Much more than a toxin: hydrogen cyanide is a volatile modulator of

bacterial behaviour

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Introductory paragraph

Bacteria communicate with each other and with other organisms in a chemical language comprising both diffusible and volatile molecules, and volatiles have recently gained increasing interest as mediators of bacterial interactions[1]. One of the first volatile compounds discovered to play a role in biotic interactions is hydrogen cyanide (HCN)[2], a well-known toxin, which irreversibly binds to the key respiratory enzyme cytochrome C oxidase[3]. The main ecological function of this molecule was so far thought to lie in the inhibition of competing microorganisms[4]. Here we show that HCN is much more than a respiratory toxin and should be considered a major regulator of bacterial behaviour rather than a solely defensive secondary metabolite. Cyanogenesis occurs in both environmental and clinical *Pseudomonas* strains[5,6]. Using cyanide-deficient mutants in two *Pseudomonas* strains, we demonstrate that HCN functions as an intracellular and extracellular volatile signalling molecule, which leads to global transcriptome reprogramming affecting growth, motility, and biofilm formation, as well as the production of other secondary metabolites such as siderophores and phenazines. Our data suggest that bacteria are using endogenous HCN not only to control their own cellular functions, but are also able to remotely influence the behaviour of other bacteria sharing the same environment.

Cyanogenesis occurs in many different types of organisms, including bacteria, plants, animals

and even humans[7–9]. In bacteria, most studies have focused on *Pseudomonas* strains, which

form HCN by oxidative decarboxylation of glycine[4]. HCN is considered an important virulence

factor in both environmental (e.g. *Pseudomonas protegens* CHA0) and clinical (e.g.

Pseudomonas aeruginosa PAO1) strains[2,10]. The ecological role of HCN emission in bacterial

defence against competing organisms is well established and this molecule has been repeatedly

pinpointed as a major actor in the arsenal of root-associated *Pseudomonas* with protective

effects against plant diseases[11]. An earlier study using comparative genomics to identify the

molecular determinants of late blight control by potato-associated *Pseudomonas* highlighted

HCN as a likely candidate accounting for the inhibition of the devastating oomycete pathogen

Phytophthora infestans[12]. However, when we compared the anti-*Phytophthora* effects of

cyanogenesis-deficient mutants in two different species of *Pseudomonas* with that of their

respective wild types, we noticed only little to no reduction in their antagonistic potential.

Moreover, we observed that the mutants had gained additional antimicrobial capacities, e.g.

inducing higher inhibition of the pathogen's zoospore germination[13]. This prompted us to

quantify the mutants' secretion of siderophores, as these iron-chelators are well-known

mediators of antifungal activity[14]. We first grew both strains on King's B medium, which is

classically used to detect siderophores in pseudomonads (Figure 1a). Compared to the

Escherichia coli control, our two model strains *Pseudomonas chlororaphis* R47 and

Pseudomonas putida R32 secreted siderophores as evidenced by the halo surrounding the

colonies. In *P. putida* R32, the cyanide-deficient mutant appeared to produce more siderophores

than the wild type, while the difference was less clear for R47 in this qualitative plate assay.

Since we knew from these two strains' genomes that they both encoded pyoverdine production,

we used a fluorospectrometry-based assay[15] to quantify the production dynamics of this

particular siderophore as well as the growth of both wild types and mutants in liquid King's B

medium (Figure 1b). The production of pyoverdine was significantly higher in both the cyanide-

deficient mutants compared with the corresponding wild-type strains. For R47, faster growth

was observed for the mutant at the onset of the stationary phase, yet the strong increase in

pyoverdine production was in no proportion to this moderate growth advantage (Figure 1b).

For R32, the decreased growth of the wild type compared with the mutant was less striking and

only transient. This differential impact of cyanogenesis on growth in the two *Pseudomonas*

strains might be linked to their respective HCN production levels, which were higher (ca. 80

µM) for R47 than for R32 (ca. 28 µM) (Figure S1). The orange colour of R47 (Figure 1a)

originates from the production of phenazines, an important class of antimicrobial compounds,

also involved in iron acquisition, redox balance, and many other biological functions in

Pseudomonas strains[16]. We therefore also quantified the production of phenazine carboxylic

acid (PCA), one particular form of phenazines, in both wild-type and cyanide-deficient mutant

strains grown in King's B medium. We analysed this phenotype only in *P. chlororaphis* R47,

since phenazine biosynthetic genes are absent from the genome of *P. putida* R32. We observed

that similarly to pyoverdine, PCA was also produced at a higher concentration (>2.5-fold) by

the mutant than by the wild type (Figure 1c). Next to PCA, other phenazines were also produced

more abundantly in the cyanide-deficient mutant (Figure S2). Taken together, these data

indicate that the absence of HCN led to a significantly enhanced production of other secondary

metabolites that could fulfil similar ecological functions, such as the inhibition of microbial

competitors.

The ability to move towards a favourable environment and once there, to form a biofilm are

relevant features for successful colonization of both plant (e.g. root) and human (e.g. lung)

tissues by pseudomonads[17,18]. We therefore wondered whether motility and biofilm formation

would also be influenced by the loss of cyanogenesis in our two *Pseudomonas* mutants. Our

swimming motility assays on low agar plates revealed that both cyanide-deficient mutants were

significantly more motile (ca. 2-fold) than the wild types (Figure 1d). In contrast to all previous

phenotypes tested, where the mutants performed better than the wild types, biofilm formation

was significantly lower for both mutants compared to the wild types (Figure 1e). In addition to

confirming the expected negative relation between a motile and a sessile life style, these data

also provided the proof of concept that HCN also stimulated and not only inhibited

physiological processes in cyanogenic pseudomonads. Overall, the consistent observation in

two different *Pseudomonas* species that the loss of cyanogenesis led to effects as diverse as

enhanced siderophore production and reduced biofilm formation, confirmed our hypothesis that

HCN is more than a mere respiratory toxin, and likely a global regulator of bacterial physiology

and behaviour.

In order to test this hypothesis, we selected *P. chlororaphis* R47 because of its large genome

encoding many secondary metabolites[12] and compared the transcriptome of the wild type and

the cyanide-deficient mutant grown in liquid King's B medium at three different time points

(Figure 2a). We chose these time points to cover i) the early log phase, at which we did not

expect any change since HCN, as a secondary metabolite, was classically reported to be

produced at the end of the exponential growth phase[19], ii) the transition between exponential

and stationary growth phase, at which HCN effects were expected to start taking place, and iii)

the later stationary growth phase, at which we expected changes to be further amplified (Figure

2a). Contrary to our expectations, the transcriptomes of the wild type and the cyanide-deficient

mutant clustered separately already at the early log phase (Figure 2b). Looking at the expression

of the HCN biosynthetic operon, we observed that it was indeed expressed at the early

exponential phase already (Figure S3), and its absence induced the dysregulation of 32 genes

belonging to different COG categories at this early time point (Figure 2c and Table S1). Among

these, genes involved in signal transduction and lipid transport / metabolism were mainly

upregulated in the absence of HCN, while genes involved in transcription, amino acid and

carbohydrate metabolism, inorganic ion transport and secondary metabolism were mainly

downregulated. Genes belonging to the energy production and conversion category were also

dysregulated, with some being up- and others downregulated in the mutant, such as the genes

encoding cytochrome c oxidase orphan subunits. The early expression of alternative oxidases

in the wild type compared with the mutant constitutes a further proof that cyanogenesis occurs

earlier than classically assumed and is not solely conditioned by the lack of nutrients or of

oxygen occurring at the early stationary phase, where HCN production has been previously

reported as being maximal[4]. As expected, differences between the transcriptomes of the wild

type and the mutant increased over time (Figure 2b,c), with 206 genes (ca. 3.2 % of the genome)

dysregulated at the transition between the exponential and stationary growth phases, and 350

(ca. 5.5 %) at late stationary growth phase, where all COG categories were affected by the

presence vs. absence of HCN. These genome-wide expression changes already started at the

second time point (transition to stationary growth phase), where both strains still followed the

same growth dynamic (Figure 2a). Overall, the absence of HCN mainly led to gene

upregulation, as for instance the genes involved in pyoverdine and phenazine synthesis (Figure

2b and Table S2), which corroborated our phenotypic assays (Figure 1b). Among the few genes

upregulated by HCN, one was predicted to encode the helix-turn-helix-type transcriptional

regulator MlrA which was strongly downregulated in the cyanide-deficient mutant (Table S2).

In *E. coli* and *S. enterica*, MlrA was shown to activate extracellular matrix production[20]. This

could explain the higher biofilm forming capacity observed in the *Pseudomonas* wild types

compared to the cyanide-deficient mutants in the present study (Figure 1e). Higher biofilm

formation by wild types could also be explained by higher expression of the type VI secretion

system (T6SS) (Table S2). This system has been shown to be involved in biofilm formation by

P. aeruginosa[21–23]. Next to its putative role in biofilm formation, the T6SS has been involved

in bacterial interactions with competitors[24], similarly to HCN itself. Likewise, the operon

encoding the insecticidal Fit toxin[25] was also upregulated in the absence of HCN (Table S2),

suggesting a possible compensation of the lack of one biological weapon with the higher

production of others (e.g., phenazines, pyoverdine, Fit toxin and T6SS). Regarding motility,

transcriptomic analysis revealed upregulation of flagellar biosynthesis genes in the cyanide-

deficient mutant (Table S2), which could explain both the mutant's higher motility and lower

biofilm formation (Figure 1d,e). Altogether, the global transcriptome shifts caused by the

presence vs. absence of HCN corroborate the phenotypic differences observed between the wild

type and the cyanide-deficient mutants (Figure 1) and highlight endogenous HCN as a global

regulator of gene expression, compared e.g. with the global activator of secondary metabolism

(GacA), whose mutation led to ca 13 % of dysregulated genes in the closely related strain *P.*

chlororaphis 30-84[26]. However, the extent of the observed HCN-induced transcriptome

changes is in stark contrast to earlier work on *P. aeruginosa,* which reported only 16

dysregulated genes in an cyanide-deficient mutant[27]. This discrepancy might be due to a higher

resolution of RNA-Seq over microarray analysis, or to different culture conditions, with the

complex King's B medium in our case and glycine-enriched minimal medium in the earlier

study.

Since HCN is a gaseous molecule easily diffusing into the vicinity of cyanogenic strains, we

wondered whether neighbouring, non-cyanogenic cells would respond to exogenous HCN

supply with similar changes as those we observed between mutants and wild types. We

therefore carried out an experiment where the cyanide-deficient mutant of R47 was grown in

volatile-mediated contact with its wild type (Figure 3a, Figure S4), and compared both

phenotypes and transcriptomes of the wild type, the mutant and the HCN-exposed mutant.

Exposing the mutants of both R47 and R32 to exogenous HCN emitted by their respective wild

types did not impair the mutants' growth, yet it suppressed the increase in pyoverdine

production observed in the non-exposed mutants (Figure 3b) and restored both mutants' biofilm

formation and swimming motility to the wild type levels (Figure 3c,d). For the motility rescue

experiment, in R32 cyanide-deficient mutant, we observed swarming rather than swimming

motility in this split plate setup (Figure 3d). At the early exponential phase, both non-exposed

and exposed mutants of R47 showed similar transcriptomes (only four differentially expressed

genes, see Figure S5 and Table S1), suggesting that at this early time point, HCN was affecting

only the producing cells but was not yet diffusing into the neighbouring wells. However, at the

later time point corresponding to the transition between the exponential and stationary growth

phases, most of the gene expression changes observed in the mutant were rescued by exposure

to exogenous HCN (Figure 3e, Figure S5b and c). These included the changes in genes encoding

pyoverdine and phenazine synthesis, the insecticidal Fit toxin, as well as the MlrA activator,

the T6SS and the flagellar biosynthetic genes potentially involved in biofilm formation, which

corroborated the rescued phenotypes (Figure 3b,c,d and Table S2). The transcriptome changes

observed at this intermediate time point between the mutant and the exposed mutant mimicked

those observed between the mutant and the wild type, confirming that the exposed mutant

behaved largely like a wild type (Figure 3b,e). Principal component analysis showed that this

transcriptome similarity was further increased at the late stationary phase (time point 3),

although the number of dysregulated genes increased from 19 to 141, which might be due to

the differential growth between the wild type and the exposed mutant observed at this later time

point (Figure 3b, Figure S5a,b). Interestingly, the proportion of genes rescued by external

supply of HCN at the transition between the exponential and stationary growth phases differed

between the COG categories, with a lower rescue proportion in the categories involved in

housekeeping functions and primary metabolism (e.g., ribosome structure, replication, energy

production, or carbohydrate, amino acid and nucleotide metabolism) than in those potentially

involved in biotic interactions (e.g., defence mechanisms, inorganic ion transport and secondary

metabolism) (Figure S5c).

Altogether, our data indicate that the biological functions of HCN are much wider than

previously thought. Not unlike phenazines, which were also first categorized as "mere

secondary metabolites" and which later turned out to act as internal signalling molecules with

diverse and important cellular functions[28], we show here that HCN is much more than a

respiratory toxin, and acts as an inter- and extracellular signal on both producing and receiving

cells. These findings are in line with recent reports on the ability of HCN to induce broad

physiological effects in both plant and human cells[29,30]. Compared with phenazines, HCN is a

volatile molecule and as such, its zone of influence is expected to be much broader[1]. Our data

show that this small volatile signalling compound is able to reprogram bacterial behaviour

without direct contact, repressing iron uptake, swimming motility and synthesis of biological

weapons such as phenazines, the insecticidal Fit toxin or the type VI secretion system. These

functional traits are of particular interest in the competitive environments inhabited by

cyanogenic *Pseudomonas*, from the plant rhizosphere to the human lung, which further

highlights the importance of HCN not only as an intrinsic virulence factor but also, and perhaps

more importantly, as a volatile messenger able to manipulate the behaviour of neighbouring

cells to the competitive advantage of its producer.

Figure legends

Figure 1 | Loss of cyanogenesis increases pyoverdine and phenazine production, induces
swimming motility and represses biofilm production. a, Qualitative analysis of siderophore
production by wild-type (wt) and cyanide-deficient (Δhcn) mutant strains of both *P.*
chlororaphis R47 and *P. putida* R32 after five days of growth at room temperature on King's
B agar medium. Plates were visualised under UV light. b, Growth curves (optical density (OD)
at 600nm, lines) and pyoverdine (Pvd) detection assay (fluorescence reading at 465nm, bars) in
liquid King's B medium grown for 19h at 30 ˚C. Data represent the average of three independent
experiments with four technical replicates each. c, Phenazine quantification assay based on
HPLC-UV detection. R47 wt and R47 Δhcn strains were grown at 30 ˚C in liquid King's B
medium for 24h before sampling. Bars represent the phenazine carboxylic acid (PCA) peak
area normalised with growth (OD600). Data represent the average of three independent
experiments with three technical replicates each. d, Swimming motility assay on low agar M9
plates. The colony area was measured using the ImageJ software after four to five days
incubation at room temperature. Bars show the average of four and three independent
experiments for R47 and R32, respectively, with four to six technical replicates each. e, Biofilm
formation assay. Strains were grown statically in liquid King's B medium in 96-well plates for
48h at 30 ˚C. Bars correspond to biofilm index (crystal violet staining measured at 570 nm
divided by optical density measured at 550nm before the staining) and represent the average of
three independent experiments with 36 technical replicates each. For c-e, samples were
statistically analysed using Mann-Whitney U test (two-tailed). ***P<0.001. Error bars
represent standard error.

Figure 2 | Inability to produce HCN leads to global transcriptional dysregulation. a,
Representative growth curve of *P. chlororaphis* R47 wt and Δhcn strains in King's B liquid
medium highlighting the three time points used for transcriptome analysis. T1; early log phase,
T2; transition phase (exponential to stationary), T3; stationary phase. b, Principal component
analysis of transcriptomic data at the three time points. Strains were grown in King's B liquid
medium in 6-well plates at 30 ˚C with continuous shaking before each sampling. c, COG
category analysis of the dysregulated genes in R47 Δhcn strain compared with its wild type.
Bars show the percentage of dysregulated genes in each COG category. RNA-sequencing data
(b,c) were obtained from three independent experiments. Cut-off for significance; Log2 (fold
change) $\geq$ 1, q-value $\leq$ 0.05.

Figure 3 | Exposure to exogenous HCN emitted by *P. chlororaphis* R47 wild type represses
pyoverdine production and swimming motility, but induces biofilm formation in the
cyanide-deficient mutant. a, Scheme of the volatile-mediated exposure experiment using 6-
well plates used for (b). Purple color represents liquid cultures of the wild type, green color
liquid cultures of the cyanide-deficient mutants. The middle two wells (thicker border) were
collected for RNA extraction and sequencing. b, Growth (OD600) and pyoverdine (pvd)
measurements for *P. chlororaphis* R47 and *P. putida* R32 strains grown at 30 ˚C in liquid
King's B medium in 6-well plates. wt, wildtype; Δhcn, cyanide-deficient mutant; EΔhcn, Δhcn
strains exposed to HCN emitted by the respective wild types. Measurements were performed
as indicated in Figure 1. Data represent the average of three independent experiments with two

technical replicates each. T1 (early log phase), T2 (transition phase between exponential and
stationary phases) and T3 (stationary phase). c, Biofilm formation assay for wild types (wt),
cyanide-deficient mutants (Δhcn) and HCN-exposed mutants (EΔhcn). The assay was carried
out in liquid LB as indicated in Figure 1 and Figure S6. Bars represent the average of three
independent experiments with 6-20 technical replicates each. d, Swimming motility assay on
split Petri dishes. The wild type and the cyanide-deficient mutant were grown on each side of
the split Petri dishes (Figure S7). Plates were incubated at room temperature for two days before
pictures were taken. The areas were measured as indicated in Figure 1. Bars show averages of
three independent experiments with four to five technical replicates each. e, Genome-wide
representation of differentially expressed genes at timepoint 2 (transition phase between
exponential and stationary growth phase). The x-axis shows the gene location on the
chromosome with each dot corresponding to one gene and the y-axis shows the log2 (fold
change) values. (i) and (ii) log2 (fold change) values correspond to Δhcn and EΔhcn, using the
wt as reference. (iii) Log2 (fold change) values correspond to the Δhcn strain using EΔhcn as
reference. Red dots represent significantly differentially expressed genes while grey dots
represent no significant difference as compared to the respective reference. Cut-off for
significance; Log2 (fold change) ≥ 1, q-value ≤ 0.05. For b-d, samples were statistically
analysed using ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test. Error bars represent
the standard error. ***$P<0.001$, **$P<0.01$, *$P<0.05$; ns, not significant. For e, dots represent
average values from three independent experiments for each time point and treatment. sodA,
superoxide dismutase A; hcnABC, hydrogen cyanide synthase ABC; cytochrome unit,
cytochrome orphan subunit N4Q4; Pvd, pyoverdine biosynthesis genes; Phz, phenazine
biosynthesis genes; glycolate, glycolate to glyoxylate oxidation; heme, heme utilisation genes;
mlrA, activator of csgD (master regulator of biofilm formation) gene; Fit toxin, Fit toxin gene;
GCv, glycine-cleavage system.
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Experimental procedures

Strains and culture media

Pseudomonas chlororaphis (R47) and *Pseudomonas putida* (R32) and their derived Δhcn mutants were grown at 30 ˚C on Lysogeny broth (LB) agar medium (20 g/L of LB mix (Lennox, Fisher Bioreagents) with 15 g/L of agar (Agar-agar, Kobe I, Carl Roth))[31]. The generation of Δhcn strains has been previously described[13]. King's B (KB) medium was prepared by mixing 20 g/L of proteose peptone #3 (Bacto[TM] Proteose Peptone No. 3, ThermoFisher Scientific), 1.5 g/L of dipotassium phosphate (Carl Roth GmbH + Co. KG), 1.5 g/L of magnesium sulfate heptahydrate (Carl Roth GmbH + Co. KG) and 10ml/L of glycerol (Carl Roth GmbH + Co. KG) and 15 g/L of agar (when needed).

Growth curves and pyoverdine measurements

Bacterial colonies (two to three single colonies) were used to inoculate LB broth and cultured for 19h at 30 ˚C with shaking (180 rpm). The cells were collected by centrifugation at 5000 rpm for five min and then washed twice with 0.9 % NaCl. The bacterial suspension was then adjusted to OD600 = 1 (henceforth named 'OD adjusted') and 5 µl was used to inoculate 100 µl of KB broth in 96-well plates (Corning, NY, USA). Parafilm was used to seal the plates. A Cytation5 automated plate reader (BioTek, Winooski, VT, USA) was used to incubate plates at 30 ˚C with continuous shaking. Reads were taken at 600 nm to generate growth curves and pyoverdine measurements were done at excitation = 405 nm and emission = 460 nm[15]. For HCN exposure experiments, similar readings were taken with 6-well plates (Corning, NY, USA) (Figure 3a). Three ml KB broth were added to each well and 300 µl of OD adjusted bacteria were added. Plates were incubated at 30 ˚C with shaking at 90 rpm and readings were taken for 5, 7 & 11h. All experiments were replicated three times independently in total.

Phenazine measurement and identification

Phenazines were quantified as previously described using a high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) method[32]. Briefly, OD adjusted bacterial cells were inoculated in 3 ml King's B broth and incubated at 30 °C with shaking at 180 rpm for 24h. The culture was then filtered using 0.2 µm filter (Fisher Scientific International, Inc.) and stored at -20 °C until analysis. Analyses were performed by a HPLC equipped with a quaternary pump P100A, coupled with a UV diode array detector ultimate 3000 (Dionex, Thermoscientific, Olten, Switzerland). The samples (40 µl) were injected onto a MN Nucleosil C18 analytical column (250 mm x 4 mm i.d., 100-5) (Macherey-Nagel, Duren, Germany), using a flow rate of 0.8 mL.min^{-1} at 27 °C. The mobile phase consisted of solvent A (0.1% TFA (trifluoroacetic acid) in water) and solvent B (0.1% TFA in acetonitrile); the gradient started with 5 % of solvent B and reached 15 % at 2 min, 83% at 15 min, 95% at 16 min, and 100% at 45 min. Phenazines were detected at 365 and 250 nm with diode array on-line detection. UV spectra were recorded between 200 and 800 nm. For compound identification, samples were freeze dried, dissolved in 500 µl of ethyl acetate and purified by preparative TLC on silica gel (Kieselgel 60, F$_{254}$, 0.25, Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) using CHCl$_3$:MeOH (95:5) as the eluent. The spots were visualized by exposure to UV radiation at 256 nm. Three compounds were isolated and identified by HPLC and mass spectrometry as 1 or 2- hydroxyphenazine (i) (Rf 0.72; RT 14.55; m/z 197.07 [M+H]$^+$), phenazine-1-carboxylic acid (PCA) (ii) (Rf 0.64; RT 1.4; m/z 225.06 [M+H]$^+$) and 2-hydroxyphenazine carboxylic acid (iii) (Rf 0.58; RT 21.23; m/z 241.06 [M+H]$^+$). ESI-MS/MS analysis in positive ionisation mode were performed on Q Exactive Plus (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Mass spectra were recorded between 50 and 500 *m/z*. The peak

331 areas at the specific wavelength λ_{max} 250 nm were chosen for qualitative quantification. Three
332 biologically independent replicates were collected with three technical replicates in each
333 experiment.

Swimming motility assay

Swimming motility assays were performed as previously reported[33]. Briefly, OD adjusted
inoculum was pricked into the 0.3 % M9 agar medium (For 1 litre, 10 ml of 20 % glucose (Carl
Roth GmbH + Co. KG), 10 ml of 20 % casamino acids (Bacto™, Difco Laboratory), 1 ml of
1M $MgSO_4$ (Carl Roth GmbH + Co. KG), 3 g agar (Agar-agar, Kobe I, Carl Roth), 200 ml of
5X M8 solution (64 g $Na_2HPO_4.7H_2O$ (Carl Roth GmbH + Co. KG), 15 g KH_2PO_4 (Carl Roth
GmbH + Co. KG), 2.5 g NaCl (Acros Organics))) in 90-mm Petri plates which were incubated
in upright position for four to five days at room temperature. The experiment was replicated
independently four times for R47 and three times for R32. For exposure experiments, split Petri
dishes were used (Figure S7). LB agar was poured in one compartment of the dish and 0.3%
M9 minimal agar medium was poured in the other compartment. Ten ml of medium was poured
in each compartment of the Petri dish. The LB agar side was inoculated with three 10-µl drops
of OD adjusted bacterial suspension while the M9 agar side was pricked at the centre with a
pipette tip. The LB side of the plate was inoculated 6h before inoculation on the M9 agar side.
Plates were parafilmed and incubated at room temperature for two days. The pictures were
taken and analysed using the ImageJ software (version 1.53i)[34] to obtain the growth area in
pixels square.

Biofilm formation assays

Bacterial collection and inoculation in liquid King's B medium was as described in '*Growth
curves and pyoverdine measurements*'. The inoculated plates (96-well plates, Corning, NY,
USA) were statically incubated at 30 ˚C for 48h and biofilm measurements were done as
previously reported[35] using a Cytation5 plate reader (BioTek, Winooski, VT, USA). The
experiment was replicated three times in total with 36 technical replicates each. For exposure
experiments, 24-well plates (Corning, NY, USA) were used. 100 µl of OD adjusted bacterial
cells were added to 1 ml of LB broth and plates were parafilmed and incubated for 48h statically
at 30 ˚C. A schematic of the experimental setup is shown in Figure S6. Exposure experiments
were independently reproduced three times with 6-20 technical replicates.

RNA extraction

OD adjusted bacterial cells were inoculated into 6-well plates (Corning, NY, USA) at a final
OD600 of 0.1 in KB broth. The plates were then sealed with parafilm. The experimental setup
is shown in Figure 3a. For all three time points, cells equivalent to OD600 = 3 were collected
from the middle two wells (dark boundary in Figure 3a) by centrifugation at 5000 rpm for 5min
at 4 ˚C. Samples from each treatment and time point were collected from three independent
experiments. The collected cells were flash frozen using liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 ˚C
until RNA extraction. RNA extraction was performed using standard phenol-chloroform
extraction using the Trizol method[36]. Samples were treated with DNaseI (Sigma Aldrich) and
then re-extracted using the same Trizol method as above. The RNA was quantified and analysed
by the NGS facility in Bern (using both Qubit and Bioanalyser quantification). The libraries
were prepared according to the TruSeq Stranded mRNA Sample Preparation Guide (Illumina).
Briefly, total RNA was purified, fragmented, reverse transcribed, and amplified to generate the
libraries, which were subjected to high-throughput 100bp single-end sequencing on a NovaSeq
6000 instrument (Illumina).

RNA-seq data analysis

Quality control of the reads was performed with FastQC v0.11.7 (fastqc: https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/), revealing excellent quality reads for all samples. The reads were cleaned using fastp v0.19.5[37] with a special focus on removing polyG trails and keeping only full length reads (100bp). The reference genome for *Pseudomonas chlororaphis* R47 (CP019399) was downloaded from the NCBI data analysis and indexed for STAR v2.5.0b[38]. Then the reads of each sample from step 1 were remapped to genes with STAR using the annotation information (gtf file). The final table of counts was obtained by merging the individual tables with unix commands. The read counts were then analysed using the R library DESeq2, version 1.30.1[39]. The Log2 (fold change) cut-off was set to greater than or equal to 1 and the adjusted p-value threshold was set to less or equal to 0.05.

qPCR analysis

Three biologically independent samples collected for RNA-seq were analysed for the expression of the *hcnA* gene. Primers used are described in Table S3. RNA samples were reverse transcribed using the SensiFAST cDNA synthesis kit (Bioline). Quantitative PCR was performed according to the manufacturer's instructions (Bioline). Briefly, 25 ng of cDNA was mixed with 0.5 µl of forward and reverse primers (10 µM), 1.5 µl of sterile water and 7.5 µl SYBR Hi-ROX mix (Bioline). Reaction conditions were as follows; 95 ˚C for 15min (initial denaturation), 45 cycles of 95 ˚C for 15s, 60 ˚C for 15s, 72 ˚C for 30s. Data were analysed using the delta Cq method.

Hydrogen cyanide quantification

R47 and R32 wild-type strains were inoculated and grown in 6-well plates as described in the *RNA extraction* section except that the middle two wells were inoculated with 1 ml 0.38 M NaOH (Merck, Germany) to capture HCN in the surrounding. At the transition phase between exponential and stationary growth, the experiment was stopped, the OD600 was measured using Cytation5 automated plate reader and NaOH was collected. In a 96-well plate aliquots of 100 µl of collected NaOH sample were mixed with 100 µl of 1 M HCl (Fisher Scientific U.K. Ltd) and immediately covered with HCN detection filter paper[13]. After 30 min incubation at room temperature, the filter paper was scanned using Epson Perfection V370 Photo scanner and analysed using ImageJ image analysis software. A standard curve was made with KCN (Merck, Germany) solution of 31, 62 and 125 µM in 0.38 M NaOH. The experiment was replicated three times independently.

Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses for phenotypic assays were performed using Graphpad Prism 8.0.1 (https://www.graphpad.com/). For pair-wise comparisons, the Mann-Whitney test was done (Figure 1c-e). For multiple comparisons, the linear model assumptions were checked and ANOVA followed by Tukey's test was used for analysis (data was log transformed for Figure 3d).

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Author Contributions

LW and AA conceived the project and wrote the manuscript, with help from CK. AA performed all experiments, with help from FLH. LF performed transcriptomics analysis, EAM performed HPLC analysis. All authors commented on the manuscript.

Competing Interests statement

The authors declare no competing interests.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3