Systematic mapping of chemoreceptor specificities for *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*

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Running Head:

Ligand mapping for *P. aeruginosa* chemoreceptors

Abstract

The chemotaxis network, one of the most prominent prokaryotic sensory systems, is present in most motile bacteria and archaea. Although the conserved signaling core of the network is well characterized, ligand specificities of a large majority of diverse chemoreceptors encoded in bacterial genomes remain unknown. Here we performed a systematic identification and characterization of new chemoeffectors for the opportunistic pathogen *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, which has 26 chemoreceptors possessing most of the common types of ligand binding domains. By performing capillary chemotaxis assays for a library of growth-promoting compounds, we first identified a number of novel chemoattractants of varying strength. We subsequently mapped specificities of these ligands by performing Förster resonance energy transfer (FRET) and microfluidic measurements for hybrids containing ligand binding domains of *P. aeruginosa* chemoreceptors and the signaling domain of the *Escherichia coli* Tar receptor. Direct binding of ligands to chemoreceptors was further confirmed *in vitro* using thermal shift assay and microcalorimetry. Altogether, the combination of methods enabled us to assign several new attractants, including methyl 4-aminobutyrate, 5-aminovalerate, L-ornithine, 2-phenylethylamine and tyramine, to previously characterized chemoreceptors and to annotate a novel purine-specific receptor PctP. Our screening strategy could be applied for the systematic characterization of unknown sensory domains in a wide range of bacterial species.

Importance

Chemotaxis of motile bacteria has multiple physiological functions. It enables bacteria to locate optimal ecological niches, mediates collective behaviors, and can play an important role in infection. These multiple functions largely depend on ligand specificities of chemoreceptors, and

the number and identities of chemoreceptors show high diversity between organisms. Similar

diversity is observed for the spectra of chemoeffectors, which include not only chemicals of high

metabolic value but also bacterial, plant and animal signaling molecules. However, the systematic

identification of chemoeffectors and their mapping to specific chemoreceptors remains a

challenge. Here, we combined several *in vivo* and *in vitro* approaches to establish a systematic

screening strategy for the identification of receptor ligands, and we applied it to identify a

number of new physiologically relevant chemoeffectors for the important opportunistic human

pathogen *P. aeruginosa*. This strategy can be equally applicable to map specificities of sensory

domains from a wide variety of receptor types and bacteria.

Keywords: *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, chemotaxis, signal transduction, ligand binding domains,

chemoeffectors, receptor chimera, Förster resonance energy transfer (FRET), purines, amino

acids, biogenic amines

60   Introduction

Most bacteria have evolved the ability to detect a wide range of environmental signals to survive

and grow under rapidly changing conditions. One of the most prominent prokaryotic sensory

systems is the chemotaxis network that controls motility (1, 2). Chemotaxis has multiple

important functions in bacterial physiology, dependent on the lifestyle and ecological niche,

enabling bacteria to move towards optimal growth environments but also mediating collective

behaviors and interactions with eukaryotic hosts (3, 4).

Such variety of chemotaxis-mediated functions is primarily ensured by the diversity of bacterial

chemoreceptors, also called methyl-accepting chemotaxis proteins (MCPs) (5). While the core of

the signaling pathway is conserved among bacteria, the number and specificity of chemoreceptors

is highly variable and strain-specific (6). The reported repertoire of signals recognized by

chemoreceptors across bacterial species includes proteinogenic amino acids (7, 8), polyamines

(9), quaternary amines (10), nucleobases and their derivatives (11, 12), organic acids (13, 14),

sugars (15), but also inorganic ions (16, 17), pH (18–20) and temperature (21, 22). Nevertheless,

the signal specificity remains unknown for the absolute majority of chemoreceptors.

The paradigmatic model system of *Escherichia coli* chemotaxis consists of a single pathway,

controlled by four transmembrane chemoreceptors and one aerotaxis receptor, and it includes six

cytoplasmic signaling proteins: a histidine kinase CheA, an adaptor CheW, a response regulator

CheY, a methyltransferase CheR, a methylesterase CheB, and a phosphatase CheZ (2). Typically,

chemotactic stimuli modulate the autophosphorylation activity of CheA, which is inhibited by

attractants and stimulated by repellents, subsequently altering the transphosphorylation of CheY.

The phosphorylated CheY binds to the flagellar motor resulting in a change in the direction of

flagellar rotation, ultimately causing a chemotactic response. CheZ is responsible for the

dephosphorylation of CheY. After the initial pathway response, an adaptation system composed

of CheR and CheB adjusts the level of receptor methylation on several specific glutamyl residues,

providing negative feedback to the kinase activity, which ensures adaptation of cells to persisting

stimulation. Although most of the chemotaxis proteins found in *E. coli* are conserved across

bacterial chemotaxis pathways, most bacteria have more complex chemosensory pathways,

possessing additional chemotaxis proteins and chemoreceptors, alternative adaptation and signal

termination strategies (23–25).

Canonical chemoreceptors can be separated in three functional domains: a periplasmic ligand

binding domain (LBD), a signal conversion HAMP domain, and a cytoplasmic signaling domain

that interacts with the autokinase CheA (5). Analyses of sequenced bacterial genomes revealed

that bacterial chemoreceptors employ more than 80 different types of LBDs (6). In contrast, all *E.*

coli transmembrane chemoreceptors possess the same four-helix bundle (4HB) type of LBD.

Thus, although *E. coli* chemotaxis signaling pathway is one of the simplest and best understood,

it does not represent the diversity of bacterial sensory capabilities.

Pseudomonas aeruginosa is among the most important human pathogens, causing the death of

more than half a million people annually (26), and it is also one of the most well-studied

alternative models for chemotaxis (27, 28). The chemoreceptor repertoire of the *P. aeruginosa*

model strain PAO1 has 26 chemoreceptors containing 12 different LBD types that feed into four

different chemosensory pathways, of which 23 chemoreceptors were predicted to stimulate the

genuine F6-type chemotaxis pathway that controls swimming motility. Other three receptors

McpB/Aer2, WspA, and PilJ are involved in an F7-type pathway of unknown function, an

alternative cellular function pathway that mediates c-di-GMP synthesis, and type IV pili

chemosensory pathway that is associated with twitching motility, respectively. The latter two

pathways were found to perform mechano- and surface sensing rather than chemosensing (29–

31). Of the 18 chemoreceptors with a periplasmic LBD that belong to the F6 pathway (28), ten

have been functionality annotated (Table 1). Ligands of the other eight chemoreceptors involved

in chemotactic behaviors are yet to be characterized, and given the variety of ligands that are

typically sensed by a single LBD, even the annotated LBDs are likely to possess additional ligand

specificities.

Several experimental approaches have been developed to systematically characterize the

specificities of uncharacterized chemoreceptors. The quantitative capillary chemotaxis assay is a

traditional method for identifying bacterial chemoeffectors. However, because of differences in

motility and physiology, the experimental conditions for the capillary assay need to be

established for each individual bacterial strain, which complicates its general application.

Moreover, assignment of identified ligands to specific chemoreceptors typically requires the

construction of strains with deletions of individual receptor genes, and it is complicated by the

frequent functional redundancy of multiple chemoreceptors. Alternatively, biochemical assays

can be used for ligand identification *in vitro* (32). The thermal shift assay (TSA; alternatively

called differential scanning fluorimetry, DSF) can be applied to characterize binding of chemical

compounds to LBDs in high-throughput screens, but it is prone to yield false-positive results.

Isothermal titration calorimetry (ITC) is, in contrast, an accurate but low-throughput method to

measure ligand binding (33). Although a combination of these *in vitro* methods has proven to be

very powerful for ligand identification (34), their application is limited to the LBD that can be

purified and to compounds with high-affinity binding.

A complementary strategy for identification of receptor ligands relies on the construction of

chimeric receptors that combine an LBD of interest with the well-characterized output domain,

such as that of the *E. coli* Tar receptor. Both, chemoreceptor-chemoreceptor hybrids (35) and

chemoreceptor-histidine kinase hybrids (36) that enable an *in vivo* readout of signaling response

have been recently used to annotate unknown sensory functions. Here, we constructed a library of

most *P. aeruginosa* LBDs fused to the signaling domain of the *E. coli* chemoreceptor Tar, and we

used this library in combination with *in vivo* and *in vitro* assays to identify several novel

physiologically relevant chemoeffectors and to assign them to specific *P. aeruginosa*

chemoreceptors. Overall, our screening strategy allowed us to expand the list of known

chemoreceptor specificities for *P. aeruginosa*, and a similar approach should be applicable to

chemoreceptors from other bacteria and even to other types of receptors with a periplasmic LBD.

Results

High-throughput screening for putative chemoeffectors in *P. aeruginosa*

To identify potential chemoeffectors for *P. aeruginosa*, we first screened chemical compounds

from a large library of metabolites. Since several studies have shown correlation between a

metabolic value of a compound and its potency as a chemoeffector (8, 37), we first used a growth

assay to test effects of chemical compounds from three plates of the commercial Biolog

compound arrays (PM1, PM2A and PM3B). This growth assay indeed showed that 202

compounds could be utilized as either carbon or nitrogen sources to support *P. aeruginosa*

growth (Table S1). Out of those, we selected 30 compounds from Biolog compound arrays and

additional 9 compounds that have been characterized as the specific ligands in other strains of

Pseudomonas spp. These 39 compounds have not yet been characterized as chemoattractants for

P. aeruginosa, indicating that at least some of them are likely to be novel ligands for *P.*

aeruginosa chemoreceptors.

We next investigated the chemotactic responses of *P. aeruginosa* to these potential ligands by

performing quantitative capillary chemotaxis assays (Fig. 1). Five compounds were able to highly

efficiently attract bacteria, with the strongest response being observed for methyl 4-

aminobutyrate, followed by 5-aminovalerate, ethanolamine (EA), L-ornithine, and 2-

phenylethylamine (PEA). Other seven compounds, guanine, glutarate, tricarballylate, niacinate,

succinate, fumarate and formate, acted as chemoattractants of intermediate strength. Of note, low

concentration of guanine (10 µM instead of 1 mM) was used in this assay due to its poor

solubility. The remaining compounds mediated only weak or no chemotaxis, despite being

nutrients.

Construction of chimeras for 18 transmembrane chemoreceptors in *P. aeruginosa*

To investigate the specificities of these unassigned chemoeffectors, we focused on the 18

transmembrane chemoreceptors that belong to the F6 chemotaxis pathway of *P. aeruginosa*

(Table 1). To increase the probability of obtaining functional hybrid chemoreceptor for each

candidate, we applied three previously described construction strategies with different fusion

sites: within the transmembrane (TM) helix 2, after the HAMP domain, and within the TM2 helix

with a 5 amino acids random linker (17, 35). The resulting hybrids of type 1 and type 3 connect

the extracellular sensory domain, the TM1 helix, and part of the TM2 helix from *P. aeruginosa*

chemoreceptor to the rest of the TM2 helix, the HAMP domain and the cytoplasmic signaling

domain of *E. coli* chemoreceptor Tar (Fig. 2A). The fusion site of type 2 chimera is located in the

junction between the HAMP domain and cytoplasmic signaling domain, thus connecting the

extracellular sensory domain, the two TM helices and the whole HAMP domain from *P.*

aeruginosa chemoreceptor to the cytoplasmic signaling domain of Tar.

We subsequently tested the functionality of these chimeras expressed in a receptorless *E. coli*

strain. We first used soft-agar gradient plates, where chemotactic cells exhibit biased spreading in

gradients of compounds that are established by diffusion (Fig. 2B). Subsequently, we performed

Förster resonance energy transfer FRET measurements (Fig. 2C) that are based on the

phosphorylation-dependent interaction between CheY fused to yellow fluorescent protein (CheY-

YFP) and CheZ fused to cyan fluorescent protein (CheZ-CFP). This assay enables to monitor

activity of the chemotaxis pathway by following changes in the ratio YFP/CFP fluorescence,

which is proportional to CheA activity (38). Because ligand specificity for many tested LBDs is

not known, D-glucose was routinely used as a non-specific chemoattractant to assess the activity

of hybrids. Differently from conventional chemoattractants, D-glucose is sensed via the

phosphotransferase system (PTS) which signals to the cytoplasmic part of the chemoreceptor

(39–41). A response to D-glucose thus demonstrates that the receptor hybrid activates the

pathway and is responsive to stimulation, but the functionality of extracellular sensory domain

and signal transduction toward the cytoplasmic part of the receptor remains to be confirmed by a

specific ligand. From the constructed hybrids, only PA2561-Tar and PA4520-Tar showed no

response to D-glucose. The functionality of several hybrids with already characterized LBDs was

further verified by measuring FRET responses to their specific ligands (Table 1). Collectively, 16

active hybrid chemoreceptors were constructed successfully, and 7 of them were confirmed to be

functional.

Screening of specific ligands for chemoreceptor chimeras using FRET

For these 16 functional hybrids, we conducted the one-by-one screening with potential ligands at

a fixed concentration of 100 μM, using FRET measurements in *E. coli* strains expressing the

indicated hybrid chemoreceptor as a sole chemoreceptor along with the CheZ-CFP/CheY-YFP

FRET pair. A number of tested ligands elicited similar responses for all (or most) receptor

hybrids, as well as for the full-length Tar (Table S2), indicating that these stimuli might be sensed

by the cytoplasmic portion of Tar (2). Responses to other potential ligands were hybrid-specific,

suggesting that their selectivity for a particular LBD (Table 1 and Table S2).

As an example, a hybrid that contains a 4HB-type LBD of PA1608 with unknown function

showed not only responses to D-glucose but also similarly strong responses to inosine and

guanine (Fig. 3A). These compounds did not stimulate Tar (Fig. S1A-C), suggesting that the

extracellular sensor domain of PA1608 might be specific for inosine and guanine (see below).

Another example is the hybrid with the LBD of PctB, a well-known amino acid chemoreceptor,

where the response to L-glutamine was used to confirm its functionality. Different from Tar (Fig.

S1B), PctB-Tar was also able to produce strong FRET response upon exposure to L-ornithine

(Fig. 3B). Other identified ligands are summarized in Table 1 and Table S2. Besides purines and

L-ornithine, these included methyl 4-aminobutyrate and 5-aminovalerate (specific to PctC) and

salicylate (specific to PA2867).

In addition to molecular compounds, we tested the response to external pH that is also an

important stimulus for bacterial chemotaxis receptors. Furthermore, several pH-active

compounds present in the Biolog compound arrays used in our initial screening altered the pH of

the analysis buffer. We observed that several hybrids including PctA-Tar, PctB-Tar, PA1608-Tar

and TlpQ-Tar mediated a repellent response to acidic pH 6.0 (Fig. 3), whereas PctC-Tar and

PA1646-Tar showed an attractant response to acidic pH (Table S2). This indicates that, similar to

that of *E. coli* (20), *P. aeruginosa* might exhibit bidirectional navigation in pH gradients in order

to accumulate toward optimal pH.

Characterization of novel chemoeffectors for amino acid chemoreceptors PctA, PctB and

PctC

In general, whenever clear responses to a particular ligand were observed in the micromolar

concentration range in the *E. coli* FRET strain expressing chimera as a sole receptor, whereas the

strain expressing wildtype Tar showed no response, it was seen as evidence that ligand is

recognized by the respective sensory domain. The FRET results showed that, besides their known

amino acid ligands, PctA-Tar and PctB-Tar were responsive to L-ornithine (Fig. 4A-C), whereas

no response could be observed for Tar (Fig. S2A). This observation is consistent with a recent

report, although direct binding of L-ornithine to these receptors was not demonstrated (42). We

therefore performed ITC experiments using purified the LBDs of PctA and PctB, which

confirmed binding of L-ornithine to both LBDs, with higher affinity (K_D = 7.1 μM) for PctA than

for PctB (K_D = 559 μM) (Fig. 4D and E). This difference in affinity was consistent with the

relative potency of these ligands as chemoeffectors for hybrids in *E. coli* (Fig. 4C), when taking

into account the *in vivo* signal amplification by the *E. coli* chemotaxis system.

Similarly, the specificity of PctC-Tar response to methyl 4-aminobutyrate and 5-aminovalerate

was confirmed by the dose-response FRET measurements (Fig. 5A-C and Fig. S2B-C). We

further demonstrated direct binding of methyl 4-aminobutyrate (Fig. 5D) and 5-aminovalerate

(Fig. 5E) to PctC-LBD by ITC, with dissociation constants of 129 and 28 μM, respectively.

Again, these values were consistent with the higher sensitivity of PctC-Tar (lower EC50) to 5-

aminovalerate in FRET measurements (Fig. 5C), taking in consideration the higher sensitivity of

the *in vivo* response as discussed above. Finally, the relevance of the PctC-mediated response for

chemotaxis of *P. aeruginosa* towards methyl 4-aminobutyrate and 5-aminovalerate was

confirmed by the capillary chemotaxis assays, where the *pctC* deletion strain showed strongly

reduced chemotaxis compared to the wildtype strain (Fig. 5F).

Characterization of PctP (PA1608) as a purine-specific chemoreceptor

The initial FRET screening showed that PA1608-Tar hybrid responded to guanine and inosine

which are purine derivatives, whereas no responses were observed to cytosine, thymidine or

uridine that all have a pyrimidine ring (Fig. 3A). Based on these observations, we speculated that

PA1608 may be a purine-specific chemoreceptor. This hypothesis was further supported by TSA

measurements of the binding of purine derivatives to PA1608, which all caused significant

increases in the midpoint temperature of the protein unfolding transition (Fig. S3). We therefore

further investigated the chemotactic responses of the PA1608-Tar hybrid to these 6 purine

derivatives. When the PA1608-Tar hybrid was expressed as a sole chemoreceptor in *E. coli*

FRET strain, clear attractant responses were observed to guanine and hypoxanthine in the lower

micromolar range and to adenine at higher micromolar concentrations (Fig. 6A). Consistently,

responses were seen for *E. coli* strain expressing PA1608-Tar in gradients of guanine and

hypoxanthine, but not of adenine, using the microfluidic chemotaxis assay (Fig. 6B). FRET

responses were also observed for PA1608-Tar expressing cells to all three corresponding purine

nucleosides (Fig. 6C). No responses to these purine derivatives were observed for the *E. coli*

FRET strain and microfluidic strain expressing only the wild type Tar receptor (Fig. S2D-I and

Fig. S4). Overall, the extracellular domain of PA1608 is most sensitive to the two nucleobases

guanine and hypoxanthine, followed by the purine nucleosides and finally by adenine (Fig. 6D).

Additional evidence for the specificity of PA1608 for purines was obtained by ITC, which

showed that PA1608-LBD binds to hypoxanthine with high affinity in a process characterized by

negative cooperativity (K_{D1} = 43 µM and K_{D2} = 286 µM) (Fig. 6E), while the binding of guanine

and other purine derivatives was not detected due to the limited solubility or low binding affinity.

Since hypoxanthine was not included in our initial screen to identify novel chemoeffectors, we

have generated the PA1608 mutant and performed capillary assays of chemotaxis to

hypoxanthine using the wild type and the mutant strains. Indeed, the wild type cells showed

strong chemoattractant response to 1 mM hypoxanthine, whereas the inactivation of the PA1608

chemoreceptor nearly abolished this response (Fig. 6F). Taken together, PA1608 responded with

different sensitivity to 6 purine derivatives and was thus renamed as PctP (*Pseudomonas*

<u>c</u>hemotaxis <u>t</u>ransducer for <u>p</u>urines).

Characterization of chemoreceptors for ethanolamine, 2-phenylethylamine and other

biogenic amines

Two remaining strong chemoattractants, ethanolamine (EA) and 2-phenylethylamine (PEA), did

not elicit apparent responses in our initial FRET screening. In order to identify their specific

chemoreceptor(s), we screened receptor mutant strains of *P. aeruginosa* in the presence of 20

mM EA and PEA using quantitative capillary assays. Although no conclusive results were

obtained for EA, a significant decrease in the chemoattraction to PEA was observed for the *tlpQ*

mutant strain, and intermediate reduction for PA4915, PA1646 and PA4520 mutant strains (Fig.

7A), indicating that these receptors might play a role in the chemotaxis to PEA. This was

supported by the thermal shift assays, which suggested that TlpQ-LBD and PA4915-LBD might

bind PEA, and PA4915-LBD might also bind EA (Fig. 7B). In these cases, we were unable to

observe clear FRET responses of TlpQ-Tar and PA4915-Tar hybrids to PEA or EA, although

these two hybrids showed good responses to D-glucose (Table S2) and TlpQ-Tar mediated (weak)

attractant responses to its known ligands such as histamine, spermidine and spermine (Fig. S5A).

This suggests that TlpQ-Tar and PA4915-Tar hybrids are not fully functional, explaining why

responses to PEA and EA were not detected in our initial FRET screen. Nevertheless, our ITC

measurements confirmed the direct binding of PEA to TlpQ-LBD and PA4915-LBD (Fig. 7C and

D). Collectively, despite poor functionality of their hybrids, we conclude that TlpQ and PA4915

are the major chemoreceptors for PEA chemotaxis in *P. aeruginosa*.

In previous studies, TlpQ was demonstrated to bind several biogenic amines, such as histamine,

spermine, agmatine, cadaverine and putrescine (9). Since some of these compounds, as well as

the newly identified ligand PEA, are produced by the decarboxylation of amino acids, we

speculated that TlpQ might also sense tyramine, the decarboxylation product of tyrosine. Indeed,

tlpQ mutant strain showed much reduced chemotaxis toward tyramine in the capillary assay (Fig.

S5B), and binding of tyramine to TlpQ-LBD was confirmed by ITC (Fig. S5C).

Finally, we used FRET to test responses of amino acid chemoreceptors PctA, PctB and PctC to

histamine, one of the most important biogenic amines (43, 44). A recent study (9) suggested that

next to TlpQ, PctA and PctC also participate in the histamine chemotaxis, but microcalorimetric

titrations of the corresponding LBDs revealed only binding to TlpQ. In contrast, FRET

measurements confirmed that PctB and PctC can sense histamine in medium to high micromolar

range (Fig. S6), highlighting the advantage of using receptor hybrids for characterization of low-

affinity ligands.

Discussion

Bacteria contain an extensive array of different sensory receptors that respond to a variety of

stimuli, regulating multiple physiological functions including gene expression, chemotaxis or

second messenger signaling. Major receptor families include sensory histidine kinases,

chemoreceptors, adenylate, diadenylate and diguanylate cyclases and phosphodiesterases, as well

as Ser/Thr/Tyr protein kinases and phosphoprotein phosphatases (45). Typically, these receptors

are stimulated by the binding of signal molecules to their sensory domains that contain all the

requisites for ligand binding. However, the lack of established signals that are recognized by

receptors is currently a major bottleneck in our understanding of signal transduction processes in

bacteria (46).

The fact that the same type of sensor domain is frequently found in different signal transduction

systems suggests their modular nature and indicates that these domains have been exchanged

among different receptor families during evolution. This notion is exemplified by the dCache

domain that is the predominant type of the bacterial extracellular sensory domain, present in all

major bacterial receptor families (47). Previous success with construction of hybrid receptors (35,

36, 48, 49) confirmed this modularity and indicated that the exchange of sensory domains

between different receptors can also be reproduced in the laboratory, and it is likely that such

hybrid construction could be extended beyond chemoreceptor-chemoreceptor and

chemoreceptor-sensor kinase hybrids to sensor domains from other types of receptors. Ligand

screening for hybrid receptors, as done in this work, has thus the promise to become a universal

approach to identify receptor ligands and thus to tackle a major bottleneck in microbiology.

Here we combined the screening based on hybrid chemoreceptors with binding and capillary

assays to systematically identify novel ligands of chemoreceptors in *P. aeruginosa*, an important

pathogen with a complex lifestyle and the correspondingly broad chemosensory range. Since

many known bacterial chemoattractants are metabolically valuable compounds (8, 37), we first

performed high-throughput screenings for candidate chemoeffectors using the growth assay,

followed by an evaluation of their potency as chemoattractants for *P. aeruginosa* in the capillary

chemotaxis assays. The strongest chemoattractants were then prioritized for further investigation

using a library of hybrid chemoreceptors, containing the sensor domains of *P. aeruginosa*

chemoreceptors fused to the signaling domain of *E. coli* Tar, to identify the potential ligand-

receptor pairs using FRET and microfluidic assays (35). This approach has several advantages,

including highly sensitive and standardized chemotaxis assays already established in *E. coli*,

which enable detection not only of high- but also of low-affinity ligands, and testing not only

binding of ligands but also their signaling properties. It further avoids the complication of

functional redundancy between *P. aeruginosa* chemoreceptors with overlapping ligand

specificities. Nevertheless, this hybrid-based *in vivo* screening also has some limitations,

primarily because most but not all of the constructed hybrids are functional, and in those cases it

was complemented by *in vitro* ligand screening using TSA. Direct binding between the high-

affinity ligands and sensor domains of chemoreceptors could further be confirmed using ITC.

Finally, capillary chemotaxis assays were used to demonstrate the physiological relevance of

identified ligand-receptor interactions for chemotaxis of *P. aeruginosa*.

This combination of assays enabled us to identify new ligands for previously studied

chemoreceptors and to characterize new chemoreceptors in this well-studied model organism

(Table 1). One example of the former category is the observed response to L-ornithine mediated

by two amino acid chemoreceptors PctA and PctB, which support a recent study that implicated

these receptors in *P. aeruginosa* chemotaxis towards L-ornithine (42). L-ornithine is a

biologically versatile non-proteinogenic derivative of L-arginine. Besides its effects on growth,

L-ornithine is known to promote of *P. aeruginosa* biofilm formation (50). L-ornithine might also

accumulate in human lung environment during conditions that are associated with *P. aeruginosa*

infections due to the elevated production of arginase (51), indicating a possible role of L-

ornithine chemotaxis in virulence, and making its receptors potentially attractive target for

therapeutic interventions. Indeed, the mutation of *pctA*, *pctB* and *pctC* reduced the accumulation

of *P. aeruginosa* towards wounded lung epithelial cells (52). We observed that PctA senses L-

ornithine at much lower concentrations than PctB, which is consistent with the previously

observed difference in the sensitivity of these two receptors to L-arginine and several other amino

acids (53). Another example is the *P. aeruginosa* response to other amino acid derivatives,

methyl 4-aminobutyrate and 5-aminovalerate. We could show that these compounds are sensed

by PctC, the high-affinity receptor for gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA). This is consistent with

the structural similarity of these compounds to GABA, although their affinities to PctC are 10 to

100-fold lower than that of GABA (54).

Besides assigning new ligands to known chemoreceptors, we identified a novel purine-specific

chemoreceptor PctP (PA1608). FRET results show that this receptor has highest affinity for

guanine and hypoxanthine, intermediate affinity for purine nucleosides and significantly lower

affinity for adenine, and it exhibits no response to pyrimidine derivatives. A lacking availability

of nucleotide bases might limit growth of bacterial pathogens in the human host (55), including

growth of *P. aeruginosa* in the lungs of cystic fibrosis (CF) patients (56), and cross-feeding of

purine derivatives might play a role in a polymicrobial community in CF lungs (57). Thus, purine

derivatives are both important nutrients and might be available during *P. aeruginosa* infection.

Despite their potential importance, there are only few existing reports of chemotaxis towards

purine or pyrimidine derivatives (11, 12, 58, 59), and only a single bacterial chemoreceptor

specific for metabolizable purines has been characterized so far, McpH from *Pseudomonas*

putida KT2440 (59). Interestingly, despite the phylogenetic proximity of *P. aeruginosa* and *P.*

putida, McpH possesses a dCache-type LBD, whereas PctP has a four-helix bundle type LBD,

indicative of convergent evolution (60) and providing further support to the important role of

purine chemotaxis.

Finally, *P. aeruginosa* response to ethanolamine, 2-phenylethylamine and tyramine expands the

ligand range of characterized chemoreceptors. TlpQ was previously reported to bind several

biogenic amines (BAs), including putrescine, histamine, agmatine and cadaverine (9), which are

derived from the decarboxylation of L-amino acids. BAs have important physiological functions

in eukaryotic and prokaryotic cells, and many bacteria are able to produce and/or degrade BAs

(44, 61). Here, with PEA and tyramine we identified two additional TlpQ ligands. Sequence

comparison between the dCache domain of TlpQ and the amino acid-binding dCache domains of

PctA, PctB and PctC (62) shows conservation of amino acids that bind the amine group, which

may explain the capacity of these receptor to bind either amino acids or their decarboxylated

derivatives. Furthermore, we identified a second, previously uncharacterized, receptor PA4915 as

a sensor of PEA, and possibly also of EA. The binding affinity of PA4915-LBD for PEA is even

higher than that of TlpQ LBD, suggesting that it might be particularly important to mediate

response to low concentrations of PEA. Notably, PA4915 possesses the four-helix bundle type

LBD, which provides an interesting example of receptors within one bacterium that harbor

different types of LBD but respond to the same ligand.

In addition to characterizing novel receptor specificities for chemical ligands, we observed that

multiple LBDs of *P. aeruginosa* chemoreceptors can mediate specific responses to pH. In two

model neutrophilic bacteria where pH taxis has been studied, *E. coli* (20) and *Bacillus subtilis*

(19), bacterial accumulation toward neutral pH is ensured by opposite pH responses mediated by

different receptors. In *E. coli*, the acidophilic response is primarily mediated by the LBD of Tar

and the alkaliphilic response by the LBD of Tsr (20). Our results for the hybrid receptors suggest

the existence of similar, but possibly more complex, bidirectional pH taxis in *P. aeruginosa*, with

the LBDs of PctC and PA1646 mediating acidophilic taxis and those of PctB and PctP mediating

alkaliphilic taxis. Particularly interesting are pH responses of the hybrids containing LBDs of

PctA and TlpQ, which show repellent responses to both high and low pH, indicating that these

receptors might even be individually able to mediate bacterial accumulation toward neutral pH.

Given this multitude of pH responses mediated by the LBDs of *P. aeruginosa* chemoreceptors,

along with recently described general effects of pH on chemoreceptor LBDs (18), it would be

interesting to investigate behavior of *P. aeruginosa* and other bacteria with complex

chemosensory systems in pH gradients in future studies.

Taken together, our systematic screening strategy enabled us to enlarge the spectrum of ligand

specificities of sensor domains in *P. aeruginosa*, despite it being already well-studied model for

bacterial chemotaxis. A similar strategy could be applied for the systematic characterization of

unknown sensor domains from different types of receptors in other species, including those that

are unculturable.

Materials and methods

Bacterial strains, plasmids and culture conditions: Bacterial strains and plasmids are listed in

Table S3. For chemotaxis and FRET experiments, *E. coli* was grown in TB medium (1% tryptone

and 0.5% NaCl) at 34 °C. For molecular cloning and protein expression, *E. coli* was grown in LB

medium at 37 °C. *P. aeruginosa* was grown overnight in M9 minimal medium containing 15 mM

D-glucose at 37 °C. When necessary, antibiotics were used at the following final concentrations:

kanamycin, 50 µg/ml (*E. coli* strains); ampicillin, 100 µg/ml (*E. coli* strains); chloramphenicol,

34 µg/ml (*E. coli* strains) and 100 µg/ml (*P. aeruginosa* strains); tetracycline, 50 µg/ml (*P.

aeruginosa* strains).

PA1608 mutant generation: To generate the *pctP* mutant strain, a 1280-bp fragment of PA1608

was amplified by PCR using primers PA1608_MUT_F and PA1608_MUT_R (Table S3). The

PCR product was cloned into pGEM®-T vector and transformed into *E. coli* DH5α. The resulting

plasmid pGEMT®-PA1608 was digested with ApaI and SpeI and the insert cloned into

pKNG101 previously digested with the same enzyme. The resulting plasmid pKNG101-PA1608

was then transformed into *E. coli* CC118 λpir. pKNG101_PA1608 was then introduced into *P.*

aeruginosa PAO1 by electroporation according to (63). The mutant was verified by PCR and

sequencing.

Growth assays: The analysis of the nutritional profile was carried out using the "Phenotype

Microarrays™" plates PM1, PM2A and PM3B (for further information, refer to

https://www.biolog.com/wp-content/uploads/2020/04/00A-042-Rev-C-Phenotype-MicroArrays-

1-10-Plate-Maps.pdf). Each of these plates contains 95 chemical compounds and one control

(H_2O). To determine the growth of *P. aeruginosa* using these compounds as the sole carbon or

nitrogen source, the lyophilized compounds present on the Biolog plates were resuspended in 90

µL of either M9 medium (for Biolog PM1 and PM2A plates) or M8 medium (M9 minimal

medium without NH_4Cl) containing 15 mM glucose (for Biolog PM3B plate). Subsequently, a *P.*

aeruginosa overnight culture was washed twice with M8 salts medium, diluted to an OD_{600} of 0.2

in M9 or M8 salts medium and then the wells with each of the compounds were inoculated with

10 µL of these cultures. Finally, growth was monitored at 37 ºC with shaking, determining the

OD_{600} every hour for 48 h in a Bioscreen Microbiological Growth Analyser (Oy Growth Curves

Ab Ltd, Helsinki, Finland).

Chemotaxis capillary assays for P. aeruginosa strains: Overnight cultures in M9 minimal

medium supplemented with 6 mg/L Fe-citrate, trace elements (64), and 15 mM glucose were used

to inoculate fresh medium to an OD_{660} of 0.05. Cells were cultured at 37 °C to an OD_{660} of 0.4.

Subsequently, cells were washed twice by centrifugation (1,667 × g for 5 min) and resuspended in

chemotaxis buffer (50 mM KH_2PO_4/K_2HPO_4, 20 mM EDTA, 0.05% [vol/vol] glycerol, pH 7.0).

Aliquots (230 μl) of the cell suspension at an OD_{660} of 0.1. were placed into the wells of 96-well

microtiter plates. Then, 1-μl capillaries (Microcaps, Drummond Scientific) were heat-sealed at

one end and filled with buffer (control) or chemoeffector solution prepared in chemotaxis buffer.

The capillaries were rinsed with sterile water and immersed into the bacterial suspensions at their

open ends. After 30 min, capillaries were removed from the wells, rinsed with sterile water, and

emptied into 1 ml of chemotaxis buffer. Serial dilutions were plated onto M9 minimal medium

plates supplemented with 20 mM glucose, incubated at 37 °C prior to colony counting. Data were

corrected with the number of cells that swam into buffer containing capillaries.

Construction of hybrid chemoreceptors: To construct the hybrid type 1 in a high-efficient way,

the drop-out plasmid pHC8 was generated by Golden Gate Assembly kit (New England BioLabs),

and the basic genetic parts are from Marburg collection (65). Dropout part served as placeholder,

which carried a full expression cassette for the fluorescent proteins sfGFP to enable visible

distinction of correct colonies and outward facing BsaI recognition sites. The signaling domain of

Tar [198–553] was connected after the dropout part. The extracellular sensory domains of *P.*

aeruginosa chemoreceptors containing BsaI recognition sites at both ends were synthesized,

which allowed for replacing the dropout part by Golden Gate reaction, then generating the hybrid

chemoreceptor in one-step reaction. For the constructions of hybrid type 2 and type 3, the coding

sequences of each hybrid were amplified using PCR reaction (oligonucleotide sequences are

shown in Table S3). The amplified fragments containing overlapping sequences of vector

pKG116 were ligated into the digested vector pKG116 using Gibson assembly reaction in

NEBuilder® HiFi DNA Assembly Master Mix (New England BioLabs). After cloning, the active

or functional hybrid type 3 were selected from a library of chemoreceptor[1–X]-XXXXX-[203–

553] as described previously (35) .

FRET measurements: FRET measurements were performed as described previously (35, 38, 66).

Cultures of the receptorless *E. coli* strain VS181 expressing chimeras of interest and CheY-

YFP/CheZ-CFP FRET pair were prepared by inoculating 200 µl of the overnight culture into 10

ml TB medium supplemented with appropriate antibiotics and inducers (50 µM isopropyl-β-D-

thiogalactoside (IPTG) and 1-2 µM sodium salicylate), and grown in a rotary shaker at 34°C and

275 rpm. Cells were harvested at OD_{600} of 0.5 by centrifugation, and washed twice with tethering

buffer (10 mM KH_2PO_4/K_2HPO_4, 0.1 mM EDTA, 1 µM methionine, 10 mM sodium lactate, pH

7.0). For microscopy, the cells were attached to the poly-lysine-coated coverslips for 10 min and

mounted into a flow chamber that was maintained under constant flow of 0.3 ml/min of tethering

buffer using a syringe pump (Harvard Apparatus) that was also used to add or remove

compounds of interest. The pH value of all tested compounds was adjusted to 7, except for

compounds that are only soluble under acidic or basic conditions, where the background buffer at

corresponding pH was tested as a negative control. FRET measurements were performed on an

upright fluorescence microscope (Zeiss AxioImager.Z1) equipped with photon counters

(Hamamatsu). The fluorescence signals were recorded and analyzed as described previously (17).

Protein overexpression and purification: The LBDs of chemoreceptors PctA, PctB, PctC,

PA4915 and TlpQ were purified as described previously (9, 67). For the remaining proteins, the

LBDs were cloned into a pET28b(+) expression vector. *E. coli* BL21 (DE3) harboring the LBD

expression plasmid was grown in 5 L Erlenmeyer flasks containing 1 L LB medium

supplemented with kanamycin under continuous stirring (200 rpm) at 37 °C. When OD_{600}

reached 0.6, 0.1 mM isopropyl-β-D-thiogalactoside (IPTG) was added to induce protein

expression. Growth was continued at 16 ºC for 12 h and cells were harvested by centrifugation at

10 000 x *g* for 30 min at 4 ºC. Proteins were purified by metal affinity chromatography using

modified procedures for His GraviTrap™ column (Cytiva lifesciences, Marlborough,

Massachusetts, USA). Briefly, cell pellets were resuspended in binding buffer (20 mM sodium

phosphate, 500 mM NaCl, and 20 mM imidazole, pH 7.4) supplemented with 0.2 μg/ml

lysozyme, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, 1 mM PMSF, stirred for 30 min at 4 ºC and lysed by an ultrasonic

homogenizer for 10 min at 80 % amplitude (SONOPULS HD 4000; BANDELIN electronic

GmbH & Co. KG, Berlin, Germany). After centrifugation at 20 000 x *g* for 30 min, the

supernatant was loaded into His GraviTrap™ column pre-equilibrated with binding buffer, and

target proteins were eluted by elution buffer (20 mM sodium phosphate, 500 mM NaCl, and 500

mM imidazole, pH 7.4). The protein fractions were dialyzed with the dialysis buffer (10 mM

sodium phosphate, pH 5.5) to remove imidazole and NaCl, and concentrated using Amicon Ultra-

15 centrifugal filters (Merck Millipore Ltd, Burlington, Massachusetts, USA).

Soft agar plate gradient assay for E. coli strains: To establish gradients, 200 μl aliquots of 100

mM chemical solutions were applied to the center line of minimal A agar plates (0.25% (w/v)

agar, 10 mM KH_2PO_4/K_2HPO_4, 8 mM $(NH4)_2SO_4$, 2 mM citrate, 1 mM $MgSO_4$, 0.1 mg/ml of

thiamine-HCl, 1 mM glycerol, and 40 μg/ml of a mixture of threonine, methionine, leucine, and

histidine) supplemented with antibiotics and inducers and incubated overnight at 4 °C for

gradient formation. The receptorless *E. coli* cells expressing the chimera of interest as a sole

receptor were grown overnight in 5 ml TB medium, harvested by centrifugation, washed by

tethering buffer, resuspended in 200 µl tethering buffer, and applied to the plate at a 2.5 cm

distance from the line where the chemical was inoculated. Plates were incubated at 30 °C for

24−48 hours.

The screening of active or functional hybrid type 3 containing a random linker was performed as

described previously (35). The library of hybrids mixture was applied to an agar plate with D-

glucose gradients for the three rounds of selection. Cells that accumulated at the edge of the

colony ring were selected and re-inoculated for the second round of selection. After three rounds

of selection, the best chemotactic cells were streaked out on LB plates to obtain single colonies.

The chemotaxis behavior of the selected colonies was further confirmed on soft agar plates. The

sequence of random linker for the functional hybrid was identified by DNA sequencing.

Microfluidic assays: The microfluidic assay was performed as previously described, using a chip

with 24 parallel microchannels (68). The receptorless *E. coli* strain UU1250 expressing GFP and

chimera of interest were grown at 34 °C in TB supplemented with antibiotics and inducers until

OD_{600} of 0.5. Cells were harvested by centrifugation and washed twice with tethering buffer. The

compounds of interest were dissolved in tethering buffer at a concentration of 50 mM and the pH

was adjusted to 7.0. The chemical source microchannels were filled with 4 % (w/v) low-gelling

temperature agarose to create a semi-permeable barrier. *E. coli* cells were added in the reservoir

well and allowed to spread for 30 min into the channels. Compounds were added to the source

well and allowed to form a concentration gradient. Cell fluorescence was recorded with a Nikon

Ti-E inverted microscope system (Nikon Instruments Europe BV, Amsterdam, Netherlands)

using a 20x objective. Data were analyzed using ImageJ (Wayne Rasband, National Institutes of

Health, USA).

Thermal shift assays: Thermal shift assays were performed in 384 microtiter plates using a Bio-

Rad CFX384 Touch^{TM} Real-Time PCR instrument with the presence or absence of potential

chemoattractants. Each 25 μl assay mixture contained 20.5 μl purified protein (30-100 μM) in

phosphate buffer (10 mM sodium phosphate, pH 5.5), 2 μl SYPRO^{TM} orange (Invitrogen by

Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA) at 5 × concentration, and 2.5 μl 20 mM

potential chemoattractant. Samples were heated from 23 °C to 95 °C at a scan rate of 1 °C/min.

The protein unfolding curves were monitored by detecting changes in SYPRO^{TM} Orange

fluorescence. The resulting data permitted the calculation of the mid-point of the protein

unfolding transition, or melting temperatures (Tm) using the first derivative values from the raw

fluorescence data, which was analyzed by the Bio-Rad CFX manager 3.1 software.

Isothermal titration calorimetry: Experiments were conducted on a VP-microcalorimeter

(Microcal, Amherst, MA, USA) at the temperatures indicated in Table S4. Proteins were dialyzed

into the buffer specified in Table S4 and placed into the sample cell. Ligand solutions were made

up in dialysis buffer at the concentrations indicated in Table S4 and titrated into the protein. The

mean enthalpies measured from the injection of ligands into buffer were subtracted from raw

titration data prior to data analysis with the MicroCal version of ORIGIN. Data were fitted with

the single-site binding model. In cases were data analysis with this model did not result in a

satisfactory fit, data were analyzed in SEDPHAT (69) using a model for the binding with

negative cooperativity to a macromolecule containing two symmetric sites.

Data availability:

All of the data are included in this article.

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Abbreviations: FRET, Förster resonance energy transfer; ITC, isothermal titration calorimetry; LBD, ligand binding domain; TSA, thermal shift assays; PEA, 2-phenylethylamine; EA, ethanolamine; BAs, biogenic amines.

Conflict of interest: The authors do not declare any conflict of interest.

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Fig. 1 Chemotaxis of *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 toward potential chemoeffectors. Accumulation of bacteria (WT-Washington) in capillaries containing 1 mM of indicated chemical compound in the chemotaxis buffer, except guanine that was used at 10 µM due to poor solubility. Strong chemoattractants with >30,000 cells per capillary are shown in orange; medium chemoattractants with 10,000 - 30,000 cells per capillary are shown in dark grey and the remaining chemical compounds are shown in light grey. All data have been corrected by the number (7,825 ± 623) of bacteria in buffer-containing capillaries. The means and standard deviations of four biological replicates each conducted in triplicate are shown. Error bars indicate the mean ± standard deviations. Significance of difference was statistically significant differences from buffer-containing capillaries, assessed using an unpaired Student's t-test, are indicated by asterisks (ns: non-significant, $*p \leq 0.05$, $**p \leq 0.01$, $***p \leq 0.001$, and $****p \leq 0.0001$).

Fig. 2 Construction and evaluation of receptor hybrids for transmembrane chemoreceptors of *P. aeruginosa*

PAO1. (A) Schematic drawing of three types of hybrid chemoreceptors constructed in this work. Tar chemoreceptor

from *E. coli* and target chemoreceptor (X) from *P. aeruginosa* each consist of three parts, periplasmic ligand binding

domain, HAMP domain and cytoplasmic domain, shown in different colors. The two TM helices are shown by black

and white rectangles in the Tar receptor and the target chemoreceptor (X), respectively. (B) D-glucose gradient plate

assay used for the assessment of receptor functionality. The control was the receptorless *E. coli* cells expressing

wildtype Tar as the sole receptor. Positions of the ligand source and inoculated cells are shown by a red dotted line

and by a yellow dot, respectively. Spreading of cells toward or away from the ligand source is indicated by the white

line (scale bar, 1 cm). (C) FRET measurement of the hybrid chemoreceptor response to D-glucose. Receptorless *E.*

coli cells expressing the CheZ-CFP/CheY-YFP FRET pair and PA1608-Tar as the sole receptor responded to

stepwise addition (down arrow) and subsequent removal (up arrow) of the 100 μM D-glucose. Similar to canonical

chemoattractants, addition of D-glucose inhibits pathway activity and thus lowers the YFP/CFP fluorescence ratio.

Fig. 3 High-throughput screening of unassigned potential ligands for chemoreceptor chimeras with FRET. Examples of FRET measurements of receptorless *E. coli* FRET strain expressing PA1608-Tar (A) or PctB-Tar (B) as the sole receptor, responding to the stepwise addition (down arrow) and subsequent removal (up arrow) of indicated chemical compounds at concentration of 100 µM. Because of lack of previously characterized ligand for PA1608, D-glucose was used as a positive control for PA1608-Tar hybrid during FRET measurements to confirm receptor functionality. L-glutamine was used as a positive ligand for PctB-Tar hybrid. The chemoattractants are indicated in red and the chemorepellents were shown in green; newly identified chemoeffectors are shaded.

Fig. 4 Characterization of L-ornithine sensing by PctA and PctB *in vivo* and *in vitro*. (A-C) FRET measurements of response to the indicated concentrations of L-ornithine (L-Orn) in *E. coli* expressing PctA-Tar (A) or PctB-Tar (B) as a sole receptor. The known ligands L-Ala (L-alanine) and L-Gln (L-glutamine) were used as positive controls for PctA-Tar and PctB-Tar, respectively. For corresponding dose-response curves (C), the amplitudes of the initial FRET response were calculated from changes in the ratio of YFP/CFP fluorescence after stimulation with indicated ligand concentrations and normalized to the saturated response. Error bars indicate the standard errors of three independent experiments; wherever invisible, error bars are smaller than the symbol size. Data were fitted using Hill equation, with the EC50 fit values being 1.8 ± 0.2 μM for PctA-Tar and 10.2 ± 0.8 μM for PctB-Tar. (D, E) Microcalorimetric titrations of PctA-LBD (D) and PctB-LBD (E) with L-Orn. The upper panels show raw titration data, and lower panels show integrated corrected peak areas of the titration data fit using the single-site binding model. Further experimental detail is provided in Table S4.

Fig. 5 Characterization of PctC as a specific chemoreceptor for methyl 4-aminobutyrate and 5-aminovalerate.
FRET measurements for *E. coli* cells expressing PctC-Tar hybrid as a sole receptor to the indicated concentrations of methyl 4-aminobutyrate (A) and 5-aminovalerate (B). The known ligand GABA (γ-Aminobutyric acid) was used as a positive ligand. (C) Corresponding FRET dose-response curves of PctC-Tar hybrid to methyl 4-aminobutyrate and 5-aminovalerate. Data were fitted using Hill equation, with the EC50 fit values being 2.9 ± 0.4 μM for methyl 4-aminobutyrate, and 1.5 ± 0.2 μM for 5-aminovalerate. The measurement and data analysis were conducted as described in the Fig. 4C. Microcalorimetric titrations of PctC-LBD with methyl 4-aminobutyrate (D) and 5-aminovalerate (E). The upper panel upper shows raw titration data, and lower shows integrated corrected peak areas of the titration data fit using the single-site binding model. (F) Capillary chemotaxis assays of the wildtype *P. aeruginosa* (WT-Hiroshima) and a *pctC* mutant strain (WT-Hiroshima was used as the parental strain) response to methyl 4-aminobutyrate and 5-aminovalerate. Data are shown as the means and standard deviations of results from three biological replicates each conducted in triplicate. Asterisks denote statistically significant differences; ns: non-significant, * $p \le 0.05$, ** $p \le 0.01$, *** $p \le 0.001$, **** $p \le 0.0001$.

Fig. 6 Characterization of PA1608 (PctP) as a purine-specific chemoreceptor. (A) FRET measurements for *E.*
coli cells expressing PctP-Tar hybrid as a sole receptor to the indicated concentrations of guanine, hypoxanthine, and
adenine. Since there is no previously characterized ligand for PctP, D-glucose was used as a positive control. The

stock solutions of guanine and hypoxanthine were prepared with NaOH due to their poor solubility in neutral pH,

and consequently 1 mM NaOH was used as control to exclude the influence of pH on the response of PctP-Tar

hybrid. (B) Microfluidic assay of the chemotactic response of *E. coli* expressing PctP-Tar as the sole receptor and

GFP as a label. Relative cell density (fluorescence intensity of GFP) in the observation channel over time in

gradients of guanine, hypoxanthine, or adenine in the same order as in (A), with 50 mM in the source channel as

indicated. Cell density in the observation channel before ligands stimulation (t=0) was used to normalize all data.

Error bars indicate standard deviation from three independent biological replicates. Inserts show representative

images of the observation channel at the beginning and the end of an experiment. The x-components (black arrow)

indicate the direction up the concentration gradient. (C) FRET measurements as in (A) but for guanosine, inosine,

and adenosine. (D) Dose-response curves for FRET measurements of responses mediated by PctP-Tar. Data were

fitted using Hill equation, with the EC50 fit values being 0.6 ± 0.1 μM for guanine, 1.6 ± 0.2 μM for hypoxanthine,

47.6 ± 4.1 μM for adenine, 2.3 ± 0.3 μM for guanosine, 8.2 ± 1.9 μM for inosine, and 7.0 ± 1.3 μM for adenosine.

The measurement and data analysis were conducted as described in Fig. 4C. (E) Microcalorimetric titrations of PctP-

LBD with hypoxanthine. The upper panel shows the titration raw data, and the lower panel is the integrated dilution

heat corrected and concentration normalized peak areas fitted with model for the binding with negative cooperativity

to two symmetric sites. (F) Capillary chemotaxis assays of WT-PAO1 and a *pctP* mutant to 0.1 mM and 1 mM

hypoxanthine. The *pctP* mutant was derived from the Washington parental strain that was used as a WT-PAO1 in

this measurement. Data are shown as the means and standard deviations from three biological replicates each

conducted in triplicate. Asterisks denote statistically significant differences; ns: non-significant, * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq$

0.01, *** $p \leq 0.001$, **** $p \leq 0.0001$.

Fig. 7 Identification of specific chemoreceptors for ethanolamine and 2-phenylethylamine. (A) Capillary assay for chemotaxis toward 20 mM 2-phenylethylamine (PEA) in different chemoreceptor mutants of PAO1. Mutant strains deficient in PctA, PctB, PctC and TlpQ were derived from WT-Hiroshima parental strain (shown in light blue) which was used as a reference. The remaining mutant strains were derived from WT-Washington parental strain (shown in blue) which was used as a reference for these mutants. Data are shown as the means and standard deviations of results from three biological replicates each conducted in triplicate. Asterisks denote statistically significant differences; ns: non-significant, * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$, **** $p \leq 0.0001$. (B) Thermal

shift assay for TlpQ-LBD and PA4915-LBD in presence of 2 mM PEA or ethanolamine (EA). Data are shown as the

means and standard deviations of results from three biological replicates each conducted in triplicate. (C, D)

Microcalorimetric titrations of TlpQ-LBD (C) and PA4915-LBD (D) with PEA. Upper panels show raw titration

data, whereas lower panels show the best fit of the integrated, concentration-normalized and dilution heat corrected

raw data using the single-site binding model.

Table 1. Summary of all the chimeras constructed and new chemoeffectors identified in this work

Locus tag	Name[a]	LBD type	Hybrid type[b]	Known chemoeffectors[c]	New chemoeffectors
PA2654	TlpQ[9]	dCache	T1	Histamine, +	2-Phenylethylamine, tyramine
PA4915		4HB	T1		2-Phenylethylamine
PA4844	CtpL[70, 71]	HBM	T1	Inorganic phosphate	
PA2573		4HB	T1		
PA2788	McpN[72]	PilJ	T1	Nitrate	
PA1608		4HB	T1, T2		Guanine, inosine, adenosine, hypoxanthine, adenine, guanosine
PA4310	PctB[53, 67]	dCache	T1, T2[53]	L-glutamine (L-Gln), +	L-ornithine (L-Orn)
PA4309	PctA[53, 67]	dCache	T1, T2[53]	L-alanine (L-Ala), +	L-ornithine (L-Orn)
PA4307	PctC[54, 67]	dCache	T1, T2[54]	γ-Aminobutyric acid (GABA), +	5-Aminovalerate, methyl 4-aminobutyrate
PA4633	PctD[10]	dCache	T1, T2[10]	Acetylcholine, +	
PA2652	CtpM[14]	sCache	T1, T2	Malate, +	
PA5072	McpK[13]	HBM	T1, T3	α-Ketoglutarate, +	
PA2867		Unknown	T1, T3		Salicylate
PA2920		4HB	T1, T3		
PA1251		4HB	T1, T3		
PA1646		HBM	T1, T3		
PA2561	CtpH[70, 71]	4HB	T1, T3	Inorganic phosphate	
PA4520		NIT	T1, T3		

[a]Specificities of several chemoreceptors have been identified in the indicated references.

[b]T1: Type 1 is a hybrid chemoreceptor with fusion site within TM2; T2: Type 2 has fusion site at the end of HAMP domain; T3:

Type 3 has the same fusion site as type 1, but contains in addition a random linker of 5 amino acids. The hybrid type of chimera

that respond to D-glucose is highlighted in black, with grey marking hybrids that did not show a response. Functional hybrid

chemoreceptors that have been described previously, with the references provided in brackets.

[c]Previously identified specific ligands, with "+" indicating that the hybrid chemoreceptor was able to mediate FRET response to

this ligand.

Supplementary Data

Fig. S1 Responses of Tar control to unassigned potential ligands. FRET measurements of responses in

receptorless *E. coli* cells expressing wildtype Tar as the sole receptor, stimulated by the stepwise addition (down

arrow) and subsequent removal (up arrow) of 100 μM L-aspartate (L-Asp, positive ligand for Tar) or other tested

compounds, as indicated. The chemoattractants are shown in red and the chemorepellents are shown in green.

993

994   **Fig. S2 Responses of Tar control to different doses of characterized ligands.** FRET measurements of responses

995   in receptorless *E. coli* expressing Tar as a sole receptor to indicated concentrations of different compounds. 100 μM

996   L-aspartate (L-Asp) were used as positive ligand for Tar. Since guanine and hypoxanthine are only soluble at high

997   concentrations in alkalic solutions, an equivalent concentration of NaOH was used as negative control.

998

1000 **Fig. S3 Thermal stability of PctP-LBD is enhanced by purine derivatives**. Thermal shift assay for purified PctP-

1001 LBD in presence of 2 mM guanine, hypoxanthine, adenine, guanosine, inosine or adenosine. (A) The thermal

1002 unfolding curves of PctP-LBD in the absence and presence of guanine; upper panel: raw data, lower panel: first

1003 derivative of raw data. (B) Increases in the midpoint of protein unfolding transition (Tm) induced by different

1004 ligands. Data shown are the means and standard deviations from three biological replicates conducted in triplicate.

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1007

1008 **Fig. S4 Microfluidic assays of the chemotactic responses of *E. coli* expressing Tar as the sole receptor.** Relative

1009 cell density (fluorescence intensity) in the observation channel over time in gradients of L-aspartate, guanine,

1010 hypoxanthine, and adenine with 50 mM in the source channel.

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Fig. S5 Characterization of TlpQ as a specific chemoreceptor for tyramine. (A) Screening of unassigned

potential ligands for TlpQ-Tar using FRET. FRET measurement was performed with receptorless *E. coli* cells

expressing TlpQ-Tar as the sole receptor exposed to a stepwise addition (down arrow) and subsequent removal (up

arrow) of 100 µM D-glucose (positive ligand for chimeras), three known ligands (histamine, spermine and

spermidine) and other chemical compounds. The chemoattractants were shown in red. (B) Capillary chemotaxis

assays of *tlpQ* deficient strain and WT-PAO1 (WT-Hiroshima) to 5 mM tyramine. Data are shown as the means and

standard deviations from three biological replicates conducted in triplicate. (C) Microcalorimetric studies showing

the binding of tyramine to TlpQ-LBD. The lower panels are the integrated, dilution heat corrected and concentration

normalized peak areas fitted with the single-site binding model.

1023

Fig. S6 PctB and PctC mediate responses to histamine. FRET measurements of responses mediated by PctA-Tar

(A), PctB-Tar (B), PctC-Tar (C) or Tar (D) as a sole receptor to indicated concentrations of histamine. 100 µM L-

aspartate (L-Asp) were used as positive control for Tar.

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1029 **Table S1 Growth of *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 in M9 minimal medium supplemented with each of the compounds**

1030 **present in the Biolog plates PM1, PM2A and PM3B as nitrogen source (in nitrogen-free medium) or carbon**

1031 **source (in carbon-free medium).** There are 202 that supported bacterial growth at different levels. Compounds

1032 were divided into different groups according to the magnitude of growth. The 39 highlighted compounds were

1033 further studied using quantitative capillary chemotaxis assays (Fig. 1).

1034

1035 **Table S2 Summary of FRET responses of 16 hybrid chemoreceptors in the presence of 100 μM ligands.** "A":

1036 attractant response; "R": repellent response; "*": strong response; "*R or A*": weak response (or unspecific response);

1037 "--": no response; "blank": no analysis. The yellow highlights were considered as positive ligands.

1038

1039 **Table S3 Strains, plasmids and oligonucleotides used in this study.**

1040

1041 **Table S4. Experimental conditions used for microcalorimetric titrations.**