated might have benefited from a lack of

environmental constraints against consuming available environmental resources.

Methods

Phylogenetic analysis of REC and HPt-CA trees

RRs and HKs were identified with hmmsearch from HMMER v3.1b2 [77] to search for all proteins with Response_reg (PF00072) and HisKA (PF00512) domains. Alternatively, HKs and RRs were identified with the Microbial Signal Transduction database (MISTDB) [78]. Using HMMER again, we queried the domain architecture of the signaling proteins and selected for RRs with HTH_8, Trans_reg_C, AAA+, GerE, HTH_18 (AraC) domains. REC and HPt-CA domain sequences were extracted from whole sequences based on coordinates determined by the hmmsearch. Domains were aligned using the MAFFT-LINSI algorithm from MAFFT v7.310 [79]. Phylogenetic trees were constructed using FastTree 2 [80]. Trees were visualized and annotated using python based ETE3 [81].

Automated DNA affinity purification - seq

DNA preparation for NGS

Pseudomonas isolates were cultured in either LB or minimal media (see Supplementary Table 3 for strain specific minimal media recipes). Genomic DNA was purified with a promega wizard genomic preparation kit (Promega, Madison, WI). DNA was sheared with covaris miniTUBE (Covaris, Woburn, MA) to an average size of 200 bp. The DNA quality was confirmed by Bioanalyzer high sensitivity DNA kit (Agilent, Santa Clara). Sheared DNA was then adapter-ligated (AL) with NEBnext Ultra ii Library Preparation kit (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA). AL-DNA quality was again confirmed by Bioanalyzer high sensitivity DNA kit (Agilent, Santa Clara). AL-DNA was stored at -20˚C until required for downstream use.

Expression Strain Design

Pet28 expression vectors with N-terminal 6x-His-tagged RRs were cloned by Gibson assembly [82].

Plasmid design was facilitated by j5 DNA assembly design [83] (diva.jbei.org), see Supplementary

Table 4 for primers.

Automated DNA affinity purification

Quadruplicates of expression strains were grown in autoinduction media (Zyp-5052 [84]) at 37˚C,

250 RPM, for 5-6 hours and then transferred to grow at 17˚C, 250 RPM, overnight. Cell pellets

were harvested and lysed at 37˚C for 1 hour in a lysis buffer (1X TBS, 100 µM PMSF (Millipore

Sigma, Burlington MA), 2.5 units/mL Benzonase nuclease (Millipore Sigma, Burlington MA), 1

mg/mL Lysozyme (Millipore Sigma, Burlington MA)). Lysed cells were then clarified by

centrifugation at 3214 x g and further filtered in 96-well filter plates by centrifugation at 1800 x g.

To enable high-throughput processing, protein-DNA purification steps were performed with IMAC

resin pipette tips (PhyNexus, San Jose, CA) using a custom automated platform with the Biomek

FX liquid handler (Beckman Coulter, Indianapolis, IN). The expressed RRs were individually

bound to metal affinity resin embedded within the IMAC resin pipette tips and washed in a wash

buffer (1X TBS, 10 mM Imidazole, 0.1% Tween 20). The bead bound RRs were then mixed with

60µL of DNA binding buffer (1X TBS, 10 mM magnesium chloride, 0.4 ng/µL AL-DNA, with or

without 50 mM acetyl phosphate (split into duplicates)). The protein bound to its target DNA was

then enriched in an enrichment buffer (1X TBS, 10 mM Imidazole, 0.1% Tween 20) and eluted in

an elution buffer (1X TBS, 180 mM Imidazole). The elution was stored at -20˚C for a minimum of

one day and up to a week before proceeding to the NGS library generation. See supplementary

methods for detailed protocol.

NGS Library Generation

3.2 µL of the elution from the previous step was added to 3.5 µL SYBR green ssoAdvanced

(Biorad, Hercules, CA) and 0.15 µL of each dual indexed NGS primers. NGS libraries were

prepared by following the protocols for fluorescent amplification of NGS libraries [85]. Pooled libraries

were sequenced by Illumina NovaSeq 6000 SP (100 cycles) (Illumina, San Diego, CA).

DAP-seq data analysis

Sequenced reads were processed by a computational DAP-seq analysis pipeline as follows.

Adapters and low-quality bases were trimmed and reads shorter than 30 bp were filtered out using

Trimmomatic v.0.36 [86]. The resulting reads were checked for contamination using FOCUS [87]. Then

the reads were aligned to the corresponding *Pseudomonas* spp. genome using Bowtie v1.1.2 [88]

with –m 1 parameter (report reads with single alignment only). Resulting SAM files were converted

to BAM format and sorted using samtools v 0.1.19 [89]. Peak calling was performed using SPP

1.16.0 [90] with false discovery rate threshold of 0.01 and MLE enrichment ratio threshold of 4.0.

Enriched motifs were discovered in genome fragments corresponding to the peaks using MEME

[91] with parameters –mod anr –minw 12 –maxw 30 –revcomp –pal –nmotifs 1. Source code of the

DAP-seq analysis pipeline is available at https://github.com/novichkov-lab/dap-seq-utils.

For conserved RRs with small numbers of high-confidence peaks (1-2 per genome), binding

motifs were predicted manually by comparative genomics approach. Orthologous RRs were

identified by OrthoFinder2 [92]. For each of orthologous RRs, one genome fragment corresponding

to the peak with the highest enrichment value was selected for motif search. Conserved motifs

were discovered using the SignalX tool from GenomeExplorer package [93] with the "inverted repeat"

option.

Fitness Experiments

The *Pseudomonas putida* KT2440 RB-TnSeq library, JBEI-1 [94], was thawed, inoculated into 25

mL of LB medium supplemented with kanamycin, and grown to OD_{600} of 0.5. Three 1 mL

samples were taken after this step to serve as t_0 records of barcode abundance. The library was

then washed via centrifugation and resuspension in an equal volume of MOPS minimal medium.

The washed cells were then diluted 1:50 in MOPS minimal medium with 10 mM L-glutamate

serving as the sole carbon source. The library was cultured in a 96-well deep well plate sealed

with a gas permeable membrane (VWR, USA). The plate was shaken (700 rpm) in an INFORS

HT Multitron (Infors USA Inc.) at 30 °C for 24 hrs. Duplicate 600 μL samples were then

combined and BarSeq analysis was conducted as described previously [42,95,96].

Single carbon source fitness data is available at http://fit.genomics.lbl.gov [41].

Co-variance analysis

Cognate RRs and HKs from *Pseudomonas* and *E. coli* strains were identified as pairs if they were

found neighboring each other in their respective genomes. HPt (HisKA), CA (HATPase_C), and

REC (Response_reg) domain boundaries were determined with hmmsearch from HMMER

v3.1b2 [77]. Fasta files of concatenated HPt-CA-REC domains from cognate and randomized HK-

RR pairs were aligned with the MAFFT-LINSI algorithm from MAFFT v7.310 [79]. Alignment files

were then queried for coevolution with the ProDy *Evol* suite [46,47] in python and were plotted in a

heatmap. The highest scoring residues > 1.1 were used to inform hypotheses for specificity switch

strains.

GFP reporter strain generation and assays

Knockout strain generation

1000bp homology fragments upstream and downstream of the target gene were cloned into

plasmid pKS18. Plasmids were then transformed into E. coli S17 and then mated into P. putida

via conjugation. Transconjugants were selected for on LB agar plates supplemented with 30

mg/ml kanamycin and 30 mg/ml chloramphenicol. Transconjugants were then grown overnight

on LB media and were then plated on LB agar with no NaCl that was supplemented with 10%

(wt/vol) sucrose. Putative deletions were screened on LB agar with no NaCl supplemented with

10% (wt/vol) sucrose and LB agar plate with kanamycin. Colonies that grew in the presence of

sucrose but had no resistance to kanamycin were further tested via PCR with primers flanking

the target gene to confirm gene deletion.

GFP reporter strains

Promoter boundaries for p2453, p1400, p3553 were identified as the region just upstream of the

gene's start codon up until the start or stop codon of the next nearest gene. The promoters were

cloned upstream of GFP on a broad host range plasmid with BBR1 origin and Kanamycin

resistance with Gibson cloning [82], primers in Supplementary Table 4. The plasmids were

transformed into *P. putida* KT2440 or *P. putida* KT2440 mutant strains by electroporation. Three

biological replicates of each strain were cultured in LB and stored with 25% (vol/vol) glycerol at -

80 ˚C. Complementation plasmids (GFP reporter plasmids with full length RR driven by pBAD

promoter and constitutively expressed AraC) were combinatorially built leveraging Golden Gate

cloning [97] and j5 DNA assembly design [83] (diva.jbei.org), primers in Supplementary Table 4. The

plasmids were transformed into knockout strains of *P. putida* KT2440 by electroporation. 3-6

biological replicates of each strain were cultured in LB and stored with 25 % (v/v) glycerol at -80

˚C.

RRs with switched specificity

Gene blocks (TWIST Biosciences, San Francisco, CA) of REC domains (Supplementary Table

3) with co-varying mutations (co-variation score > 1.1) were cloned into the complementation

plasmids with Gibson assembly [82]. The plasmids were transformed into *P. putida* KT2440 or

knockout strains of *P. putida* KT2440 by electroporation. Six biological replicates of each strain

were cultured in LB and stored with 25 % (vol/vol) glycerol at -80 ˚C.

GFP reporter Assays

Reporter strains were adapted to M9 minimal media (MM) (see supplemental methods for strain

specific minimal media recipes) supplemented with 0.5 % (wt/vol) glucose as the sole carbon

source in 3 overnight passages, and were stored in MM at -80˚C in 25 % (vol/vol) glycerol.

Adapted strains were cultured in MM + 0.5 % (wt/vol) glucose and passaged to MM + 0.5 %

(wt/vol) glucose with or without a second carbon-source (40 mM glutamic Acid, 40 mM a-

ketoglutaric acid, or 20 mM butyric acid, unless otherwise specified). After 24-hours of growth,

fluorescence was measured by flow cytometry on the BD Accuri C6 (BD Biosciences, San Jose,

CA). Autofluorescence was gated out with FlowJo (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA), using a non-

fluorescent strain of P. putida KT2440 carrying an empty vector plasmid for reference. To remove

noise, the GFP mean for samples with less than 150 events after gating was set to 0. Otherwise,

the GFP mean of the remaining events after gating was reported. Statistical significance was

determined by T-test between replicates.

Resource Availability

Data and Code Availability

Source code of the DAP-seq analysis pipeline is available at https://github.com/novichkov-

lab/dap-seq-utils

DAP-seq data is have been deposited in NCBI's Gene Expression Omnibus [98] and are accessible

through   GEO   Series   accession   number   GSE157075

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE157075)

Single carbon source fitness data is available at http://fit.genomics.lbl.gov

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