Chemotactic motility and biofilm formation in *Campylobacter jejuni* are coordinated by the CheAYWVX system

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ABSTRACT

Chemotaxis is the ability of motile bacteria to coordinate swimming behaviour to navigate a

changeable environment, an important and rapid adaptative response directing cells to either move

away from repellent stimuli or to move towards more favourable conditions using chemical

gradients sensed by receptors in the bacterial membrane. In the foodborne bacterial pathogen

Campylobacter jejuni, flagellar motility and chemotaxis are required for intestinal colonisation and

virulence, and may also play a role in environmental survival via biofilm formation. Here we

present a systematic characterisation of the CheAYVW chemotaxis system of *C. jejuni*, and its role

in directed motility and biofilm formation. Inactivation of any of the core chemotaxis genes (*cheA*,

cheY, *cheV* or *cheW*) impaired chemotactic motility but not flagellar assembly. Inactivation of *cheV*

or presence of two copies of *cheV* impaired chemotaxis to a greater extent than inactivation of *cheW*

or presence of two copies of *cheW*. A *cheY* mutant swam in clockwise loops and this behaviour was

ameliorated by complementation with wildtype *cheY* or a *cheY* gene lacking the conserved

phosphorylation site, but not by complementation with *cheY* lacking the metal-binding site.

Although the *C. jejuni* CheA protein contains a CheY-like domain, deletion of this CheY-like

domain from CheA did not impair chemotactic motility, nor could it complement a *cheY* mutant.

Next to the core *cheAYVW* chemotaxis genes, we also investigated the role of the putative *cheX*

gene *cj0350*. The presence of two copies of *cheX* resulted in reduced chemotactic motility. Finally,

inactivation of any of the core chemotaxis genes interfered with the ability to form a distinct biofilm

at an air-media interface. In conclusion, the *Campylobacter* chemotaxis system has specific

components making it distinct from the *E. coli* and *B. subtilis* model organisms, requiring specific

assessment of their roles in the biology of *Campylobacter*.

INTRODUCTION

Campylobacter jejuni is an important causative agent of bacterial gastroenteritis in humans [1], and is commonly transmitted via contaminated food, especially poultry meat [2]. Infection with *C. jejuni* is also associated with neurodegenerative diseases like Miller-Fisher and Guillain-Barre syndrome [3]. One of the key factors for infection by *C. jejuni* is its flagella-based motility, as aflagellated *C. jejuni* are unable to cause disease in animal models and show strongly reduced host cell invasion in cell culture-based assays [4-6]. The flagella are also involved in biofilm formation [7-9], and are targeted by bacteriophages [10].

Bacteria are able to adapt to changeable environments using a number of different strategies. Over time, genome plasticity and evolution allows for long-term adaptation to a particular niche. More immediate stresses are directly/indirectly sensed by transcriptional regulators, resulting in changes in gene expression. By far the most rapid means of evading stress by motile bacteria, is by changing swimming behaviour to escape unfavourable conditions or seek more favourable conditions, using chemotaxis [11, 12]. The core chemotaxis pathway has been extensively characterised in model organisms such as *E. coli* and *B. subtilis*, and consists of the CheYA two-component signal transduction system [13, 14]. Stimulation of signal sensing methyl-accepting chemotaxis proteins (MCPs) results in autophosphorylation of the histidine kinase CheA, which transfers the phosphate group to the response regulator CheY. Phospho-CheY interacts with the flagellar switch to alter rotation. Counter-clockwise rotation commonly results in straight darting motility while clockwise rotation results in a tumbling behaviour and directional change [15].

While the core CheA-CheY pathway is conserved in motile bacteria, the bacterial kingdom contains several variations on this theme [16]. For instance, phosphorylation of CheY results in clockwise flagella rotation in *E. coli* [17, 18], while in *B. subtilis*, the inability to phosphorylate CheY results in clockwise rotation and tumbling motility [19, 20]. Furthermore, a number of accessory proteins are involved, such as the CheW protein which is required for CheA-MCP

interaction [21, 22], while a methyltransferase (CheR) and a methylesterase (CheB) modify the

MCP proteins to accommodate adaptation [23]. Some organisms contain the CheW-like protein

CheV, which may help integrate signals from a specific class of sensors and may also act as a

phosphate sink [24]. There are also bacteria which have multiple non-redundant homologs of the

chemotaxis proteins or contain specific adaptations, adjuncts, and domain-fusions that add new

functions to the core chemotaxis system [25, 26].

Compared to other foodborne pathogens such as *E. coli*, *Salmonella*, and *Listeria*, *C. jejuni* has

a greater number of MCPs involved in sensing amino acids, deoxycholate, dicarboxylic acid TCA

intermediates, formic acid, fucose, redox and energy status [27-35], plus a core chemotaxis system

consisting of CheA-Y-W-V proteins plus a CheR and a truncated CheB protein [36]. Chemotaxis-

defective mutants have been shown to be attenuated in disease models [28, 37-39], show reduced

immunopathology [40] and chick colonization [39, 41], and were reported to be crucial for infection

in genome-wide transposon mutant screenings for virulence factors [42, 43].

In this manuscript we have systematically examined the core chemotaxis pathway in *C. jejuni*

(Fig 1). We show that each signalling protein is necessary for robust chemotaxis in complex media,

but not for motility. Both CheW and CheV adaptor proteins are required for chemotaxis, but they

have distinct functions. Furthermore, we show that the CheY protein requires a metal-binding site

but not necessarily the predicted site of phosphorylation, suggesting a possible phosphorylation-

independent interaction with the flagella switch. We show that the receiver domain of CheA (CheA-

Y) is dispensable for CheA function, but cannot complement a *cheY* mutant. We further identify a

putative ortholog of the CheX phosphatase, which attenuates chemotaxis when present in multiple

copies, and that chemotaxis is required for organized biofilm formation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

***C. jejuni* strains and growth conditions.**

Campylobacter jejuni strain NCTC 11168 and its isogenic mutants (Table 1) were routinely

cultured in a MACS-MG-1000 controlled atmosphere cabinet (Don Whitley Scientific) under

microaerobic conditions (85% N_2, 5% O_2, 10% CO_2) at 37°C. For growth on plates, strains were

either grown on Brucella agar or Blood Agar Base (BAB) with Skirrow supplement (10 µg ml^{-1}

vancomycin, 5 µg ml^{-1} trimethoprim, 2.5 IU polymyxin-B). Broth culture was carried out in

Brucella broth (Becton Dickinson).

Construction of insertional inactivation strains

Plasmids used in this study are listed in Table 2. Insertional inactivation mutants were made as

described previously [33] using primers listed in Table S1. To insert antibiotic resistance cassettes,

*Bam*HI sites were introduced in the target genes by inverse PCR (Table S1) and ligated to either the

kanamycin cassette from pMARKan9 (*ΔcheY*, Δ*cheW*, Δ*cheV*) or chloramphenicol cassette from

pTopCat. All constructs were sequenced prior to transformation (Eurofins Genomics, Ebersberg,

Germany). Single *C. jejuni* mutant strains were isolated after transformation of the *C. jejuni* NCTC

11168 wild-type strain with plasmids by electroporation [33], followed by selection on plates

supplemented with either 50 µg ml^{-1} kanamycin or 10 µg ml^{-1} chloramphenicol. To confirm the

position of the antibiotic cassette in antibiotic resistant clones, genomic DNA was isolated from

four ml of overnight culture (DNeasy kit, QIAGEN). Diluted genomic DNA (50 ng) was used as

template for PCR using primers that anneal outside of the cloned flanking regions in combination

with antibiotic cassette-specific primers (Table S1).

Construction of complementation constructs and site directed mutagenesis

C. jejuni mutants were complemented by inserting the individual chemotaxis genes (*cheA*,

cheY, *cheW*, *cheV*, *cheAY*, *cj0350, fliN*) *in trans* using the *cj0046* pseudogene, as described

previously [33]. To make the CheY^{D53A} substitution, pCASO59 was used as template for inverse

PCR using primers CheYDA01/02 (Table S1). To make the CheY^{D7A} substitution, pCASO59 was

used as template for inverse PCR using primers cheYD7AFwd/Rev (Table S1). To make the

CheAΔReceiver domain construct (CheA^{ΔRec}), pCASO58 was used as template for inverse PCR

using primers cheARec01/02, which changes the codon encoding lysine 648 to a stop codon (see

Table S1). The inverse PCR products were digested with *Dpn*I for 60 minutes at 37°C and then

purified (PCR purification kit, QIAGEN) and transformed into *E. coli*. To identify clones

containing altered sequences, plasmid DNA was purified and sequenced using appropriate primers

(Eurofins Genomics, Ebersberg, Germany).

RNA Extraction and RT-PCR

RNA was extracted using the hot phenol method [44]. RNA concentration was determined

using a Nanodrop 2000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific). A mix of Moloney Murine Leukemia Virus (M-

MuLV) Reverse Transcriptase and murine RNase Inhibitor with an optimized random primer mix

was used to make cDNA (NEB). Two μg of RNA was mixed with random primers (6 μM final

concentration) and water and incubated at 70°C for 5 minutes then on ice for 5 minutes. This mix

was added to 10 μl of M-MuLV reaction mix and 2 μl M-MuLV enzyme mix in a total volume of

20 μl. Control reactions were also prepared containing 2 μl water in place of enzyme to show any

amplification from contaminating DNA. Reactions were incubated at 25°C for 5 minutes, 42°C for

60 minutes, then 80°C for 4 minutes. Reactions were made to total volume of 50 μl by adding 30 μl

water. For PCR, 2 μl of cDNA was mixed with OneTaq HotStart master mix (1× final

concentration, NEB), and gene-specific primers (0.2 μM final concentration) in a total volume of 25

μl. Extension reactions were carried out at 68°C.

Assessment of growth

A 50 µl single-use glycerol stock, routinely stored at -80°C, was used to inoculate a BAB plate

with Skirrow supplements and these cells were used to inoculate fresh Brucella broth. Cultures were

grown in microaerobic conditions with shaking overnight at 37°C. The overnight culture was

diluted to $A_{600} \approx 0.05$ (~ 1×10^7 CFU ml^{-1}) in 200 µl in a 96-well plate (flat bottom, non-treated,

sterile, polystyrene, (Corning, NY, USA)). Growth in 96-well plates was assessed using an Omega

plate reader (FLUOstar Omega (BMG Labtech, Germany)) linked to an atmospheric control unit in

microaerobic conditions at 37°C. Omega assays were run for 24 hours (double orbital shaking at

400 rpm) and A_{600} data was recorded every 60 minutes.

Light microscopy and flagella staining using the Ryu stain

Typically, 10 µl of an overnight culture was examined using an Eclipse 50i microscope (×100

lens) to monitor swimming phenotypes. When necessary, a Coolpix 4500 digital camera (Nikon)

was used to capture video (15 frames second^{-1}, 320×240 pixels). Video compilations were made by

extracting appropriate frames using ImageJ (Rasband, W.S., ImageJ, U. S. National Institutes of

Health, Bethesda, Maryland, USA, http://imagej.nih.gov/ij/, 1997-2014). To plot swimming

behaviour, individual cells were tracked using the Manual tracking plug-in for ImageJ (Fabrice

Cordeli, http://rsb.info.nih.gov/ij/plugins/track/track.html) then visualized using the Chemotaxis and

Migration Tool (Ibidi, http://ibidi.com/software/chemotaxis_and_migration_tool/). To visualise

flagella, cells were stained using the Ryu stain [45] as described previously [46]. ImageJ was used

to add a scale bar and prepare montage images.

Chemotaxis assays

Chemotactic motility was measured using soft agar motility assays and tube taxis assays [33].

All soft agar motility assays were carried out using square 10 mm^2 petri plates (Sterilin) inoculated

with wild-type and three test strains, as described previously [33]. For each plate, halo size was

expressed as a percentage of the corresponding wild-type and each strain was tested for significance

using a one-sample t-test (alpha = 0.05), compared to a hypothetical value of 100 (GraphPad Prism

6.01). Strain-to-strain comparisons were made using a two-tailed Mann-Whitney test.

Tube taxis assays were prepared as described previously [33]. The tubes were incubated at

37°C in air in a waterbath (Grant). Tubes were photographed after 24, 40, 48, 64, and 72 hours and

the dye front was measured from the top of the agar using the ImageJ software and expressed as a

percentage of the wild-type strain. Each strain was tested for significance using a one-sample t-test

(alpha = 0.05) compared to a hypothetical value of 100 (GraphPad Prism 6.01) and strain-to-strain

comparisons were made using a two-tailed Mann-Whitney test.

Biofilm assays

A 50 µl single-use glycerol stock, routinely stored at -80°C, was used to inoculate a BAB plate

with Skirrow supplements and these cells were used to inoculate fresh Brucella broth. Cultures were

grown in microaerobic conditions with shaking overnight at 37°C. The overnight culture was

diluted to $A_{600} \approx 0.05$ (~ 1 x 10^7 CFU ml^{-1}) in 22 ml sterile Brucella in a 50 ml flacon tube. A twin-

frost microscope slide (sterilized in 70% ethanol) was inserted into each falcon tube. Tubes were

incubated at 37°C in microaerobic conditions without shaking. After 48 hours, slides were removed

from the tubes using flamed-sterilized tweezers and briefly washed in water. Slides were dried in air

before staining with 1% crystal violet. Unbound crystal violet was washed off with water and slides

were dried in air. Biofilms were imaged using a GenePixPro microarray scanner (Axon). The

photomultiplier tube (PMT) gain of either the 635 nm or 532 nm laser was adjusted to achieve a

balanced image. To assess biofilm shedding, the A_{600} of the planktonic cultures were measured;

statistically different results were determined using a two-tailed Mann-Whitney test (GraphPad

Prism 6.01).

Bioinformatic analysis.

Pfam (http://pfam.sanger.ac.uk/ and InterProScan (http://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/pfa/iprscan/)

were used to search for protein domains and architectures. All BLAST searches were conducted

within BioEdit. EMBOSS Water was used for pairwise protein alignments

(http://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/psa/emboss_water/). ClustalX was used for multiple sequence

alignment (http://www.clustal.org/clustal2/). DeepView version 4.1 was used to make the CheY

model (http://spdbv.vital-it.ch/).

RESULTS

CheV is the dominant adaptor protein in the chemotaxis signalling pathway

In paradigm chemotaxis models, CheW has a role in stabilizing the CheA-MCP interaction [24,

47]. All *Campylobacter* genomes on the PATRIC database that contain a predicted *cheW* gene also

contain a predicted *cheV* gene. To assess the roles of CheW and CheV (which comprises a CheW

domain and C-terminal Receiver domain (Fig. 1)) in *C. jejuni*, each gene was inactivated by a

kanamycin cassette in the same orientation as the original gene. The *cheW* and *cheV* mutants grew

at the same rate as the wild-type strain (Fig. S1) and flagella were present at each pole of the cell

(Fig. 2). In liquid media, the swimming phenotype of the *cheW* and *cheV* mutants was comparable

to the wild-type. Chemotactic motility was assessed using soft agar motility plates and tube taxis,

which measures motility in both an energy and redox gradient [33]. Both halo formation and

migration were reduced compared to the wild-type. Chemotactic motility of the *cheW* mutant was

reduced to less than 50% compared to the wild-type strain at both 24 and 48 hours, respectively

(Fig. 3, 4). The reduction in halo formation and migration was more severe in the *cheV* mutant, as it

was reduced to less than one-third compared to the wild-type strain at both 24 and 48 hours (Fig. 3,

4). Thus, absence of CheV has a more dramatic effect on chemotaxis than absence of CheW in *C.*

jejuni. Introduction of the *cheW* mutant *in trans* in the *cj0046* pseudogene [33] resulted in the

complementation of the chemotaxis phenotypes of the *cheW* mutant (Fig. 3, 4). However,

complementation of the *cheV* mutant with *cheV* in the *cj0046* pseudogene did not restore

chemotactic motility. The *cheV* mutant still expressed the downstream *cheA* and *cheW* genes as

shown by reverse transcriptase PCR (Fig. S2A), suggesting the phenotype of the *cheV* mutant are

not due to polar effects on the transcription of the downstream *cheA* and *cheW* genes.

Supplementation of the wild-type strain with a second copy of *cheV* (WT +*cheV*) did not alter

swimming in liquid media, but led to a significant reduction in chemotactic motility (Fig. S3),

suggesting that the stoichiometry of CheV and other chemotaxis proteins is of importance for its

function. Finally, given that *C. jejuni* CheV contains an N-terminal CheW domain, the ability of

CheV to substitute for CheW was assessed by introducing the *cheV* gene into the *cheW* mutant. The

resulting *cheW* +*cheV* strain did not complement the *cheW* mutant (Fig. 3, 4).

Increased levels of CheY augment chemotaxis

The growth phenotype of a *cheY* mutant was not significantly different to the wild-type (Fig.

S1) and light microscopy revealed bi-polar flagella (Fig. 2). In liquid media, cells showed a

'Catherine Wheel' swimming behaviour [48], where a cell would appear to get trapped in a

clockwise swimming loop (see Movie 1 and Fig. 5B) before resuming a darting motility as observed

in the wild-type (Fig. 5A). The *cheY* mutant displayed the previously described chemotaxis defect

[38], with chemotactic motility reduced to less than 20% of wild-type (Fig. 3, 4). Chemotactic

motility was restored to wild-type levels by complementation *in trans* with the *cheY* gene, and even

exceeded that observed in the wild-type strain (Fig. 3, 4), and also the wild-type swimming

behaviour was restored (Fig. 5C). A wild-type strain containing an additional copy of *cheY* (WT +

cheY) displayed increased chemotactic motility compared to the wild-type strain (Fig. S3). The

increased chemotactic motility and migration was not due to increased growth as the *cheY +cheY*

and WT +*cheY* strains grew at the same rate as wild-type (Fig. S1).

CheY requires the metal binding pocket but not the phosphorylation site for activity

An alignment of the seed sequences for a canonical Receiver Domain (Pfam, PF00072) with

the *C. jejuni* CheY sequence showed that both the active site aspartic acid residue (D53) and the N-

terminal 'acid-pocket' aspartic acid residues (D7, D8) were well conserved (Fig. S4A). A three-

dimensional model of *C. jejuni* CheY, based on the *Thermotoga maritima* CheY structure [49]

shows that the three aspartic acid residues are predicted to cluster to form the active site (Fig. S4

inset). These predictions were tested experimentally using site-directed mutagenesis of aspartate

residues 7 and 53 to alanine (D7A and D53A) of the *cheY* gene in the *cj0046* pseudogene, to

eliminate either phosphorylation or metal binding, respectively, and the mutated versions were

introduced in the *cj0046* pseudogene in the *cheY* mutant. The *cheY*^{D53A}-complemented *cheY* mutant

produced flagella (Fig. 2), and showed full complementation of the *cheY* mutant with robust

swimming with no 'Catherine Wheel' phenotype (Fig. 5D), and restoration of chemotactic motility

to wild-type levels (Fig. 3, 4). In contrast, the *cheY*^{D7A} complemented *cheY* mutant was even more

defective in chemotactic motility (Fig. 3, 4), despite possessing polar flagella (Fig. 2). The *cheY*^{D7A}

strain displayed swimming in very tight repeating spirals (Fig. 5E). RT-PCR showed that all *cheY*-

complemented strains made a *cheY* transcript that was absent in the *cheY* mutant (Fig. S2D).

CheA is required for chemotaxis but not for swimming motility

A *cheA* mutant displayed growth comparable to the wild-type (see Fig. S1), robust swimming

in liquid media and flagella were observed at each pole (Fig. 2). Inactivation of *cheA* did not disrupt

transcription of the downstream *cheW* gene, as determined with RT-PCR (Fig. S2B). However,

inactivation of the *cheA* gene strongly reduced chemotactic motility to levels similar to the *cheV*

and *cheY* mutants (Fig. 3, 4). Introduction of the *cheA* gene *in trans* did not complement the *cheA*

mutant (Fig. 3, 4), but introduction of a second *cheA* copy in the wild-type strain also resulted in

significantly reduced chemotactic motility (Fig. S3). CheA is a large complex protein, consisting of

five discrete functional domains (Fig. 1). Constitutive expression of this protein likely disrupts the

optimal stoichiometry for effective signal transduction.

The CheA receiver domain (CheA-Y) is dispensable for core functionality

The architecture of *C. jejuni* CheA differs to that seen in *E. coli* and *B. subtilis*. (Fig. 1). CheA

from several members of the genus *Campylobacter* share the same architecture; the largest level of

sequence divergence occurs between the N-terminal Hpt domain and following HATPase_c

domain. The *C. jejuni* CheA protein has a C-terminal receiver domain, CheA-Y, with 58%

similarity (33% identity) to CheY (Fig. S4B). The multiple alignment of CheY sequences including

CheA-Y shows the presence of twin aspartic acid residues at the N-terminal and the active site

aspartate, suggesting that the acid-pocket active site is conserved (Fig. S4A). The *Campylobacter*

CheA architecture is by no means unique to this genus; several other species, with examples from

phyla spanning the bacterial section of the tree of life [50] (*Cyanobacteria*, *Proteobacteria*,

Deferribacteres, *Chloroflexi*, *Actinobacteria*, and *Firmicutes*) contain a CheA protein with the same

architecture (Fig. S5). To assess the role of the CheA-Y domain in the function of CheA, the *cheA*

gene was mutated to contain a stop-codon at position 648 (*cheA*$^{\Delta Rec}$), truncating the CheA protein at

the start of the C-terminal receiver domain. Introduction of the *cheA*$^{\Delta Rec}$ gene in the wild-type and

cheA mutant strain resulted in transcription of a *cheA* transcript, which was absent in the *cheA*

mutant (Fig. S2E). The *cheA*$^{\Delta Rec}$ construct complemented the *cheA* mutant better than the full length

cheA gene, with restoration of about half of chemotactic motility by the *cheA*$^{\Delta Rec}$ version, and no

complementation by the wild-type *cheA* gene (Fig. 3, 4). When introduced into the wild-type strain,

the *cheA*$^{\Delta Rec}$ strain showed higher levels of chemotactic motility than the wild-type (Fig. S3).

Given the similarity between CheA-Y and CheY, we also investigated the ability of the CheA-

Y receiver domain to complement a *cheY* mutant, by introducing the *cheA-Y* part of the *cheA* gene

in the *cheY* mutant (*cheY +cheA-Y*). Expression of the *cheA-Y* transcript was confirmed using RT-

PCR (Fig. S2C). The chemotactic motility phenotype of this strain was similar to the *cheY* mutant

(Fig. 3, 4) and the swimming behaviour showed the characteristic catherine wheels seen in the *cheY*

mutant (Fig. 5). Accordingly, introduction of the *cheA-Y* gene in the wild-type strain did not

increase chemotactic motility (Fig. S3). Thus, the sequence of the CheA-Y domain has diverged to

the point where it is functionally distinct from CheY in *C. jejuni*.

C. jejuni encodes a putative CheX protein

The *Cj0700* gene in the *C. jejuni* genome encodes an ortholog of the *H. pylori* CheZ

phosphatase protein [51] which functions jointly with the ChePep protein in regulating chemotaxis

[26] by dephosphorylation of CheY. However, a ChePep ortholog is lacking in *C. jejuni*, and there

is no function ascribed to Cj0700 in *C. jejuni*. A domain search of the NCTC11168 genome

identified the *cj0350* gene as encoding a putative CheX domain. CheX is an ancillary chemotaxis

protein (and least common chemotaxis-associated protein [14, 52]) known to dephosphorylate

CheY in *Borrelia burgdorferi* [53] and *Thermotoga maritima* [54]. The *C. jejuni* CheX sequence is

well conserved in the *Campylobacter* genus (but absent from the *Helicobacter* genus), although

divergent from the canonical CheX sequences that comprise the Pfam seed alignment PF13690. We

constructed a *cj0350* mutant, which showed decreased chemotactic motility, although this

phenotype was not rescued by complementation with *cj0350* (Fig. 6). However, complementation

by the gene downstream of *cj0350*, *fliN*, did restore wild-type chemotactic motility (Fig. 6),

suggesting that the *cheX* phenotype is probably due to a disruption of *fliN* expression. This

conclusion was confirmed by semi-quantitative RT-PCR, which showed that *fliN* transcript was

decreased in the *cheX* mutant (data not shown). To investigate the role of Cj0350, a strain

expressing two copies of *cj0350* was made by introduction of the *cj0350* gene *in trans* in the *cj0046*

pseudogene. The WT +*cj0350* strain showed bi-polar flagella (Fig. 6D) and robust swimming in

liquid media (see Supplementary Movie 2) but reduced chemotactic motility (Fig. 6A-C). Given

that CheY phosphatase activity should result in decreased chemotactic motility due to less

stimulation of the flagella switch, we propose that Cj0350 is a divergent CheX protein.

Chemotaxis is required for organized biofilm formation at the air-media interface

Flagella are known to be important for biofilm formation in *C. jejuni* [7-9]. We therefore

investigated the role of chemotaxis in biofilm formation using a glass-slide assay combined with

crystal violet staining and detection using a microarray scanner (employing both lasers at 532 and

635 nm). The wild-type strain formed a biofilm on the glass slide at the air-media interface (Fig. 7).

Below the air-media interface, a less-intense ~2 mm band of adhered cells was observed. All of the

chemotaxis mutants used in this study were defective in formation of a biofilm at the air-media

interface (Fig. 7). In the *cheW* mutant, the air-media interface biofilm was present, but a second

more intense area of adhered cells was also visible ~5 mm below the air-media interface. Both the

cheV mutant and the complemented *cheV* mutant showed defective air-media interface biofilm. The

cheA and *cheY* mutants both showed a disorganized air-media interface biofilm with a greater

population of submerged cells. In all cases expect for the *cheV* mutant and the *cheY*[D7A]-

complemented *cheY* mutant, complementation with the respective wild-type gene restored the

organised interface biofilm phenotype (Fig. 7). To assess the level of shedding of cells from the

biofilm, the A_{600} of planktonic fraction for each assay was recorded. Inactivation of *cheY* resulted in

significantly fewer cells in the planktonic fraction compared to the wild-type, while the

complemented *cheY* mutant showed in significantly more cells in the planktonic fraction (Fig.

S6A). The *cheY* + *cheY*[D53A] complemented mutant showed a level of shedding significantly higher

than the *cheY* strain, again suggesting partial complementation, albeit less effective than wild-type

CheY. Two other *cheY* strains that showed poor chemotactic motility, the *cheY + cheY*^{D7A} and the

cheY + cheV mutants, also showed a significantly lower level of planktonic cells. Therefore, the

biofilm phenotype of at least the *cheY* mutant could in part be due to a disruption of normal cell

shedding/dispersal from the biofilm. To test the hypothesis that *C. jejuni* may require the

chemotaxis system to activity seek the optimal environment for growth as a biofilm, the slide

biofilm assay was performed using a paralysed flagella (*pflA*) mutant [46, 55]. This mutant

displayed low levels of biofilm formation at the air-media interface (Fig. S6B). Thus, while the

chemotaxis system is not required for biofilm formation *per se*, it is necessary for organized biofilm

formation at the air-media interface and may play a role in dispersal/shedding of cells from the

biofilm.

DISCUSSION

Flagellar motility plays an important role in colonisation and virulence of many bacterial

pathogens. While the ability to move to or from locations is an important contributor to the

infection process, such movement needs to be directed based on external (e.g. chemical gradient) or

internal stimuli (e.g. metabolic state). These stimuli can be positive or negative, with examples of

positive stimuli being attractants such as nutrients, while negative stimuli can be repellents such as

bile acids. The chemotaxis system integrates the signals from external and internal sensors through

a signal transduction cascade consisting of MCPs, CheW/CheV, CheA and CheY, while other

factors such as CheB, CheR, CheC, CheZ, or CheX may modulate and fine-tune the signal

transduction cascade, with diverse combinations observed throughout the bacterial kingdom [4, 56].

In this study we have dissected the core chemotaxis signalling pathway of the important

foodborne zoonotic pathogen *C. jejuni*, which is the most common bacterial cause of gastroenteritis

in the developed world. Directed motility is central to the process of intestinal colonisation by *C.*

jejuni, as mutants defective in motility or chemotaxis are either unable to colonise or show

significantly reduced efficiency of colonisation [38, 42]. Although *C. jejuni* shares many

components of the core chemotaxis pathway with model organisms such as *E. coli* and *B. subtilis*,

its chemotaxis system contains several additional components and modifications, and in this study

we have systematically characterised these core chemotaxis pathway using a combination of

phenotypic assays and gene inactivation and complementation experiments.

***C. jejuni* CheW and CheV adaptor proteins have distinct roles**

Campylobacter is not exceptional in containing both CheV and CheW proteins. Although

CheW is the most common chemotaxis 'adaptor' protein (found in nearly 100% of genomes

containing the core chemotaxis components [14], CheV was found in almost 40% of chemotaxis-

positive genomes [14] and three genomes (*B. thuringiensis*, *B. weihenstephanensis*, and *L.*

monocytogenes) were found to contain only CheV, and no CheW suggesting that CheV alone can

function in the MCP-CheA complex [14]. In this study, the chemotaxis phenotype of the *cheW*

mutant is the least severe, suggesting that CheV does function to elicit some signal transduction.

Similar results were obtained in *B. subtilis* [57] and further showed that the CheW domain of CheV

was sufficient for signal transduction. A direct protein-protein interaction between CheV and Tlp4

(deoxycholate sensor, Cj0262c), Tlp6 (TCA intermediates sensor, Cj0448c), and Tlp8 (redox sensor

CetZ) has been documented [58] and Hartley-Tassell *et al* further used Yeast Two- and Three-

Hybrid analysis and immunoprecipitation to show that Tlp1 interacts with both CheW and CheV,

although the interaction with CheV was much stronger and localised to the CheV-W domain [41].

Their work also showed that both *cheV* and *cheW* mutants had chemotactic motility defects in

Brucella media although chemotaxis towards aspartate was still competent in either mutant.

Similarly, the Cj0371 protein was shown to interact with the CheV protein, and influence ATPase

activity of CheA [59], suggesting that multiple systems engage in the chemotaxis pathway to

modulate signal transduction. An evolutionary genomics study showed that the presence of CheV

correlated with increased numbers of MCPs and proposed that CheV functions to accommodate

signal transduction from a specific group of MCPs, exemplified by the *Salmonella* McpC chemo-

receptor [24]. None of the ten *C. jejuni* MCPs share the architecture of the McpC-type sensor.

Moreover, *H. pylori* genomes encode only four chemotaxis sensors and three CheV proteins, all of

which accept phosphate from CheA [60]. The C-terminal receiver domain on CheV most likely

refines the function of this protein. It has previously been proposed that CheV acts as a phosphate

sink, normalizing over-stimulation of CheA [24, 61, 62]. The observation that expressing two

copies of CheV in *C. jejuni* reduces chemotactic motility (Fig. 3, 4) supports this theory, as

increasing the level of the CheV protein will divert phosphate flow from CheY to CheV. The fact

that the chemotaxis phenotype of the WT +*cheV* strain is more severe compared to the WT +*cheX*

strain suggests that the phosphate sink is more effective at dampening signal transduction than

CheX-mediated dephosphorylation of CheY. Organisms lacking CheY-phosphatases may also

utilize a phosphate sink mechanism to modulate chemotaxis.

Role of CheY domains

409   The CheY protein is the final effector protein in the signal transduction cascade, directly

interacting with the flagellar switch to alter rotation between clockwise and counter-clockwise

rotation. Our observation that the *cheY*[D53A] variant could restore both chemotactic motility and

darting swimming in the *cheY* mutant (Fig. 3, 4) suggests that either a) unphosphorylated CheY can

interact with the flagella switch or b) the conserved aspartate 53 residue is not the only site of

activating phosphorylation. Sequence alignment of *C. jejuni* CheY with the seed receiver domain

alignment unambiguously identifies the putative site of phosphorylation and a structural model

clearly places Aspartate 53 in the acid pocket active site. Expression of CheY[D53A] from the *fdxA*

promoter may result in expression of the protein at increased levels. Indeed, expression of wild-type

CheY from the *fdxA* promoter significantly stimulated chemotactic motility (Fig. 3, 4). Based on the

CheY[D53A] data, the chemotactic motility observed in the complemented *cheY* mutant may be a

mixture of CheY and CheY-P interaction at the flagella switch. If unphosphorylated CheY can

modify the flagella switch operation, the question of resetting the chemotaxis system in *C. jejuni*

becomes all the more intriguing. If one further considers the C-terminal receiver domain of CheA as

a further phosphate sink, the complete model of phosphate-flow in *C. jejuni* chemotaxis becomes a

complex story. The CheA-Y domain has all the hallmarks of the classical receiver domain and

appears to be dispensable for the core signal transduction function. Moreover, CheA-Y is no

substitute for CheY as the *cheA-Y* gene could not complement the inactivation of *cheY* (Fig. 3, 4).

Residues that are known to be important for binding the flagella switch (T87, Y106, and K109 (*E.*

coli numbering [63])) are conserved in CheA-Y and amino acid differences between CheY and

CheA-Y are spread across the entire sequence, and not localized to the β4-α4 region, which shows

the largest structural changes following phosphorylation [64, 65]. Sequence divergence resulting in

loss of chemotactic function is well documented: *R. sphaeroides che* genes only partially restore

taxis in *E. coli* [66]. Thus, the *C. jejuni* CheY/CheA-Y proteins provide a good model for studying

mutational drift resulting in loss or change of function. *C. jejuni* CheA lacks the P2 domain found in

E. coli and *B. subtilis* CheA (Fig. 1), which raises the question of how it interacts with CheY.

Certainly, Parrish *et al* detected interactions between CheA and CheY [58]. The C-terminal CheA-

Y domain would be a good candidate since similar folds may allow homo-dimer formation.

However, since CheA[ΔRec] restores signalling, the CheA-Y domain is not the likely interaction

partner for CheY.

Cj0350, a novel variant of CheX?

In this study we have identified a potential CheX ortholog, represented by the Cj0350 protein.

Although inactivation of the *cj0350* gene did affect chemotaxis, this was probably due to a polar

effect on the downstream *fliN* gene, and hence we cannot be certain about the role of Cj0350 in

chemotaxis yet. The Cj0350 protein may be a novel variant of CheX, representing a

Campylobacter-specific chemotaxis adaptation in the Epsilonproteobacteria, as no CheX ortholog

could be detected in any available *Helicobacter* genome. The primary sequence of the putative

CheX protein identified in this study is divergent from the canonical CheX sequence. Thus, in

organisms where no current phosphatase has been identified, cryptic phosphatase proteins may yet

be discovered. In addition to CheX and CheZ, a number of other CheY phosphatases have been

characterized. *B. subtilis* uses CheC, CheD, and a FliY/N fusion protein [52, 67, 68]. However,

chemotaxis systems lacking any clear phosphatases are also known (~20% of chemotaxis positive

genomes [14]); for instance, *Rhodobacter sphaeroides*, *Rhodospirillum centenum*, and

Sinorhizobium meliloti have complex chemotaxis systems but lack known CheY-phosphatases [25,

66]. *H. pylori* further regulates CheZ activity by complex formation with the novel chemotaxis

protein ChePep [26, 69]. *Campylobacter jejuni* contains a ChePep homolog (NCTC11168 -

Cj1178c), which can complement an *H. pylori chepep* mutant [69] although the role of this protein

in chemotaxis in *C. jejuni* is currently not known.

Chemotaxis and Biofilm formation

Previous studies have implicated chemotaxis sensors in biofilm formation. Tlp3 (Cj1564)

mutants showed increased biofilm formation [30], while CetZ (Tlp8) mutants showed decreased

biofilm formation [28]. We show that removing each component of the chemotaxis pathway results

in disorganised biofilm formation and this phenotype can be rescued by complementation. Thus, the

chemotaxis system likely has a role in coordinating biofilm formation, and this coordinating role

may extend to shedding and dispersal of cells from the biofilm. This study is therefore the first to

present a role for signal transduction in the active dispersal of cells from a *C. jejuni* biofilm. In

processing environments, biofilms present a reservoir of cells that can subsequently re-contaminate

the food chain highlighting the need to learn more about biofilm dispersal.

A model for the *C. jejuni* core chemotaxis system

Based on the data presented, we propose a model for chemotaxis in *C. jejuni* that has more similarity to the Gram positive model of chemotaxis, as exemplified by *B. subtilis* (Fig. 9). Based on the *E. coli* paradigm, deleting any one of the core chemotaxis proteins should result in counter-clockwise flagella rotation and darting motility (as phospho-CheY results in clockwise flagella rotation and tumbling). Our data show that *cheW-V-A-Y* mutants have impaired chemotactic motility suggestive of a tumbling swimming phenotype (clockwise flagella rotation). Indeed, the *cheY* mutant cells are observed to swim in clockwise 'catherine wheel' loops, while the complemented *cheY +cheY* strain swims as the wild-type. In the *B. subtilis* model, a *cheY* null mutant results in tumbling motility [70], so reducing CheY phosphorylation (*cheA* and/or *cheW* mutants) will result in clockwise flagella rotation and tumbling swimming. Thus, in this respect, the *B. subtilis* model is more appropriate than the *E. coli* model for *C. jejuni*. A phylogenomic classification of bacterial chemotaxis systems placed all the known *Campylobacter* genomes into a particular group 'F3' [14], a group that also represents chemotaxis systems from other members of the Epsilon proteobacteria. Based on the finding of a putative CheX protein, this proposed *C. jejuni* chemotaxis system does not fit into any of the existing models suggested by Wuichet and Zhulin [14]. However, as new genome sequences emerge and are characterised, it is likely that existing classifications will need updating. The model presented in Figure 8 includes the *H. pylori* CheZ homolog, Cj0700. It is known that the *H. pylori* CheZ homolog (HP0170, [71]) has phosphatase activity on CheY, CheA, and CheV2 [51], however, as yet no evidence of the involvement of Cj0700 in chemotaxis has been reported. It is possible that *C. jejuni* may use both CheZ and CheX to dephosphorylate CheY.

Conclusions

The ability to couple flagella rotation with environmental sensing is an effective adaptive

mechanism allowing bacteria to seek an optimum environment. While chemotaxis systems from

model organisms provide an effective model for studying signal transduction in non-paradigm

organisms, species-specific modulations and augmentations abound and require focussed

investigation. Our results from the analysis of the core chemotaxis system of *C. jejuni* suggests that

a unique chemotaxis system has evolved in *Campylobacter*, which has more commonality with

Gram-positive organisms. Such a model may inform on chemotaxis in other Epsilon proteobacteria,

such as the human pathogens *Campylobacter coli* and *Arcobacter butzleri,* and other organisms that

share elements of the *Campylobacter* chemotaxis system and provides a further paradigm for

chemotaxis signal transduction.

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743

745   **Table 1** | Bacterial strains used in this study.

Strain	Description [a]
***E. coli* strain**	
Top10	General cloning strain
***C. jejuni* strains**	
NCTC 11168	Wild-type *C. jejuni* [72]
11168 Δ*cheY*	NCTC 11168 *cj1118c::kan^R*
11168 Δ*cheW*	NCTC 11168 *cj0283c::kan^R*
11168 Δ*cheA*	NCTC 11168 *cj0284c::cat^R*
11168 Δ*cheV*	NCTC 11168 *cj0285c::kan^R*
11168 Δ*cheY +cheY^{fdxApr*}*	NCTC 11168 *cj1118c::kan^R cj0046::cj1118c^{fdxApr*}cat^R*
11168 Δ*cheY +cheYD53A^{fdxApr*}*	NCTC 11168 *cj1118c::kan^R cj0046::cj1118c^{D53AfdxApr*}cat^R*
11168 Δ*cheY +cheYD7A^{fdxApr*}*	NCTC 11168 *cj1118c::kan^R cj0046::cj1118c^{D7AfdxApr*}cat^R*
11168 Δ*cheY +cheA-Y^{fdxApr*}*	NCTC 11168 *cj1118c::kan^R cj0046::cj0284c$^{648-769\_fdxApr*}$cat^R*
11168 Δ*cheW +cheW^{fdxApr*}*	NCTC 11168 *cj0283c::kan^R cj0046::cj0283c^{fdxApr*}cat^R*
11168 Δ*cheA +cheA^{fdxApr*}*	NCTC 11168 *cj0284c::cat^R cj0046::cj0284c^{fdxApr*}kan^R*
11168 Δ*cheA +cheARec^{fdxApr*}*	NCTC 11168 *cj0284c::cat^R cj0046::cj0284c*ΔRec^{fdxApr*}*kan^R*
11168 Δ*cheV +cheV^{fdxApr*}*	NCTC 11168 *cj0285c::kan^R cj0046::cj0285c^{fdxApr*}cat^R*
11168 Δ*cheW +cheV^{fdxApr*}*	NCTC 11168 *cj0283c::kan^R cj0046::cj0285c^{fdxApr*}cat^R*
11168 *cheY^{fdxApr*}*	NCTC 11168 *cj0046::cj1118c^{fdxApr*}cat^R*
11168 *cheYD53A^{fdxApr*}*	NCTC 11168 *cj0046::cj1118c^{D53AfdxApr*}cat^R*
11168 *cheW^{fdxApr*}*	NCTC 11168 *cj0046::cj0283c^{fdxApr*}cat^R*
11168 *cheA^{fdxApr*}*	NCTC 11168 *cj0046::cj0284c^{fdxApr*}kan^R*
11168 *cheX^{fdxApr*}*	NCTC 11168 *cj0046::cj0350c^{fdxApr*}kan^R*
11168 Δ*pflA*	NCTC11168 *cj1565c::kan^R*

746   a.   *kan^R*, kanamycin resistance cassette; *cat^R*, chloramphenicol resistance cassette; * denotes

747   complementation construct: ^{fdxApr}, gene under control of the constitutive *fdxA* promoter.

749   **Table 2** | Plasmids used in this study.

Plasmids	Description [a]
pNEB193	General cloning vector (NEB)
pCfdxA	Complementation plasmid containing *cj0046* flanks, chloramphenicol resistance cassette and *fdxA* promoter [33]
pKfdxA	Complementation plasmid containing *cj0046* flanks, kanamycin resistance cassette and *fdxA* promoter [33]
pCASO27F	*cheY* (*cj1118c*) disruption plasmid, *kan^R*
pCASO28F	*cheW* (*cj0283c*) disruption plasmid, *kan^R*
pCASO54R	*cheA* (*cj0284c*) disruption plasmid, *cat^R*
pCASO69F	*cheV* (*cj0285c*) disruption plasmid, *kan^R*
pCASO59F	*cheY* complementation plasmid, *cat^R*
pCASO60F	*cheW* complementation plasmid, *cat^R*
pCASO58F	*cheA* complementation plasmid, *kan^R*
pCASO59^{D53A}	*cheY* ^{D53A} substitution mutant, *cat^R*
pCASO59D7A	*cheY* ^{D7A} substitution mutant, *cat^R*
pCASO72F	*cheV* complementation plasmid, *cat^R*
pCASO58Rec	Truncated *cheA* lacking C-terminal receiver domain complementation plasmid, *kan^R*
pCASO63	*fliN* complementation plasmid, *kan^R*
pCASO71F	*cheA-Y* complementation plasmid, *cat^R*
pMARKan9	Source of kanamycin resistance cassette [46]
pTopCat	Source of chloramphenicol resistance cassette

a.   *kan^R*, kanamycin resistance; *cat^R*, chloramphenicol resistance

LEGENDS TO FIGURES

Figure 1. Architecture of the core CheV-A-W-Y chemotaxis system in *C. jejuni* compared to a

model Gram-negative (*E. coli* K-12) and Gram-positive (*B. subtilis* 168) organism.

Figure 2. Disrupting chemotaxis proteins does not impair flagella assembly. Brucella broth cultures

were grown overnight at 37°C in microaerobic conditions. Cell were mounted between a

microscope slide and coverslip and freshly prepared Ryu stain added adjacent to the coverslip. After

five minutes, areas where the Ryu stain had penetrated were photographed at ×100 magnification

using a Nikon Coolpix 4500 digital camera. Montage images and scale bars were prepared using

ImageJ. Scale bar = 2 microns.

Figure 3. Chemotaxis mutants show a significant reduction in chemotactic motility in soft agar. For

each chemotaxis mutant, the mutant strain was inoculated into 0.4% agar with the wild-type strain.

Halo formation was measured after 24 and 48 hours and halo area expressed as the percentage of

the wild-type halo for the same plate. Raw mean area of WT was 293.2 ± 15.52 and 1230 ± 63.69

mm^2 (24 and 48 hrs). Results are the mean from at least three biological replicates and error bars

show standard deviation. An asterisk denotes statistically significant results, based on a one-sample

t-test (comparison with wild-type) or a two-tailed Mann-Whitney test (*$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$).

Figure 4. Chemotaxis mutants show a significant reduction in migration in an energy and redox

gradient. Tube taxis assays for each strain were monitored over 72 hours at 37°C and the dye front

measured after 24, 40, 48, 64 and 72 hours. Migration, calculated as a percentage of the wild-type

used in the same assay, is shown at 24, 48, and 72 hrs (a) and migration rate (mm hr^{-1}), compared to

WT is shown (b). Raw mean migration for WT was 8.198 ± 0.981, 19.77 ± 2.2, 25.58 ± 2.94, 40.48

± 4.342, and 48.03 ± 5.09 mm (24, 40, 48, 64 and 72 hours). Results are the mean from at least four

biological replicates and error bars show standard deviation. Asterisks denote statistically

significant results, based on a one-sample *t*-test (comparison with wild-type) or a two-tailed Mann-

Whitney test (*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01)

Figure 5. The *cheY* mutants show a 'catherine wheel' swimming phenotype consisting of repeated

clockwise swimming. Following 6 – 7 hours growth at 37°C in microaerobic conditions, movies of

swimming cells (a, wild-type; b, *cheY*; c, *cheY +cheY*; d, *cheY +cheY*^{D53A}; e, *cheY +cheY*^{D7A}; f, *cheY*

+cheA-Y) were recorded at ×100 magnification using a light microscope and attached Nikon

camera. Individual cells were tracked using the Manual Tracking ImageJ plug-in and swimming

trajectories plotted using the Chemotaxis and Migration Tool (Ibidi).

Figure 6. Over-expressing a putative CheX homolog decreases swarming motility. a) Chemotactic

motility. Each strain was inoculated into 0.4% agar with the wild-type strain. Halo formation was

measured after 24 and 48 hours and halo area expressed as the percentage of the wild-type halo for

the same plate. Results are the mean from at least three biological replicates and error bars show

standard deviation. b) Tube Taxis. Assays were monitored over 72 hours at 37°C and the dye front

measured after 24, 48, and 72 hours. Migration was calculated as a percentage of the wild-type used

in the same assay. Results are the mean from at least three biological replicates and error bars show

standard deviation. c. Representative swarm plate and tube taxis assays showing the WT *+cheX*

phenotype. d. WT *+cheX* morphology shown using scanning electron microscopy and Ryu staining.

SEM scale bar = 1 micron, Ryu staining scale bar = 2 microns.

Figure 7. Chemotaxis is required for robust biofilm formation at the air-media interface. Static

cultures of each strain were grown in the presence of a sterile glass slide, as shown in the cartoon on

the right (37°C, microaerobic, 48 hrs). Glass slides were removed and stained with 1% crystal

violet. CV-stained biofilm was detected using a GenePix microarray scanner employing both 635

and 532 nm lasers. An asterisk shows the position of the air-media interface. Three independent

biological repeats are shown for each strain.

Figure 8. Chemotaxis model for *C. jejuni* (based on this and previous work) compared to *E. coli*

and *B. subtilis*. *C. jejuni* exemplifies a species-specific model of chemotaxis with similarities to the

Gram-positive model. White arrows show phosphate flow. Dotted white arrows suggest possible

phosphate flow. *H. pylori* CheZ (Cj0700) and ChePep (Cj1178c) homologs are shown as dashed

boxes.

LEGENDS TO SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

Figure S1. Chemotaxis mutants do not show impaired growth in Brucella media in microaerobic

conditions. To measure growth, cultures grown overnight at 37°C in microaerobic conditions were

diluted to A600 = 0.05 in wells of a flat-bottom sterile 96 well-plate. Cultures were grown at 37°C

in 5% oxygen and 10% CO_2 and A600 was measured every 60 minutes for 24 hours using an

Omega plate reader attached to an atmospheric control unit (BMG Labtech).

Figure S2. RT-PCR analysis of chemotaxis gene expression in wild-type and mutant strains. Total

RNA was purified from various strains using the hot phenol method. cDNA was synthesised using

M-MuLV Reverse Transcriptase in the presence of murine RNase Inhibitor using a random primer

mix (OneTaq® RT-PCR Kit, NEB). Specific transcripts were amplified using One *Taq* DNA

polymerase using primers shown in supplementary Table 1. Primers specific for *rpoA* were used as

positive control primers and RT minus controls were included for each strain to control for

amplification from contaminating DNA. A) *cheV* transcript is absent in the *cheV* mutant, but not

cheA or *cheW* transcripts. B) *cheA* transcript is absent in the *cheA* mutant but *cheW* transcript is

present. C) *cheA-Y* transcript is present in the *cheA+cheA-Y* strain. D) CheY-complementation

strains express *cheY* transcripts. E) CheA-complementation strains express *cheA* transcripts.

Figure S3. Strains containing two copies of chemotaxis genes have altered swarming and migration

in taxis tubes. Swarm plate and tube taxis assay results from strains containing two copies of the

chemotaxis genes (original locus and *cj0046* complementation locus, constitutive *fdxA* promoter).

Results are the mean from at least three biological replicates and error bars show standard deviation.

An asterisk denotes statistically significant results, based on a one-sample *t*-test (comparison to

wild-type) or Mann-Whitney test (*$p < 0.05$).

Figure S4. *C. jejuni* CheY and CheA-Y share 58% similarity and contain the conserved acid pocket

and aspartic acid active site residues. A, multiple alignment of the Receiver Domain (PF00072)

seed sequences with NCTC11168 CheY, and the receiver domains of NCTC11168 CheA and CheV

(marked by an asterisk). Inset: model of NCTC11168 CheY threaded over CheY from *Thermotoga*

maritima (1TMY), active site aspartate residues are shown. B, Pairwise alignment of CheY and

CheA-Y from *C. jejuni* NCTC11168. Acid pocket and active site Asp residues are highlighted.

Figure S5. The *C. jejuni* CheA domain architecture is not unique to the Epsilon proteobacteria.

Stacked column charts showing the number of sequences from different phyla that share the domain

architecture of *C. jejuni* CheA as determined using the PfamAlyzer tool and NCBI taxomony.

Figure S6. The biofilm phenotype of the *che* mutants is linked to shedding of cells from the biofilm

and the ability to swim to the air-media interface. A) To assess cell shedding from the biofilm, the

A600 of each planktonic culture used to prepare slide biofilm assays was measured. Planktonic

cultures of at least three biological replicates were measured and error bars show standard

deviation. An asterisk denotes statistically significant results, based on a Mann-Whitney test (*p <

0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001). B) Three biological replicates of the paralysed

flagella strain (*pflA*) in the slide biofilm assay. Freshly diluted cultures of Δ*pflA* (A600 = 0.05) were

incubated with a sterile microscope slide for 48 hours at 37°C in microaerobic conditions. Slides

were removed and strained with 1% crystal violet before scanning with a GenePixPro scanner.

Supplementary Movie 1. Swimming behaviour of the *C. jejuni cheY* mutant.

Supplementary Movie 2. Swimming behaviour of the *C. jejuni* WT +*cj0350* (*cheX*) strain.

Table S1. Oligonucleotide primers used in this study.

Figure 1

wild-type   ΔcheW   ΔcheW +cheW

ΔcheV   ΔcheV +cheV   WT +cheV

ΔcheY   ΔcheY +cheY   ΔcheY +cheY^{D53A}

ΔcheA   ΔcheA +cheA   ΔcheA +cheA^{ΔRec}

Reuter et al, Fig. 2

Figure 2

Reuter et al, Fig. 3

Figure 3

A

Migration (% of WT)

24 hours 48 hours
72 hours

cheW, *cheW +cheW*, *cheV*, *cheV +cheV*, *cheW +cheV*, *cheA*, *cheA +cheA*, *cheA +cheA*$^{\Delta Rec}$, *cheY*, *cheY +cheY*, *cheY +cheY*^{D53A}, *cheY +cheY*^{D7A}, *cheY +cheA-Y*

B

Tube Taxis Rate (% of wild-type)

cheY +cheA-Y
cheY +cheY^{D7A}
cheY +cheY^{D53A}
cheY +cheY
cheY
cheA +cheA$^{\Delta Rec}$
cheA +cheA
cheA
cheW +cheV
cheY +cheV
cheV
cheW +cheW
cheW
wild-type

Reuter et al, Fig. 4

Figure 4

Reuter et al, Fig. 5

Figure 5

Figure 6

wild-type ΔcheW ΔcheW +cheW

ΔcheV ΔcheV +cheV ΔcheA

ΔcheA +cheA ΔcheA +cheA^{ΔRec} ΔcheY

ΔcheY +cheY ΔcheY +cheY^{D53A} ΔcheY +cheY^{D7A}

* Air-media interface

Reuter et al, Fig. 7

Figure 7

Figure 8