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Transcriptional organization and regulation of the

Pseudomonas putida flagellar system

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Running title: Regulation of *P. putida* flagellar genes

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ORIGINALITY-SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT

This is the first integrative study of the flagellar transcriptional cascade in

Pseudomonas putida. Our results provide a new transcriptional organization featuring

several operons with a nested architecture, detailed regulatory characterization of twenty-

two flagellar promoters and a novel hierarchy for the regulatory circuit of the flagellar

transcriptional cascade. The results presented represent a significant departure from

previous models for other related bacteria. High conservation of flagellar gene organization

and promoter sequences suggest that our observations may be relevant to other

pseudomonads.

SUMMARY

A single region of the *Pseudomonas putida* genome, designated the flagellar cluster,

includes 59 genes potentially involved in the biogenesis and function of the flagellar system.

Here we combine bioinformatics and *in vivo* gene expression analyses to clarify the

transcriptional organization and regulation of the flagellar genes in the cluster. We have

identified eleven flagellar operons and characterized twenty-two primary and internal

promoter regions. Our results indicate that synthesis of the flagellar apparatus and core

chemotaxis machinery is regulated by a three-tier cascade in which *fleQ* is a Class I gene,

standing at the top of the transcriptional hierarchy. FleQ- and σ^{54}-dependent Class II genes

encode most components of the flagellar structure, part of the chemotaxis machinery and

multiple regulatory elements, including the flagellar σ factor FliA. FliA activation of Class III

genes enables synthesis of the filament, one stator complex and completion of the

chemotaxis apparatus. Accessory regulatory proteins and an intricate operon architecture

add complexity to the regulation by providing feedback and feed-forward loops to the main

circuit. Because of the high conservation of the gene arrangement and promoter motifs, we

believe that the regulatory circuit presented here may also apply to other environmental

pseudomonads.

INTRODUCTION

Motility allows bacterial cells to colonize new niches and escape from unfavourable habitats, minimizing the negative effects of competition and depletion of local resources (McDougald *et al.*, 2012). For many bacteria, motility is directed by flagella, complex molecular machines that enable swimming of individual cells in liquid and semi-solid media and collective swarming on humid surfaces by engaging in propeller-like rotation driven by the proton-motive force (Altegoer *et al.*, 2014; Kearns, 2010). The flagella-associated chemotaxis machinery, comprised of membrane-bound chemoreceptors and associated signal transduction proteins, promotes directional motion by controlling flagellar rotation in response to chemical gradients of attractants and repellents (Sourjik and Wingreen, 2012).

Bacterial flagella are proteinaceous appendages composed of over 30 different polypeptides (Altegoer *et al.*, 2014). Flagella are constituted of three functional units: the basal body, a rotary machine embedded in the cell envelope; the filament, a long and thin helical appendage that protrudes from the cells and acts as a propeller; and the hook, a rigid, curved element that connects basal body and filament. The basal body is the most complex of these units. In Gram-negative bacteria, it is comprised of five separate components: (i) the MS-ring, an annular structure bound to the cell membrane, provides support to the complete flagellar architecture; (ii) attached to the MS-ring, the cytoplasmic C-ring is the flagellar rotor and the target for functional regulation by the chemotaxis machinery; (iii) a hollow rod anchored to the MS-ring spans the cell envelope, connecting the basal body with and transmitting rotation to the outer components of the flagella; (iv) the double LP ring is bound to the peptidoglycan and outer membrane and acts as bushings for smooth rotation of the rod; finally, (v) the in-built flagellar type III secretion system (fT3SS) provides the functions necessary for the export of flagellar proteins through the flagellum itself. Associated to the periphery of the flagellar basal body, the stator complex fuels flagellar rotation by coupling inward proton or sodium transport to the generation of torque (Chevance and Hughes, 2008; Terashima *et al.*, 2008). As documented thoroughly in

Escherichia coli and *Salmonella*, flagellar assembly is sequential, with the inner components of the basal body being assembled first, followed by components of the rod, LP ring and hook, which cannot be exported until the functional fT3SS is completed. Subsequent assembly of the filament proteins is preceded by a shift in fT3SS specificity triggered by completion of the hook structure. Finally, the accessory stator and chemotaxis complexes are assembled. The structure and assembly of the flagella have been reviewed thoroughly elsewhere (Altegoer *et al*., 2014; Chevance and Hughes, 2008; Evans *et al*., 2014).

Gram-negative bacteria differ with respect to the number of flagella, their distribution across the surface and the transcriptional organization and regulation of the flagellar genes. Although flagellar genes are scattered in the genomes of some organisms, most often they are grouped in one or a few genomic regions (Smith and Hoover, 2009). *Pseudomonas putida* is a well-studied soil bacterium endowed with extraordinary metabolic versatility that has become a model organism for biodegradation of organic toxicants and an attractive platform for biofilm-based industrial applications (Gross *et al*., 2007; Li *et al*., 2007; Martins Dos Santos *et al*., 2004). *P. putida* shows lophotrichous flagellation, consisting of a tuft of 5 to 7 flagella at a single pole (Harwood *et al*., 1989). In the reference strain KT2440, most structural components of the flagella, the core chemotaxis signal transduction system and a number of dedicated regulatory proteins are encoded in a ~70 kbp chromosomal region known as the flagellar cluster (**Fig. 1A**). Additional genes encoding a second stator complex (Toutain *et al*., 2005), several paralogs of the core chemotaxis components (García-Fontana *et al*., 2013) and a set of 27 chemotaxis chemoreceptors (Corral-Lugo *et al*., 2016) are scattered elsewhere in the genome.

The biosynthesis of bacterial flagella is a complex and ordered process that mirrors the assembly sequence (Smith and Hoover, 2009). In order to achieve the correct temporal regulation of flagellar genes so that the structural protein are produced as they are required for assembly of the nascent flagellum, bacteria use hierarchically organized regulatory circuits in the form of a transcriptional cascades (Smith and Hoover, 2009). Little is known

about the transcriptional organization and regulation of the flagellar genes in most members of the genus *Pseudomonas*, and much of it has been extrapolated from the transcriptional cascade of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* described in the seminal work of Dasgupta *et al*. (2003). In this organism, the flagellar genes are organized into four classes to reflect the timing of their expression and the transcription factors involved in their regulation. Class I genes, encoding the master regulator FleQ and the flagellar σ factor FliA, stand at the top of the hierarchy and are not regulated by any of the dedicated flagellar transcription factors. Class II genes encode the cytoplasmic and membrane-bound components of the basal body, the fT3SS, the two-component system FleSR and the auxiliary regulatory proteins FleN and FlhF, involved in control of the number and polar location of the flagella, respectively. Genes in this class are activated by FleQ in a σ^{54}-dependent fashion. Class III genes encode the structural components of the rod, the outer LP ring and the hook, and their expression is also σ^{54}-dependent and activated by FleR. Finally, Class IV genes, encoding the filament proteins, the core components of the chemotaxis apparatus and the stator complex are dependent on the flagellar σ factor FliA. In *P. aeruginosa* FleQ activation of the Class II genes is antagonized by the auxiliary protein FleN and the second messenger c-di-GMP (Dasgupta *et al*., 2000). The histidine kinase FleS likely activates the response regulator FleR by phosphorylation (Dasgupta *et al*., 2003), although the involvement of FleS in flagellar gene regulation has recently been questioned (Zhou *et al*., 2021) and the signals and relevant conditions have not yet been explored. FliA sequestration by the anti-σ factor FlgM prevents premature activation of the Class IV promoters (Dasgupta *et al*., 2003; Frisk *et al*., 2002). FliA inhibition is likely released by FlgM secretion through the fT3SS upon completion of the hook, as shown first in *Salmonella* (Karlinsey *et al*., 2000), although experimental evidence of this phenomenon in *P. aeruginosa* is still lacking. In addition, the anti-σ factor antagonist HsbA has been shown to prvent FlgM inhibition by a partner-switching mechanism. HsbA activity is in turn regulated by HsbR and HptB in response to

as of yet unknown signals (Bhuwan *et al*., 2012)**.** The *P. aeruginosa* flagellar system and its regulation was reviewed recently (Bouteiller *et al*., 2021).

The *P. putida* KT2440 genome encodes all the known elements involved in flagellar regulation in *P. aeruginosa*, and previous work from our group and others has confirmed the role of FleQ as the master regulator of the flagellar cascade and the role of the σ factor FliA activating the expression of some late flagellar genes (Blanco-Romero *et al*., 2018; Jiménez-Fernández *et al*., 2016; Rodríguez-Herva *et al*., 2010; Wang *et al*., 2018). Recently, ChIP-seq studies suggested that FleQ may bind *in vivo* upstream from genes encoding components of the basal body (FlhA, FlhB, FlgA, FlgB, FlgF, FlgG), the hook (FliE*,* FliK), the motor protein MotB, the anti-σ factor FlgM and some chemotaxis elements (CheV, PP2310, PP4888) (Blanco-Romero *et al*., 2018), but the outcome of such interaction in terms of transcriptional regulation has not been explored. Our recent work has clarified the transcriptional organization, promoter arrangement and regulation of the *flgAMNZ* and *flhAF-fleN-fliA* operons (Navarrete *et al*., 2019; Wirebrand *et al*., 2018). Nevertheless, an integrated model of the *P. putida* flagellar cascade comparable to that of *P. aeruginosa* is as of yet unavailable.

The present study clarifies the transcriptional organization of the flagellar cluster and the regulatory circuit controlling flagellar synthesis in *P. putida*. Our results support a transcriptional circuit in which the temporal regulation of the flagellar components is achieved by the combination of a three-tier transcriptional cascade and several feedback and feed-forward loops to fine-tune gene expression according to the assembly status and relevant physiological and environmental cues.

RESULTS

A cluster of 59 flagella-related genes is highly conserved in *Pseudomonas* spp.

In order to identify the complete set of genes related to flagellar motility and chemotaxis within the flagellar cluster, we have revised the annotation in the light of recent experimental evidence. ORF PP_4328 encodes a protein of unknown function showing similarity to the hook length control protein FliK. Transcription from the upstream promoter region is dependent on the flagellar σ factor FliA in *P. putida* (Jiménez-Fernández *et al*., 2016). Accordingly, we have designated this ORF *fliK2*. The ORF immediately downstream, PP_4329, is an ortholog of *flhX*, a gene identified in several bacterial genomes whose product resembles the C-terminal domain of the fT3SS protein FlhB (Pallen *et al*., 2005). A function of FlhX as a partial replacement for FlhB function has been documented in *Helicobacter pylori* (Smith *et al*., 2009; Wand *et al*., 2006). PP_4331 encodes an ortholog of *Vibrio cholerae* FlrD, an auxiliary protein to transcriptional regulation by FlrBC, the *V. cholerae* counterparts of *Pseudomonas* FleSR (Moisi *et al*., 2009). Similarly, PP_4333 and PP_4334 encode orthologs of the *Vibrio* spp. ParP and ParC proteins, required for polar localization of the chemotaxis complexes (Ringgaard *et al*., 2018). Finally, PP_4362, PP_4363 and PP_4364 encode orthologs of *P. aeruginosa* HptB, HsbR and HsbA, involved, along with the anti-sigma factor FlgM, in posttranslational regulation of FliA (Bhuwan *et al*., 2012). Our results suggest that at least 59 of the genes present in the cluster are potentially related to the flagellar function (**Fig. 1A; Supplementary Table S1**). In contrast, we have been unable to establish such functional relationship for the seven consecutive ORFs (PP_4345 to PP_4350 and PP_5673) with unusually low G+C content located upstream from *flhA*, or for the single ORFs PP_4330, PP_4379 and PP_4387 (**Fig. 1A**).

We have examined the conservation of the flagellar cluster in 550 genomes available online at the *Pseudomonas* Genome Database (Winsor *et al*., 2016); available at pseudomonas.com). Precomputed ortholog analyses revealed that 51 of the genes were conserved in all the genomes analyzed, 7 were conserved in over 90% of the genomes, and

a single gene, *fliT,* for which members of two separate ortholog groups were found, was conserved in 80% of the genomes. High conservation of the 59-gene set likely suggests that it encodes an integral part of the flagellar apparatus in the vast majority of members of the genus *Pseudomonas*. Synteny analysis performed on 401 of the genomes revealed nearly universal conservation of the gene order and orientation of the flagellar cluster, with very few exceptions (complete analysis in **Supplementary File S1**). Based on the chromosomal location of the flagellar cluster genes, we have defined four groups encompassing most of the genomes analyzed (**Fig. 1B; Supplementary File S1**). In Group I, including multiple *P. putida* and *Pseudomonas syringae* strains among others, all genes are found in a single chromosomal region in the same order and orientation as in *P. putida* KT2440. Group II, including strains of *Pseudomonas fluorescens* and related species, bears the flagellar cluster split in two separate regions, with the split point between *flgF* and *flgE*. Exceptionally, the *fliK2-flhX* gene pair was not linked to the cluster in some members of groups I and II (e.g., *P. syringae* and *Pseudomonas savastanoi* strains) In Group III, which includes most *Pseudomonas stutzeri* strains examined, the cluster is disrupted between *fliC* and *flgL*, and in ~70% of the cases, also between *fleQ* and *fliT*, resulting in the location of their flagellar clusters in two or three separate chromosomal regions. Finally, Group IV, encompassing most *P. aeruginosa* strains, displays the only major disruption in the synteny of the cluster: the genes *hptB*, *hsbR* and *hsbA* are found downstream from *cheR* in one chromosomal location, while segments containing *fliK2* to *fliK* and *fliJ* to *flgB* are located in two additional chromosomal regions. A similar analysis revealed that orthologs of *motA* and *motB*, the only structural flagellar genes not linked to the *P. putida* flagellar cluster, are present in nearly all the *Pseudomonas* genomes analyzed, in a separate chromosomal location, in the order *motAB*, and almost invariably linked to the gene *rsgA* and the orthologs of the KT2440 ORF PP_4906 (**Supplementary File S1**).

Flagellar clusters generally include additional genes; some are related to covalent modification of the flagella or are the result of duplication of specific genes in the cluster (

Dasgupta *et al*., 2003), while others appear unrelated to flagellar function. Synteny analysis

also revealed that insertion of additional genes occurs preferentially at some of the split

points noted above (*flhB2-flrD*, *hsbA-fliJ*, *fliC-flgL*, *flgF-flgE* and *flgB-cheR*), along with the

flhA-flhB and (less commonly) the *fliE-fleR* intergenic region (**Fig. 1B; Supplementary File**

S1).

Taken together, the results of our analysis suggest that *Pseudomonas* genomes have

evolved to preserve the sequence and organization of a set of 59 genes related to the

flagellar function. Accordingly, most genes in the cluster are found in the same genomic

neighborhood in all the genomes analyzed, and disruption of synteny occurs almost

exclusively in a few specific locations.

Transcriptional organization of the *P. putida* KT2440 flagellar cluster

As a first approach to the identification of the transcriptional units present at the

KT2440 flagellar cluster, we analyzed the coverage obtained in a strand-specific RNA-seq

experiment (**Fig. 2A, C and E**). We observed continuous, uninterrupted strand-specific

transcription, as expected for genes co-transcribed as an operon, in ten regions containing

flagellar genes within the cluster: *fliK2-flhB2* and *flgAMNZ* at the top strand, and *flhAF-fleN-*

fliA-cheYZAB-motCD-parCP-cheW-flrD, *hsbAR-hptB-fliKLMNOPQR-flhB*, *fliHIJ*, *fliEFG*,

fliC-flaG-fliDST-fleQSR, *flgFGHIJKL*, *flgBCDE-pp4387*, and *cheV-cheR* at the bottom

strand. Continuous bottom strand transcription was also observed at a region spanning

motA and *motB* (**Supplementary Fig. S1**). Since the neighboring genes are transcribed

from the top strand, these results suggest that *motA* and *motB* are co-transcribed as a

bicistronic operon.

In contrast to our RNA-seq results, the fourteen-gene string running from *flhA* to *flrD* is

broken into seven separate transcriptional units in *P. aeruginosa* (Dasgupta *et al*., 2003).

On the other hand, our recent work showed that at least *flhA*, *flhF*, *fleN* and *fliA* are part of

the same operon in *P. putida* (Navarrete *et al*., 2019). To test the validity of the transcriptional

organization inferred from the RNA-seq data, we performed RT-PCR with oligonucleotides

framing all intergenic regions larger than 3 bp from *flhA* to *flrD* and cDNA from *P. putida*

KT2442, a rifampicin-resistant derivative of KT2440, as a template (**Fig. 2B**) Amplification

was obtained from all of the intergenic regions tested, strongly suggesting that transcripts

initiated from P*flhA* span all fourteen coding regions down to *flrD*. This assay was also

performed with cDNA from MRB49, a KT2442 derivative bearing a polar miniTn*5*-Km

insertion in *flhF* (Navarrete *et al*., 2019). Transcription levels were diminished for all

intergenic regions downstream from the insertion down to *motD-parC*. Polarity was not

observed at the *parP-cheW* and *cheW-flrD* junctions. The loss of the polar effect in this

region and the increased transcription obtained in both the wild-type and mutant strain,

suggest the presence of an internal promoter activity. We note that one or more FliA-

dependent internal promoters may be present in this region and not be detected in this

background, as polarity of the *flhF*::miniTn*5*-Km mutation renders this strain FliA⁻ (Navarrete

et al., 2019).

Discrepancy with the transcriptional organization proposed for *P. aeruginosa* was also

observed at the regions spanning from *hptB* to *fliL*, *fliE* to *fliJ*, *fliC* to *fleR* and *flgA* to *flgZ*.

RT-PCR assays using KT2442 cDNA as a template and primers spanning the conflicting

intergenic regions confirmed co-transcription of *hptB*, *fliK* and *fliL* (**Fig.2D**) and *fliD*, *flaG*,

fliD, *fliS*, *fliT*, *fleQ* and *fleS* (**Fig. 2F**), and transcriptional termination at the *fliG-fliH* intergenic

region (**Fig. 2D**), consistent with the RNA-seq results. A similar RT-PCR analysis of the

flgAMNZ operon was previously published (Wirebrand *et al*., 2018). Altogether, the RNA-

seq and RT-PCR data and our previously published results (Navarrete *et al*., 2019;

Wirebrand *et al*., 2018) strongly suggest that the flagellar genes of the *P. putida* KT2440

flagellar cluster are transcribed as ten separate operons. In addition, at least two of the

operons contain internal promoters. Finally, an eleventh flagellar operon not linked to the

cluster spans the genes *motA* and *motB*.

***P. putida* flagellar promoters revealed by sequence alignment**

Given the high conservation of the flagellar cluster organization across the genus

Pseudomonas, we hypothesized that such conservation may also extend to the promoter

regions preceding each of the operons. To test this hypothesis, we performed sequence

alignments of the intergenic regions upstream from *fliK2*, *flhA*, *hsbA*, *fliH*, *fliE*, *fliC*, *flgF*, *flgB*,

cheV, *flgA* and *motA*, all of which are expected to bear the primary promoters for the operons

defined above. For this purpose, we used the genomic sequences of *P. putida* strains

KT2440 and F1, *P. syringae* pv tomato strain DC3000, *P. syringae* pv syringae strain B728a,

P. savastanoi pv phaseolicola strain 1448a, *P. fluorescens* strain SBW25 and *Pseudomonas*

protegens strain Pf5 (**Fig. 3, Supplementary Fig. S2; Supplementary File S2**). While the

general conservation of the intergenic sequences was modest, alignments revealed

conserved motifs showing high similarity to the σ^{54}-dependent promoter consensus (Barrios

et al., 1999) at the intergenic regions upstream from *flhA*, *fliE*, *flgF*, *flgB* and *flgA*. We also

found conserved sequences bearing similar to the FliA-dependent promoter consensus

sequence (Rodríguez-Herva *et al*., 2010) upstream from *fliK2*, *fliC* and *cheV*, the latter

located within the divergent *flgA* coding sequence. A motif resembling the σ^{70}-dependent

promoter consensus featuring an extended -10 and a poor -35 box (Bown *et al*., 1997) was

present upstream from *hsbA*. We observed that the intergenic region upstream from *fliH* was

too short to accommodate a promoter (<15 bp) in the *P. fluorescens*, *P. protegens*, *P.*

syringae and *P. savastanoi* strains used in the alignment. A survey of *P. putida* strains

revealed generally longer intergenic regions containing two copies of a repetitive extragenic

palindromic sequence previously documented (Aranda-Olmedo *et al*., 2002), but no obvious

similarity to known promoter consensus motifs. Yet, as our RNA-seq and RT-PCR results

predict that a promoter must be active upstream from *fliH*, we included this region in the

analyses below.

Because we have previously shown evidence of the presence of additional promoter

activities upstream of *flhF*, *fliS* and *flgM* (Jiménez-Fernández *et al*., 2016; Navarrete *et al*.,

2019; Wirebrand *et al*., 2018), we also assessed the presence of putative promoter motifs

by means of sequence alignment in multiple additional intergenic regions of the flagellar

cluster (**Fig. 3, Supplementary Fig. S2; Supplementary File S2**). Additional matches to

the σ^{54}-dependent promoter consensus were identified at the intergenic regions upstream

from *fliL*, *fliK* and *fleS*, while sequences showing conservation at the -24 but not the -12 motif

were found upstream from *fliD and flgZ*. We also identified conserved sequences matching

the FliA-dependent promoter consensus upstream from *fliS* and *flgM*, and a putative σ^{70}-

dependent promoter motif upstream from *fleQ*. Finally, putative internal promoters located

within the coding sequences of the preceding genes were also found upstream from *parC*

and *flhF* (σ^{54}-dependent), and *cheA* (FliA-dependent) In summary, this analysis revealed

twenty-one putative flagellar promoters. Twelve such regions bear matches to the σ^{54}

consensus, seven show similarity with the FliA consensus, and two more harbor putative

σ^{70} promoter motifs.

Strategy for analysis of the regulation of the *P. putida* flagellar cluster promoters

In order to characterize the expression from the putative flagellar promoters identified,

we expanded our pre-existing collection of *P. putida* promoter fusions (Jiménez-Fernández

et al., 2016) to include all the potential promoter regions identified. The selected regions

were cloned into the Gateway® vectors pMRB2 or pMRB3 to generate transcriptional fusions

to the reporters *gfp*-mut3 and *lacZ*, as previously described (Jiménez-Fernández *et al*.,

2016). All twenty-two *gfp-lacZ* fusion plasmids and the empty vector control pMRB1 were

transferred to selected *P. putida* strains by mating. Expression was subsequently monitored

along the growth curve by means of A_{600} and GFP fluorescence measurements in a

microtiter plate reader with temperature and shaking control capabilities. GFP fluorescence

was plotted *vs* A_{600} and differential rates of GFP accumulation during exponential growth

(d*fluorescence*/dA_{600}) were calculated from the slope of the linear fit of the plotted data

(Jacob and Monod, 1961) (**Supplementary Fig. S3**).

To assess the effect of different regulatory factors on flagellar/chemotaxis promoter transcription we used a subtractive approach in which we compared activity of the gene fusion constructs in the wild-type strain with that in mutants bearing deletions of single regulatory genes in an otherwise wild-type background. To this end, we chose the wild-type *P. putida* strain KT2442 and its mutant derivatives MRB52, MRB149, MRB71 and MRB93, bearing in-frame deletions of the *fleQ*, *rpoN*, *fleN* and *fleR* regulatory genes, respectively. To assess whether the observed regulatory effects are direct or indirect, we used an additive strategy. To this end, we constructed MRB130, a *P. putida* KT2442 derivative lacking the flagellar cluster (Δflagella), including all the regulatory elements therein. In this background, we inserted miniTn7 derivatives expressing regulatory elements ectopically to test their effect on the expression of the fusion constructs of the flagellar/chemotaxis predicted promoter regions in the absence of other components of the flagellar cascade. In this context, we interpreted restoration of expression in the presence of FleQ or FliA as evidence of direct interaction between each regulatory factor and the cognate promoter region.

P*fleQ* and P*fliH* transcription is not regulated by FleQ, FleR or FliA.

Analysis of the differential rates of GFP accumulation from the P*fleQ-gfp-lacZ* and P*fliH-gfp-lacZ* fusions revealed low expression levels (4.06±0.30 and 5.45±0.26 arbitrary units, respectively), indistinguishable from to the empty vector values (3.88±0.42 arbitrary units). As an alternative approach, expression was monitored by end-point β-galactosidase assays in exponential and stationary phase. Expression from both promoters was negligible in exponential phase, but the activity levels were substantially increased (4- to 5-fold) in stationary phase (**Fig. 4**). P*fleQ* and P*fliH* transcription was not significantly altered in strains lacking the transcription factors FleQ and FleR, or the auxiliary regulatory protein FleN. Using the additive approach we noted that the P*fleQ* fusion activity was 2-fold lower in the Δflagella strain in stationary phase. However, the wild-type expression levels were not restored by ectopic production of FleQ or FliA (**Fig. 4A**). P*fliH* expression was not affected by the deletion of the complete flagellar cluster or the ectopic production of FliA (**Fig. 4B**).

Taken together, these results suggest that the upstream regions of *fleQ* and *fliH* contain promoters that are poorly expressed in exponential phase, induced in stationary phase, and not significantly regulated by any of the known flagellar transcription factors.

Twelve flagellar promoters are directly regulated by FleQ

Analysis of the differential rates of GFP accumulation showed that all twenty additional flagellar promoters drove significant levels of transcription from the fusion constructs (**Figs. 5 and 6**). Fifteen of these fusions were clearly downregulated (2- to 41-fold) in the Δ*fleQ* strain, suggesting the direct or indirect involvement of FleQ in their regulation. Statistically significant regulation below the 2-fold threshold was also observed for the weakly active P*fliK*, P*fliD* and P*flgZ* promoter regions, and for P*flhF* and P*hsbA*, which showed relatively high levels of FleQ-independent expression. Taken together, our results are fully consistent with the notion that FleQ is the master activator of the synthesis of the vast majority of flagellar and chemotaxis components.

To identify which flagellar promoters are directly regulated by FleQ, we tested the expression of the set of FleQ-activated promoter fusions in the Δflagella strain bearing miniTn*7-nahR*-P*sal-fleQ*, which produces FleQ ectopically from the salicylate-inducible P*sal* promoter (**Figs. 5 and 6**). Preliminary assays showed that salicylate induction greatly decreased the growth rate and was not used in these experiments. Nevertheless, ectopic production of FleQ from uninduced P*sal* was sufficient to cause a great increase in expression (7- to 110-fold) from the P*parC*, P*flhF*, P*flhA*, P*fliL*, P*fliK*, P*fliE*, P*fleS*, P*fliD*, P*flgF*, P*flgB* and P*flgA* promoter fusions. Activity of the weak P*flgZ* was also increased (<2-fold) by ectopic expression of FleQ. These results suggest that FleQ interacts directly with these twelve promoter regions to activate transcription. All of these promoter regions were predicted to bear putative σ^{54}-dependent promoters based on the alignments shown above. Consistently, all fusions in this set showed reduced expression in the Δ*rpoN* background (**Fig. 5**), with the only exception of the P*fliD* construct, which harbors only a partial match to the σ^{54} consensus (also see below).

Expression from the twelve FleQ-activated fusions was also measured in a KT2442

derivative lacking the auxiliary regulatory protein FleN (**Fig. 5**). Fluorescence accumulation

from eleven of the twelve fusions was clearly increased (2- to 13-fold) in the Δ*fleN*

background. Exceptionally, a small (less than 2-fold) but statistically significant increase was

observed for the weak P*flgZ* promoter. These results support the notion that FleN

antagonizes FleQ activation of the flagellar promoters (Dasgupta and Ramphal, 2001). The

second messenger c-di-GMP has been shown to positively and negatively modulate FleQ

activity (Baraquet *et al*., 2012; Claudine and Harwood, 2013; Hickman and Harwood, 2008).

We also tested expression of the twelve fusions in *P. putida* strains that produce the

diguanylate cyclase PleD* or the phosphodiesterase YhjH ectopically, thus increasing or

decreasing the intracellular c-di-GMP concentrations. To this end, we chose a KT2442

derivative lacking the high molecular weight adhesin LapA, as c-di-GMP overproduction

provokes aggregation of LapA$^+$ *P. putida* (Jiménez-Fernández *et al*., 2016) that precludes

accurate absorbance and fluorescence measurements. Artificially decreasing the

intracellular c-di-GMP concentration led to expression levels comparable to those in the

unmodified wild-type strain in all cases (**Fig. 5**), suggesting that c-di-GMP levels are

naturally low under our experimental conditions. In contrast, all twelve fusions were

downregulated (2- to 20-fold) in the presence of high c-di-GMP levels. Taken together, our

results indicate that the P*parC*, P*flhF*, *flhA*, P*fliL*, P*fliK*, P*fliE*, P*fleS*, P*flgF*, P*flgB* and P*flgA*

promoters are dependent on the alternative σ factor σ^{54}, positively regulated by FleQ,

negatively regulated by FleN and inhibited by high c-di-GMP levels. Although we have not

been able to detect the σ^{54} dependence of P*fliD* coincidence of its behavior with the rest of

the set in every other regard suggest that this may be a limitation of the technique due to

the low expression levels of this promoter. Finally, P*flgZ*, another poorly expressed

promoter, exhibited a similar response to FleQ, FleN, σ^{54} and c-di-GMP, but the extent of

the regulation was modest in all cases.

FleR is not essential for flagellar function and flagellar gene expression

The FleSR two-component system is responsible for the activation of Class III flagellar genes in *P. aeruginosa* and other bacteria (Dasgupta *et al*., 2003; Echazarreta and Klose, 2019), but is not characterized in *P. putida*. To explore a possible function of FleSR in flagellar motility and the regulation of the flagellar cluster, we constructed MRB92 and MRB93, two KT2442 derivatives bearing in-frame deletions of *fleS* and *fleR*, respectively. Swimming assays were performed with the Δ*fleR* and Δ*fleS* mutant using the wild-type and Δ*fleQ* strains as positive and negative controls, respectively. The sizes of the swimming halos produced by the wild-type, Δ*fleR* and Δ*fleS* strains were indistinguishable, while no motility halo was obtained with the Δ*fleQ* mutant (**Supplementary Fig. S4**). These results indicate that FleR and FleS are not essential for flagellar motility, at least under our experimental conditions.

To determine the contribution of FleR to the regulation of the flagellar promoters, expression from the fusion set was also examined in the Δ*fleR* mutant (**Figs. 5 and 6**). Deletion of *fleR* had little or no significant effect on most flagellar promoters. However, a modest decrease in expression above the two-fold threshold was observed for the FleQ-dependent P*parC*, P*flgF* and P*flgB* promoters. These results suggest that FleR does not have a major role in the regulation of flagellar gene expression, but may contribute to fine-tune the expression of some flagellar operons.

Eight flagellar promoters are directly regulated by FliA

The additive approach was also used to assess which promoters of the flagellar cluster are directly regulated by the flagellar σ factor FliA. To this end, expression of the complete set of FleQ-regulated flagellar promoters was assessed in the Δflagella strain bearing miniTn*7*-*nahR*-P*sal*-*fliA*, which produces FliA ectopically from the salicylate-inducible P*sal* promoter. As with the FleQ-producing construct above, salicylate induction was detrimental to growth, but in the absence of salicylate, ectopic production of FliA stimulated expression (4- to 33-fold) from all seven promoter regions (namely P*fliK2*, P*cheA*, P*fliS*, P*fliC*, P*cheV*, P*flgM* and P*motA*) bearing matches to the FliA consensus sequence (**Fig. 6**). Ectopic

production of FleQ failed to alter the expression from any of these fusions, except for a

modest (2-fold) increase in P*fliK2* (**Fig. 6**). Conversely, ectopic production of FliA had little

or no effect (≤2-fold) on the expression of the twelve FleQ-regulated promoters above (**Fig.**

5). Although the FliA-dependent fusions were generally downregulated in the Δ*fleQ*, Δ*rpoN*

and Δ*fleN* backgrounds, P*fliC* expression was increased in the absence of FleN (**Fig. 6**).

Taken together, our results suggest that the promoters contained at the P*fliK2*, P*cheA*, P*fliS*,

P*fliC*, P*cheV*, P*flgM* and *motA* promoter regions are dependent on the alternative σ factor

FliA, and indirectly regulated by σ^{54} and FleQ. An additional promoter region not carrying an

evident match to the FliA consensus, P*hsbA*, showed a similar response pattern to FliA,

FleQ and σ^{54}, but the extent of the regulation was 2-fold or less in all cases and significant

basal transcription was observed in all backgrounds. We propose that this promoter region

may contain a weak, previously undetected FliA-dependent promoter and an additional FliA-

independent promoter activity.

DISCUSSION

The *P. putida* KT2440 flagellar cluster resides in a ~70 kbp chromosomal region encoding the vast majority of structural and regulatory flagellar proteins along with the core components of the chemotaxis machinery. Here we expand on our previous work (Jiménez-Fernández *et al*., 2016; Navarrete *et al*., 2019; Wirebrand *et al*., 2018) to identify the transcriptional organization of the *P. putida* KT2440 flagellar cluster and characterize the transcriptional regulation of twenty primary and internal promoters accounting for the expression of all but three relevant . The results presented provide (i) updated annotations and putative functions for seven flagellar genes; (ii) evidence of the transcriptional organization of the flagellar cluster in ten separate operons, while an additional operon, *motAB*, is not linked to the cluster; (iii) an inventory of twenty-two flagellar promoters, including eleven primary and eleven internal promoters; (iv) characterization of the regulation of all twenty-two flagellar promoters regarding their dependence on known flagellar transcription factors (FleQ, FleR, FliA, σ^{54}), the auxiliary protein FleN and the intracellular signalling molecule c-di-GMP; (v) a novel hierarchy for the transcriptional cascade controlling flagellar gene expression that differs significantly from those previously described; (vi) evidence of high conservation of the flagellar gene complement and organization in the genus *Pseudomonas*; and (vii) evidence of high conservation of the flagellar promoter motifs in a set of environmental *Pseudomonas*, suggesting that many of the results presented here may be applicable to this group of organisms.

We have defined the *P. putida* KT2440 flagellar cluster as the chromosomal region encompassing ORFs PP_4328 (*fliK2*) to PP_4397 (*flgZ*). These boundaries were established based on three lines of evidence. (i) High conservation: 51 of the flagellar genes are present in all the *Pseudomonas* genomes analyzed; the remaining 8 are found in at least 80%; (ii) conservation of gene arrangement: all flagellar genes are clustered in the same order in one to three chromosomal locations in most *Pseudomonas* genomes analyzed (**Supplementary File 1**); and (iii) experimental evidence of involvement in flagellar function:

all but one of the 59 flagellar genes in the cluster have been demonstrated to play roles related to assembly and operation of the flagellar and chemotaxis complexes in at least one organism. In addition to the genes previously annotated, we have been able to identify an ortholog to *H. pylori flhX*, encoding a small protein similar to the processed form of FlhB that determines the specificity switch of the fT3SS (Pallen *et al*., 2005). FlhX has been shown to partially complement FlhB function in *H. pylori* (Smith *et al*., 2009), but its actual role in flagellar assembly is not well understood. One more gene in the cluster is an ortholog of *V. cholerae flrD*, encoding a transmembrane signal transduction protein that stimulates transcriptional activation by the FlrBC two-component system (equivalent to FleSR) (Moisi *et al*., 2009). We have also identified orthologs of *Vibrio* spp. *parP* and *parC*, encoding two polar landmark proteins required for polar positioning of the chemotaxis arrays (Ringgaard *et al*., 2018). Finally, we have annotated the orthologs of *P. aeruginosa hptB*, *hsbR* and *hsbA*, encoding a phosphotransferase a response regulator and an anti-σ factor antagonist proteins. This system antagonizes FlgM sequestration of FliA by partner-switching mechanism (Bhuwan *et al*., 2012) and indirectly regulates biofilm formation by regulating the activity of the diguanylate cyclase HsbD (Valentini *et al*., 2016). In contrast, the function of *fliK2* is still uncharacterized. However, because *fliK2* is part of an operon with *flhX*, and its transcription is FliA-dependent in *P. putida*, we find it likely that it will eventually demonstrate to be a *bona fide* flagellar gene. With the updated annotation, we conclude that the conserved *Pseudomonas* flagellar cluster gene set encodes all the structural proteins of the flagellum (minus an additional flagellar motor encoded by the *motAB* operon elsewhere), all the elements required for flagellar assembly (including the complete fT3SS), all the core components of the chemotaxis apparatus, three dedicated transcription factors, seven auxiliary proteins to control their activity, three landmark proteins for the polar location of the flagellar and chemotaxis complexes, and one protein involved in functional regulation of flagellar rotation (**Supplementary Table 1**). We note that, in addition to the conserved gene

complement described here, some organisms bear species- or strain-specific flagellar genes in their clusters [e.g., genes for flagellin glycosylation (Dasgupta *et al*., 2003)].

The *P. putida* KT2440 flagellar cluster is organized in ten transcriptional units, with primary promoters located upstream from *fliK2*, *flhA*, *hsbA*, *fliH*, *fliE*, *fliC*, *flgF*, *flgB*, *cheV* and *flgA*. In addition, internal promoters are found upstream from *flhF*, *cheA* and *parC* at the *flhAF-fleN-fliA-cheYZAB-motCD-parCP-cheW-flrD* operon, upstream from *fliK* and *fliL* at the *hsbAR-hptB-fliKLMNOPQE-flhB* operon, upstream from *fliD*, *fliS*, *fleQ* and *fleS* at the *fliC-flaG-fliDST-fleQRS* operon and upstream from *flgM* and *flgZ* at the *flgAMNZ* operon (**Fig. 2**). Some of the promoters shown here were identified and partially characterized in our previous work (Jiménez-Fernández *et al*., 2016; Navarrete *et al*., 2019; Wirebrand *et al*., 2018)**.** Our results indicate that much of the *P. putida* KT2440 flagellar cluster is transcribed as part of long operons containing internal promoters. The recent development of high throughput RNA-sequencing techniques with the possibility of genome-wide mapping of transcriptional start and termination sites has revealed that nested operon architectures are much more common in bacterial genomes than expected (Conway *et al*., 2014; Vera *et al*., 2020; Warrier *et al*., 2018; Yan *et al*., 2018).

While the operon arrangement described here is generally reminiscent to that proposed for *P. aeruginosa* (Dasgupta *et al*., 2003), the *P. aeruginosa* cluster does not contain any operons with a nested architecture. Rather, the genes are grouped in shorter transcriptional units. We observe that the *P. aeruginosa* counterparts to the internal promoters shown here are regarded as primary promoters, which leads to the division of these operons into shorter transcriptional units. Whether this is the result of interspecies differences within *Pseudomonas* or a consequence of the different approaches used to characterize the transcriptional organization of these genes remains to be determined. However, it is noteworthy that long, nested flagellar operons have been described in other polarly-flagellated Gamma-proteobacteria (Y. K. Kim and McCarter, 2000; Prouty *et al*., 2001; Wilhelms *et al*., 2011; Wu *et al*., 2011).

The regulatory architecture of the flagellar transcriptional cascade has been elucidated in the polarly flagellated Gamma-proteobacteria *V. cholerae* (Prouty *et al*., 2001), *Vibrio parahemolyticus* (McCarter, 2001), *Vibrio campbelli* (Petersen *et al*., 2021), *Legionella pneumophila* (Albert-Weissenberger *et al*., 2010), *Aeromonas hydrophila* (Wilhelms *et al*., 2011), *Shewanella oneidensis* (Shi *et al*., 2014), *P. aeruginosa* (Dasgupta *et al*., 2003) and now *P. putida* (**Fig. 7**). Comparative analysis of the models proposed in these organisms suggests a number of common themes along with significant organism-to-organism variability even within the same genus. All the transcriptional cascades described are three- or four-tiered, with the transcription factor FleQ (also known as FlrA) at the top of the regulatory hierarchy. Accordingly, *fleQ/flrA* is invariably a Class I gene (i.e., its transcription does not require any of the dedicated flagellar transcription factors). Synthesis of FleQ/FlrA is likely activated in response to environmental and physiological cues that favor a motile lifestyle, but the conditions and regulatory mechanisms involved are generally not well understood. Regulation of *fleQ* expression in diverse *Pseudomonas* species may involve repression by the CRP ortholog Vfr (Dasgupta *et al*., 2002), AmrZ (Tart *et al*., 2006), OsaR (Ma *et al*., 2021) and activation by the AlgU-regulated antisense RNA *fleQ$_{as}$* (Markel *et al*., 2018). We have found that P*fleQ* is induced in stationary phase and not regulated by FleQ, FleR or FliA, suggesting that it belongs to Class I (**Fig. 4A**). Since transcription from P*fleQ* is not interrupted at the intergenic region between *fleQ* and *fleS* (**Fig. 2E and F**), *fleQ*, *fleS* and *fleR* must be considered Class I flagellar genes in *P. putida*, even though *fleS* and *fleR* are also transcribed from their own FleQ-dependent promoter. Although we have not explored regulation of the P*fleQ* promoter further, we note that the AlgU-dependent promoter motifs for *fleQ$_{as}$* are conserved in a wide range of *Pseudomonas* (Markel *et al*., 2018), and we observe significant levels of antisense transcription around the 5' end of *fleQ* coding sequence (**Fig. 2E**), suggesting that *fleQ$_{as}$* may also be produced and operate in *P. putida*. A second promoter, P*fliH* driving the synthesis of the secretion ATPase components FliH, FliI and FliJ, showed a similar behavior to P*fleQ*: its expression was low in exponential

phase, induced in stationary phase and unresponsive to any of the dedicated flagellar transcriptions factors (**Fig. 4B**). Accordingly, we also classify FliH, FliI and FliJ as Class I genes. We note that the presence of additional Class I genes other than the master regulation is not uncommon in polarly flagellated Gamma-proteobacteria (Dasgupta *et al*., 2003; Petersen *et al*., 2021; Wilhelms *et al*., 2011), and *flrB* and *flrC* are actually Class I genes in *V. campbellii* (Petersen *et al*., 2021).

FleQ activation of Class II genes sets in motion the assembly of the basal body (**Fig. 7**). Polar localization of the flagella is directed by the signal recognition particle-like GTPase FlhF (Schuhmacher *et al*., 2015). FlhF is likely the first flagellar gene product to locate to the cell pole and has been shown to recruit the first assembly building block, the MS-ring structural protein FliF, in *V. cholerae* (Green *et al*., 2009). As basal body assembly progresses, the MinD-like ATPase FleN (also known as FlhG) provides a negative regulatory loop by inhibiting the ATPase activity of FleQ, required for σ^{54} promoter activation (**Fig. 7**) (Baraquet and Harwood, 2013). Deletion of *fleN* provokes hyperflagellation and *fleN* overexpression prevents the synthesis of flagella (Schuhmacher, *et al*., 2015), suggesting that it may become active in response to an checkpoint that indicates that assembly of the correct number of flagella has been initiated. Recently, Blagotinsek *et al*., (2020) showed that FlhG is recruited to the flagellar pole as an inactive monomer by the C-ring protein FliM in *S. oneidensis*. Membrane-bound FlhG may then undergo ATP-induced dimerization to become active in a process that is stimulated by interaction with membrane lipids (Schuhmacher *et al*., 2015). The ATP-bound dimer is the form that interacts with FleQ to prevent Class II promoter activation (Baraquet and Harwood, 2013). Thus, assembly of the C-ring(s) may be the signal that triggers FleN-dependent inhibition of Class II promoter transcription. The extent of flagellar assembly enabled by FleQ-activated transcription is most often restricted to all or part of the early basal body (EBB) structures, namely the MS-ring, the C-ring and the fT3SS (Dasgupta *et al*., 2003; Khan *et al*., 2020). In contrast, we have shown that *P. putida* Class II genes encode all structural flagellar components except

for the filament. This arrangement is reminiscent of that proposed for *V. campbellii* (Petersen *et al*., 2021) and *S. oneidensis* (Shi *et al*., 2014).

An additional tier, Class III, activated by the FleSR (also known as FlrBC) two-component system is required in *P. aeruginosa*, *V. cholerae*, *V. parahemolyticus* and *A. hydrolitica* to complete the assembly of the components of the hook-basal body (HBB) complex (Dasgupta *et al*., 2003; Khan *et al*., 2020; Wilhelms *et al*., 2011). Activation of FleSR/FlrBC was recently shown to respond to the assembly of the EBB in *V. cholerae* and *P. aeruginosa* (Burnham *et al*., 2020), as previously observed with the Epsilon-proteobacteria *Campylobacter jejuni* and *Helicobacter pylori* (Boll and Hendrixson, 2013; Tsang and Hoover, 2015). Sensing of the assembly status may be mediated by FlrD, a membrane protein containing a HAMP domain that stimulates FlrBC-dependent activation in *V. cholerae* (Moisi *et al*., 2009). *P. putida* encodes orthologs of FlrD and FleSR (**Supplementary Table S1**). However, because transcription of all the HBB genes is directly dependent on FleQ, FleR is not essential for the assembly of functional flagella (**Supplementary Fig. S4**). Yet, we have shown that transcription from the P*flgB* and P*flgF* promoters, driving the synthesis of the structural rod, LP ring and hook proteins, is somewhat diminished in the Δ*fleR* strain (**Fig. 5**), and sequence alignment revealed multiple conserved sequences with high similarity to the proposed FlrC binding motif (CGGCAA) in our set of seven environmental *Pseudomonas* strains in both promoter regions (**Supplementary File 2**). These observations suggest that FleR may play an unrecognized role in the synthesis of the late basal body and hook components. Interestingly, replacement of the *V. cholerae* P*flgB*, P*flgF* and P*flgK* FlrC-dependent promoters for the FlrA-dependent P*fliE* resulted in normal flagellation and motility in the wild-type strain, but provoked the loss of the flagellum and motility in a Δ*flhG* background, suggesting that the FlrBC may provide robustness to the regulatory circuit in the event of faulty FlhG function (Burnham *et al*., 2020). Accordingly, we hypothesize that FleSR activation of the P*flgB* and P*flgF* promoters in *P. putida* may act as a safeguard against a shortage of rod and hook subunits if FleQ activation is compromised

by altered FleN signaling. While this evidently does not happen in our experimental setting, there may be conditions in which such backup activation by FleR may relevant. Overlapping functions of FleQ and FleR have been documented in a few other systems. FlrC, the FleR ortholog of *S. oneidensis*, is not required for motility and plays a minor role in the regulation of the flagellar promoters (Shi *et al.*, 2014). In this organism ectopic production of FlrC can suppress the nonmotile phenotype of a Δ*flrA* mutant (lacking the cognate FleQ ortholog) by replacing FlrA as the activator of the flagellar σ^{54}-dependent promoters (Gao *et al.*, 2018). In a similar vein, the functions of FlrA and FlrC are partially redundant in the flagellar cascade of *V. campbelli*; however, in this case, it is FlrA, and not FlrC, that is dispensable for flagellar motility (Petersen *et al.*, 2021). Finally, in *Rhodobacter sphaeroides*, FleQ and the FleR ortholog FleT cooperate in the regulation of Class III flagellar promoters by forming a heterooligomeric protein (Poggio *et al.*, 2005). These and other possibilities of interplay between the two *P. putida* σ^{54}-dependent activators are worth exploring in the future.

The final tier in the flagellar cascades is triggered by the release of FliA from inactivation by the anti-σ factor FlgM. As first demonstrated in *Salmonella*, a shift in secretion specificity upon completion of the hook structure leads to FlgM secretion by way of the fT3SS (Karlinsey *et al.*, 2000). This is generally considered to be a conserved mechanism to activate FliA-dependent transcription in an assembly checkpoint-dependent fashion, and has been directly demonstrated in *V. cholerae* (Correa *et al.*, 2004). In addition, the *P. aeruginosa* anti-sigma factor antagonist HsbA has been show to prevent FlgM-dependent inactivation of FliA by a partner-switching mechanism in response to a phosphorylation cascade involving several membrane hybrid sensor kinases, the histidine phosphotransferase HtpB and the response regulator HsbR (Bhuwan *et al.*, 2012), but the signals triggering this system are currently not known and its connection with flagellar assembly is therefore unclear. As the *P. putida* flagellar cluster encodes FlgM, HsbA, HsbR and HtpB orthologs (**Supplementary Table S1**), any of these mechanisms may be

functional, but we have not explored them in this work. The set of FliA-dependent Class IV genes in polarly flagellated Gamma-proteobacteria normally includes flagellin and other filament components, along with chemotaxis and flagellar stator genes. In *P. putida* FliA is essential for expression of *fliC* and *flaG*, encoding flagellin and a regulator of filament length, the chemotaxis operon *cheVR*, the stator genes *motAB* and the uncharacterized *fliK2-flhX* operon (**Figs. 2, 5, 6 and 7**), and boosts transcription of the distal chemotaxis and stator genes of the Class II *flhAF-fleN-fliA-cheYZAB-motCD-parCP-cheW-flrD* operon. Accordingly, FliA is essential for assembly of the filament and completion of the chemotaxis signal transduction system and one of the stator complexes (**Fig. 7**). We note that, although the core chemotaxis and the *motCD* stator genes were previously assigned to Class IV in *P. aeruginosa* (Dasgupta *et al.*, 2003), re-examination of the evidence revealed that none of the orthologs of the *flhAF-fleN-fliAcheYZAB-motCD-parCP-cheW-flrD* operon genes were significantly downregulated in a Δ*fliA* mutant, and should therefore be re-classified as Class II [(see Supplementary Tables 2-6 in Dasgupta *et al.* (2003)]

FliA also participates in feed-forward and feedback loops on several regulatory elements (**Fig. 7**): it boosts the synthesis of the anti-sigma FlgM and the HsbA-HsbR-HptB system (**Fig. 6**), which possibly provides an alternative pathway to relieve FliA sequestration in response to unknown signals (Bhuwan *et al.*, 2012). Most intriguingly, FliA-dependent transcription of *fleQ* and *fleSR* as part of the *fliC-flaG-fliDST-fleQSR* operon (**Fig. 2**) provides positive feedback to the synthesis of the transcription factors involved in early flagellar gene expression (**Fig. 7**). Since FleQ function and Class II transcription may be transiently impaired by the formation of an inactive complex with FleN (Baraquet and Harwood, 2013), FleQ newly synthesized by way of readthrough transcription from the strong Class III P*fliC* promoter may titrate out FleN, restoring expression of the Class II genes. Unlike peritrichous flagellates, in which new flagella can be continuously added during cell elongation, polar flagellates such as *P. putida* must assemble their flagella in a discontinuous fashion, as a new pole is generated only once per cell cycle during cell division. New flagella must then

be assembled at the new pole in time for their completion at the following cell division. In this scenario, the reactivation of early flagellar gene expression by this FliA-mediated positive feedback mechanism appears to be a suitable mechanism to enable *de novo* flagella synthesis at the new pole while assembly at the old pole is completed.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

The bacterial strains used in this work are summarized in **Supplementary Table S2.** Liquid cultures of *E. coli* and *P. putida* strains were routinely grown in Luria-Bertani (LB) broth (Sambrook and Russell, 2000) at 37°C and 30 °C, respectively, with 180 rpm shaking. For fluorescence monitoring, 1/10 strength LB was used to minimize background fluorescence. For solid media, Bacto-Agar (Difco) was added to a final concentration of 18 g l $^{-1}$. Antibiotics and other additions were used, when required, at the following concentrations: ampicillin (100 mg l^{-1}), carbenicillin (0.5 g l^{-1}), kanamycin (25 mg l^{-1}), rifampicin (10 mg l^{-1}), chloramphenicol (15 mg l $^{-1}$), gentamycin (10 mg l^{-1}), tetracycline (5 mg l^{-1}), 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indoyl-β-D-galactopyranoside (X-gal) (25 mg l^{-1}) and sodium salicylate (from 0.1 mM to 2 mM) All reagents were purchased from Sigma Aldrich, except for X- Gal, which was purchased from Fermentas.

Plasmid and strain construction

Plasmids and oligonucleotides used in this work are summarized in **Supplementary Table S2.** All DNA manipulations were performed following standard procedures (Sambrook and Russell, 2000). Restriction and modification enzymes were used according to the manufacturers' instructions (Fermentas, Roche and NEB) When required, blunt ends were generated using the Klenow fragment or T4 DNA polymerase. *E. coli* DH5α was used as a host in cloning procedures. All cloning steps involving PCR were verified by commercial sequencing (Secugen or Stab Vida) Plasmid DNA was transferred to *E. coli* and *P. putida* strains by transformation (Inoue *et al*., 1990), triparental mating (Espinosa-Urgel *et al*., 2000) or electroporation (Choi *et al*., 2006). Site-specific integration of miniTn7 derivatives in *P. putida* strains was performed essentially as described (Choi *et al*., 2005). The flagellar cluster and *rpoN* gene were deleted by plasmid-based gene replacement as previously described (Martínez-García and de Lorenzo, 2021). For *rpoN* deletion, 500-bp fragments flanking the respective gene were PCR-amplified with oligonucleotide pairs rpoN-fwd-

EcoRI/rpoN-overlap-Rev (upstream region) and rpoN-overlap-fwd/rpoN-rev-BamHI (downstream region), subsequently combined by overlap extension PCR and cloned via *Eco*RI and *Bam*HI restriction sites into plasmid pEMG, a Km-resistant plasmid that incorporates two I-SceI sites flanking a *lacZα* polylinker, to yield pMRB290. For flagellar cluster deletion, the plasmid pEMG-flagella (Martínez-García *et al.*, 2014) containing 750-bp upstream and 816-bp downstream of PP_4297 and PP_4329 genes respectively was used. These plasmids were mobilised by triparental mating to *P. putida* KT2442 harbouring the I-SceI expressing plasmid pSW-I (Martínez-García and de Lorenzo, 2011) The positive co-integrates were selected through PCR amplification of flanking regions and resolved through induction of the I-SceI enzyme, derived from the pSW-I plasmid using 15 mM 3-methyl benzoate (3-MB) Then, the induced culture was plated onto LB agar plates and the positive colonies were assessed for the loss of the Km resistance marker. Deletions were verified by PCR. The pSW-I plasmid was cured after successive passes of the deleted strains in LB without antibiotics.

To construct *P. putida* KT2442 derivatives with in-frame deletions of *fleN*, *fleQ* and *fleR*, upstream and downstream chromosomal regions flanking these genes were PCR-amplified with an specific oligonucleotide pairs. For *fleN* deletion, fleN-up-fwd/fleN-up-rev (upstream region) and fleN-down-fwd/fleN-down-rev (downstream region) For *fleQ* deletion, fleQ-up-fwd/fleQ-up-rev (upstream region) and fleQ-down-fwd/fleQ-down-rev (downstream region) For *fleR* deletion, fleR-up-fwd-EcoRI/fleR-up-rev-BamHI (upstream region) and fleR-down-fwd-BamHI/fleR-down-rev-HindIII (downstream region) The PCR products were cleaved with EcoRI and BamHI or BamHI and HindIII, respectively, and three-way ligated into EcoRI- and HindIII- digested pEX18Tc, a gene replacement vector. A BamHI-excised FRT-flanked kanamycin resistance cassette from pMPO284 was then cloned into the BamHI site, yielding pMRB96 (*fleQ*), pMRB104 (*fleN*) and pMRB192 (*fleR*) These plasmids were transferred to *P. putida* KT2442 by electroporation. Selection of integration, allelic replacement and FLP-mediated excision of the kanamycin resistance marker was performed essentially as

described (Hoang *et al*., 1998; Llamas *et al*., 2000) to generate Δ*fleQ* (MRB52), Δ*fleN* (MRB71) and Δ*fleR* (MRB93) The structure of the deleted loci was verified by PCR.

For the construction of pMRB178 and pMRB286, plasmids producing FleQ and FliA, respectively, the *fleQ* and *fliA* open reading frames were PCR-amplified with the oligonucleotide pairs FleQ-XbaI-SD-fwd/ FleQ-SpeI-rev and FliA-fwd-XbaI-SD/FliA-rev-SpeI-Stop, digested with appropriated enzymes and cloned into XbaI- and SpeI-cleaved pMRB172, a salicylate-inducible expression plasmid bearing Tn7 transposon for site-specific genome integration.

A 750-bp fragment containing the putative P*fleS* promoter region (positions -750 to -1 relative to *fleS* start codon) was amplified using oligonucleotides PfleS-fwd/PfleS-rev as primers and cloned via SpeI and PstI restriction sites into previously cleaved pMRB196, a pMRB3-derived broad host-range *gfp*mut3::*lacZ* transcriptional fusion vector, yielding pMRB291. P*fliE* and P*flgF* 500-bp promoter regions were amplified by using oligonucleotide pairs PfliE-fwd-SpeI/PfliE-rev-PstI and PflgF-fwd-SpeI/PflgF-rev-PstI and cloned as described above to yield pMRB250 (P*flgF*) and pMRB259 (P*fliE*)

Flagellar motility (swimming) assays

Swimming assays were adapted from Parkinson (1976). Tryptone motility plates containing 0.3% Bacto-agar (Difco) were toothpick-inoculated with fresh colonies and incubated for 14 h at 30°C. At least 3 biological replicates were assayed for each strain.

***In vivo* gene expression assays**

The rates of GFP accumulation during exponential growth were used to measure gene expression in cultures bearing *gfp-lacZ* transcriptional fusions to different promoters. Overnight LB cultures of the fusion-bearing strains were diluted in 1/10 strength LB broth, and dispensed into the wells of a Costar 96 microtiter polystyrene plate (Corning) The plate was incubated in a Spark microliter plate reader/incubator at 30 °C with 510 rpm shaking to mid-exponential phase. Cultures were then diluted in the same medium and incubated in the same conditions for 23 hours. A_{600} and GFP fluorescence (485 nm excitation, 535 nm

emission) were monitored in 15-minutes intervals during incubation. Differential rates of GFP fluorescence accumulation were calculated as the slopes of the linear regression (R^2>0.98) performed on the exponential growth fluorescence vs. absorbance plots.

For β-galactosidase assays of *lacZ* fusions, overnight cultures bearing the corresponding fusion plasmids were diluted in 5 ml LB to an A_{600} of 0.01 and incubated for 24 hours at 30°C with shaking (180 rpm) Growth was then stopped, and β-galactosidase activity was determined from sodium dodecyl sulphate- and chloroform-permeabilized cells as described (Miller, 1993). Results are reported as Miller units (Miller, 1993).

RNA isolation and semi-quantitative RT-PCR

Total RNA from stationary phase cultures was extracted as described (García-González *et al.*, 2005) Reverse transcription (RT) of total RNA (2 µg) was carried out using the High-Capacity cDNA Achieve kit (Applied Biosystems) following the manufacturer instructions. Amplification reactions were performed with 50 ng of cDNA as template in a 30-cycle PCR program, using appropriate oligonucleotides detailed in **Supplementary Table S2** and Illustra™ PuReTaq™ Ready-To-Go™ PCR Beads (GE Healthcare) Negative and positive controls were performed with total RNA or genomic DNA as templates, respectively. The RT-PCR products obtained were resolved by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis and visualized by ethidium bromide staining.

RNA-seq assay

5 µg of total RNA were sent to the CABIMER Genomics facility (Seville, Spain) Depletion of rRNA and preparation of cDNA libraries were carried out with the Illumina Stranded TOTAL RNA preparation RIBO-ZERO PLUS kit. Single-end sequencing was performed with the Illumina NextSeq 500 HIGH-Output flow cell and 1 x75 bp length parameters.

Bioinformatics methods

We used the pre-computed *Pseudomonas* ortholog groups available at the *Pseudomonas* genome database (Winsor *et al.*, 2016) (pseudomonas.com) to assess the

conservation of the flagellar gene set in the genus *Pseudomonas*. Synteny was analyzed by computing the number of intervening genes between the orthologs of all consecutive genes in the *P. putida* flagellar cluster in all 550 genomes in the *Pseudomonas* ortholog database using a simple Microsoft Excel script and the numerical part of the Locus Tag for each pair of genes in each genome as a positional reference. The resulting dataset was manually curated and genomes yielding inconsistent or ambiguous results were discarded. A total of 401 genomes provided consistent results for the complete cluster (**Supplementary File 1**) Sequence alignment of intergenic sequences used 500 bp fragments upstream from the start codon for each gene. Occasional inconsistencies in the annotation of the start codons were corrected when required. Multiple sequence alignments were performed using MUSCLE (Edgar, 2004), available at https://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/muscle/.

The RNA-seq raw data was pre-filtered using FASTQ Toolkit v.1.0.0. Quality of the reads was checked with FastQC (https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/) and then mapped to the *P. putida* KT2440 reference genome (GenBank: NC_002947.4) using Bowtie2 v.2.3.5.1 (Langmead and Salzberg (2012). Mapped data were converted to BAM files using Samtools v1.11 (Li *et al*., 2009) and reads were visualized with the Integrative Genomics Viewer (IGV) (Robinson *et al*., 2011). Raw dataset is available at the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) database (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo) under accession number GEO: GSE173832.

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FIGURES

Figure 1. The *Pseudomonas* flagellar cluster. Synteny relationships between the 59 flagella-related genes in the *Pseudomonas* flagellar cluster. Genes are color-coded to denote their putative function as indicated. **A.** Cartoon of the *P. putida* KT2440 flagellar cluster, including designations of all 59 flagella-related genes and the 20 promoters identified in this work. The 7-gene insertion (PP_4345 to PP_4351) upstream from *flhA* is omitted (indicated by two oblique lines). **B.** Simplified cartoons of the *Pseudomonas* Group I, II, III and IV flagellar clusters. Dashed lines indicate points of synteny disruption between groups. Black arrows indicate preferential locations for insertion of small groups of additional genes.

Figure 2. RNA-seq and RT-PCR analysis of the transcriptional organization of the *P. putida* flagellar cluster. A., **C.** and **E.** Output of the RNA-seq analysis of the KT2440 flagellar cluster, split in three regions. Coverage is represented in grey on a logarithmic scale. Top strand and bottom strand reads are shown in blue and pink, respectively. **B.**, **D.** and **F.** Agarose gel electrophoresis showing the RT-PCR results for selected regions of the *flhAF-fleN-flhF-fliA-cheYZAB-motCD-parCP-cheW-flrD* (**B**), *hsbAR-hptB-fliKLMNOPQR-flhB*, *fliEFG and fliHIJ* (**C**) and *fliC-flaG-fliDST-fleQSR* (**F**) operons. Plus (+) and minus (-) signs denote PCR reactions performed with genomic DNA and RNA, respectively, as templates. A cartoon of the flagellar genes is aligned with the RNA-seq reads and RT-PCR results. Genes are color-coded as in **Fig. 1.** An inverted triangle denotes the location of the *flhF*::miniTn*5*-Km insertion. The RNA-seq images represent data from a single representative replicate. Each RT-PCR image was cropped from a single picture and represents consecutive lanes of a representative agarose gel.

A

σ54 consensus
TGGCACG–N4– TTGCw

PparC	TGCGCCGGGCTGGCACACAAAGTGCACCGGCAATAC
PflhF	GAGCCAAGGTTGGAACAGATTTTGCTGAATAGTCTG
PflhA	CTGCCAAAGTTGGAAAGCTTCTTGCAAAGCCACGCC
PfliL	CTGCAAAATCTGGCATAACACTTGCTCAAGCCAAGC
PfliK	ATACGCGAGTTGGCGCGAGTCTTGCCTGTCTCTGCC
PfliE	TTGCGAAGGCTGGCACCTTTGTTGCTTTAGGTAGGT
PfleS	CCCCCATCTCCGGCACGGCTATTGCTACACCGCTGG
PfliD	TGTGTAATGTTGGCATGAGTCTTGACTCGGATTGTG
PflgF	GTTTCAGACTTGGTTCAATTATTGCTTGGAACCTGC
PflgB	TTCCAGTGGTTGGCACAGCCCTTGCTATGCCTTGCT
PflgA	GGTAGCGAGTCGGCACGGGCTTTGCTTTTTTGAGTG
PflgZ	CAGAACATAGTGGCAAAATGCCCGTTACTTGCGTGTG

B

FliA consensus
TcAAgNw   –N12–13–   gcCGAtaNc

PfliK2	CCCTTGTGTCTCAAGTCGCCCCG–CGCGCTGCCGTTATACTGGCAACCA
PcheA	CGACTCGGGGTGAAGGTCCGCAG–ATTCATGCCGATAAGCGTGAAGACG
PfliS	ATGGTCGTATTCAAGATCTTTGG–GGCTAAGCCGATCACTTAGGTATGT
PfliC	GAAAAAACCCTCAAGCAACCCGC–GCACCCGACGATAACCATTACGAAG
PcheV	AACGGTGAATTCAAGAAACCCTTGGGTGACACCGATAAGCTGTTCAGGC
PflgM	CATTTGTGCCTAAAGTTTATATC–GGGTTGGCCGAAAACAAGGCAAGCG
PmotA	ATTGAGTGGCTATAGTCTGGCGC AGTTCTGCCGATAAGTAGAAGAAGA

C

σ70 consensus (extended -10)
TTGACA   –N14–15–   TGNTATAaT

PhsbA	CTGCATCCGCTTGCCTCCCCCACCATCGCCTGCTAAACCTTAAAGCAGT
PfleQ	CGCCATAAATTTGACTGCCTTTAAGTTTTTGACTTTACTAGTGGCTGTT

Figure 3. The *P. putida* KT2440 flagellar promoter set. Sequences of the twenty-one putative *P. putida* KT2440 flagellar promoters identified in this work, along with the consensus sequences for the corresponding σ factors: σ54 (**A**), FliA (**B**) and σ70 (**C**). The promoter motifs are indicated in red, and the coding sequences of the upstream genes are indicated in blue.

Figure 4. Expression of the P*fleQ* promoter in *P. putida*. β-galactosidase assays of the P*fleQ* (**B**) and P*fliH* (**B**) promoter fusions in the wild-type strain KT2442 and its Δ*fleQ*, Δ*fleN*, Δ*fleR*, Δflagella and Δflagella ectopically expressing FleQ or FliA derivatives. Ø denotes no further modification of the genetic background indicated below. Bars represent the averages and standard deviations of at least three independent assays. Stars designate p-values for the Student's t-test for unpaired samples not assuming equal variance. *: p<0.05; **: p<0.01; *:p<0.001.

Figure 5. Expression the Class II flagellar promoters in *P. putida*. Differential rates of GFP fluorescence accumulation of the P*parC* (**A**), P*flhF* (**B**), P*flhA* (**C**), P*fliL* (**D**), P*fliK*(**E**), P*fliE* (**F**), P*fleS* (**G**), P*fliD* (**H**), P*flgF* (**I**), P*flgB* (**J**), P*flgA* (**K**) and P*flgZ* (**L**) promoters in the wild-type strain KT2442 and its Δ*fleQ*, Δ*rpoN*, Δ*fleN*, Δ*fleR*, Δflagella, Δflagella ectopically expressing FleQ or FliA, and *lapA*⁻ expressing YhjH or PleD derivatives. Ø denotes no further modification of the genetic background indicated below. Bars represent the averages and standard deviations of at least three independent assays. Stars designate p-values for the Student's t-test for unpaired samples not assuming equal variance. *: p<0.05; **: p<0.01; *:p<0.001.

Figure 6. Expression the Class III flagellar promoters in *P. putida*. Differential rates of GFP fluorescence accumulation of the P*fliK2* (**A**), P*cheA* (**B**), P*hsbA* (**C**), P*fliS* (**D**), P*fliC*(**E**), P*cheV* (**F**), P*flgM* (**G**) and P*motA* (**H**) promoters in the wild-type strain KT2442 and its Δ*fleQ*, Δ*rpoN*, Δ*fleN*, Δ*fleR*, Δflagella and Δflagella ectopically expressing FleQ or FliA. **Ø** denotes no further modification of the genetic background indicated below. Bars represent the averages and standard deviations of at least three independent assays. Stars designate p-values for the Student's t-test for unpaired samples not assuming equal variance. *: p<0.05; **: p<0.01; *:p<0.001.

Figure 7. Hypothetical model of the flagellar transcriptional cascade in *P. putida*. Cartoon representing the transcriptional hierarchy, feed-forward and feedback loops of the *P. putida* KT2440 flagellar cascade. Genes are shaded in grey, transcription factors are shaded in pink, σ factors are shaded in purple. and auxiliary regulatory proteins are shaded in orange. Transcription is shown as green arrows and translation is shown as black dashed arrows. Green dashed arrows and red dashed lines with a round end denote positive and regulatory events based on protein-protein interaction, respectively. FlgM secretion by way of the fT3SS is denoted by a dashed grey arrow. Three stages of flagellar assembly are represented: early basal body (EBB), the hook-basal body complex (HBB), and the complete flagellum.