Phenylacetyl-CoA, not phenylacetic acid, attenuates CepIR-regulated virulence in *Burkholderia*

cenocepacia

Tasia Joy Lightly[a], Kara L. Frejuk[a], Marie-Christine Groleau[c], Laurent R. Chiarelli[d], Cor Ras[e],

Silvia Buroni[d], Eric Déziel[c], John L. Sorensen[f] and Silvia T. Cardona[a,b#]

[a]Department of Microbiology, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Canada

[b]Department of Medical Microbiology & Infectious Diseases, University of Manitoba,

Winnipeg, Canada

[c]Armand-Frappier Santé Biotechnologie Center, Institut National de la Recherche Scientifique

(INRS), Laval, Canada

[d]Department of Biology and Biotechnology "Lazzaro Spallanzani", University of Pavia, Pavia,

Italy

[e]Department of Biotechnology, Delft University of Technology, Delft, The Netherlands

[f]Department of Chemistry, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Canada

Running Head: Phenylacetyl-CoA inhibits LuxIR-type quorum sensing

#Address correspondence to Silvia T. Cardona, Silvia.Cardona@umanitoba.ca

Abstract word count: 206

Importance word count: 149

Text word count: 4,224

Abstract

During phenylalanine catabolism, phenylacetic acid (PAA) is converted to phenylacetyl-CoA (PAA-CoA) by a ligase, PaaK, and then epoxidized by a multicomponent monooxygenase, PaaABCDE, before further degradation to the TCA cycle. In the opportunistic pathogen *Burkholderia cenocepacia,* loss of *paaABCDE* attenuates virulence factor expression, which is under control of the LuxIR-like quorum sensing system, CepIR. To further investigate the link between CepIR-regulated virulence and PAA catabolism, we created knockout mutants of the first step of the pathway (PAA-CoA synthesis by PaaK) and characterized them in comparison to a *paaABCDE* mutant using liquid chromatography/mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) and virulence assays. We found that while loss of PaaABCDE decreased virulence, deletion of the *paaK* genes resulted in a more virulent phenotype than the wild type strain. Deletion of either *paaK* or *paaABCDE* led to higher levels of released PAA but no differences in internal accumulation, compared to wild type. While we found no evidence of direct *cepIR* downregulation by PAA-CoA or PAA, a low virulence *cepR* mutant reverted to a virulent phenotype upon removal of the *paaK* genes. On the other hand, removal of *paaABCDE* in the *cepR* mutant did not impact its attenuated phenotype. Together, our results suggest an indirect role for PAA-CoA in supressing *B. cenocepacia* CepIR-activated virulence.

Importance

The opportunistic pathogen *Burkholderia cenocepacia* uses a chemical signal process called quorum sensing (QS) to produce virulence factors. In *B. cenocepacia*, QS relies on the presence of the transcriptional regulator CepR, which upon binding QS signal molecules, activates virulence. In this work, we found that even in the absence of CepR, *B. cenocepacia* can elicit a

pathogenic response if phenylacetyl-CoA, an intermediate of the phenylacetic acid degradation

pathway, is not produced. Instead, accumulation of phenylacetyl-CoA appears to attenuate

pathogenicity. Therefore, we have discovered that it is possible to trigger virulence in the

absence of CepR, challenging the classical view of activation of virulence by this QS

mechanism. Our work provides new insight into the relationship between metabolism and

virulence in opportunistic bacteria. We propose that, in the event that QS signaling molecules

cannot accumulate to trigger a pathogenic response, a metabolic signal can still activate virulence

in *B. cenocepacia*.

Introduction

Intercellular communication in bacteria, or quorum sensing (QS), relies on the production

and detection of signalling molecules to regulate gene expression in a cell-density dependent

manner (1, 2). In many Gram-negative bacteria, LuxI homologs synthesize *N*-acyl homoserine

lactones (AHLs) as signalling molecules. These small diffusible molecules accumulate

extracellularly as the population increases until the concentration is sufficient for AHLs to return

into the cell where they bind LuxR-type transcriptional regulators. Complexing of the AHL to

the LuxR homolog results in a conformational change that alters the ability of the transcriptional

regulator to bind DNA and regulate gene expression (3). Many of the genes regulated by QS

control expression of virulence traits, which are important for bacteria to establish infection (4).

A bacterium with a LuxIR-type QS system is *Burkholderia cenocepacia*, a member of the

Burkholderia cepacia complex (5). The strain *B. cenocepacia* K56-2, isolated from the sputum

of a cystic fibrosis patient, has two complete LuxIR-type QS systems, CepIR and CciIR, and one

orphan transcriptional regulator, CepR2 (5, 6). The regulons of CepR and CciR have been

examined and a large number of the genes that are regulated are linked to virulence (7). While

CepR and CciR have separate regulons, certain genes are regulated by both in a reciprocal

manner (7). CepR positively regulates gene expression, whereas CciR is responsible for negative

gene regulation (7). While these two systems regulate certain genes in a reciprocal manner,

rather than hierarchically like those of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa,* the transcription of both *cepI*

and *cciIR* is dependent on CepR and in turn CciR negatively regulates the expression of *cepI* (7,

8). CepR and CciR both positively regulate their canonical autoinducer synthase and negatively

regulate their own transcription (8, 9). CepI mainly produces *N*-octanoyl homoserine lactone

(C8-HSL) with slight production of *N*-hexanoyl homoserine lactone (C6-HSL), whereas CciI

synthesizes C6-HSL with slight secondary production of C8-HSL (8, 10). CepR2 lacks a cognate

AHL synthase and has been shown to regulate known QS-regulated genes independent of a

signalling molecule (11).

Several lines of evidence point to metabolic adaptation as an important component of

virulence regulation (12–15). In this context, high levels of phenylacetic acid (PAA) have been

linked to evasion of the immune response by *Acinetobacter* (16), inhibition of pathogenicity of

the fungus *Rhizoctonia solani* (17), and downregulation of virulence gene expression in *B.*

cenocepacia (18). The PAA degradation pathway is a central route by which diverse aromatic

compounds, such as phenylalanine, converge and are directed to the tricarboxylic acid (TCA)

cycle (19). In *Escherichia coli* K12*,* PAA is converted to phenylacetyl-Coenzyme A (PAA-CoA)

by the action of a phenylacetyl-CoA ligase*,* PaaK (19). The conversion to PAA-CoA by PaaK

can be reverted to PAA by the action of PaaI, a thioesterase, to prevent accumulation should

downstream steps be disrupted (20). Next, PAA-CoA is epoxidized by the multicomponent

monooxygenase, PaaABCDE and then further degraded into succinyl-CoA and acetyl-CoA (19).

We previously found that CepIR-regulated virulence traits and *cepI* and *cepR* promoter

activity were downregulated in a *B. cenocepacia* mutant of the *paaABCDE* operon that released

PAA (18). We also demonstrated that PAA could be produced to detectable levels in wild type *B.*

cenocepacia K56-2 under certain conditions, suggesting a potential physiological role of the

regulation of virulence by this molecule (21). However, the PaaABCDE mutant is still able to

degrade PAA to PAA-CoA. Therefore, the metabolite responsible and the mechanism of the

regulation of virulence by accumulated PAA-metabolites is not known. In this work, we further

characterized mutants of the PAA degradation pathway to show that the loss of PaaK function

increases virulence, suggesting that PAA-CoA is responsible for the attenuation phenotype.

While we found no evidence of a direct effect of PAA-CoA on CepI activity or the formation of

CepR:C8-HSL complexes, our results are consistent with a parallel mechanism that uses PAA-

CoA, or a derivative, as a regulatory ligand, and competes with the CepIR complex to regulate

virulence.

Results

Creation and phenotypic characterization of a paaK *double mutant*

Previously, we demonstrated a link between the attenuation of *B. cenocepacia* K56-2

Δ*paaABCDE* and the release of PAA (18). However, the interruption of the pathway at this step

could also result in an accumulation of PAA-CoA because PAA is converted to PAA-CoA by a

PaaK ligase (Fig. 1). To determine the role of each of these molecules in the attenuation of

virulence, we characterized a *paaK* mutant that should only produce PAA and compared it to the

paaABCDE mutant. Similarly to the reference strain *B. cenocepacia* J2315 (22) in K56-2 there

are two similar but not identical phenylacetyl-CoA ligases, PaaK1 and PaaK2 (23). We created

marker-less deletion mutants of *paaK1* (BCAL0404) and *paaK2* (BCAM1711). Knockout

mutants of the other *paaK* were then made in each background resulting in two independently

made double knockouts, which we have named Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2* and Δ*paaK2*Δ*paaK1*.

To confirm the interruption of the PAA pathway, K56-2 and mutants were grown on LB

media and M9 minimal medium with glucose or PAA as a sole carbon source. No growth defect

was observed in LB or glucose (Fig. 2A and B). Both *paaK* single knockout mutants were also

able to grow on PAA as a sole carbon source to wild type levels, indicating that PAA can be used

as a substrate for both ligases (Fig. 2B). While mutants were able to grow normally on glucose as

a sole carbon source, the *paaK* double knockout mutants (Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2* and Δ*paaK2*Δ*paaK1*)

were unable to grow on PAA (Fig. 2B). Growth was complemented with a plasmid containing a

rhamnose-inducible *paaK2* (BCAM1711) (Fig. S2) confirming that the interruption of the

pathway in these mutants was caused by the deletion of *paaK*. Mutants with full interruption of

the pathway (Δ*paaABCDE*, Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2,* and Δ*paaK2*Δ*paaK1*) were unable to grow on PAA

as a sole carbon source. Single deletion mutants of the *paaK* ligases (Δ*paaK1* and Δ*paaK2*) grew

to wild type levels on PAA indicating that the pathway is not interrupted in these strains. The

PaaABCDE mutant has been shown to accumulate extracellular PAA due to the interruption of

the pathway (18) but the concentration of intracellular PAA and PAA-CoA was unknown.

Intracellular and extracellular concentrations of both PAA and PAA-CoA were measured with

ion pair reversed phase ultra-high performance liquid chromatography tandem mass

spectrometry (IP-RP-UHPLC-MS/MS) using the differential method (24–26). In general, high

levels of PAA were found extracellularly rather than intracellularly. The average extracellular

concentration of PAA in the wild type, Δ*paaABCDE*, Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2,* and Δ*paaK2*Δ*paaK1*

supernatants was 37.3, 357.0, 107.3, and 93.9 μM, respectively (Fig. 2C) whereas the average

values for intracellular PAA in the same strains were 6.0, 2.0, 1.7 and 8.0 µM (Fig. 2D). When

we examined the concentrations of PAA-CoA, we found that the average extracellular levels of

PAA-CoA were below or near the limit of detection for all strains, as expected for a CoA

molecule that cannot transverse cell membranes. However, PAA-CoA accumulated

intracellularly to levels slightly above the limit of detection (Fig. 2E). The intracellular levels of

PAA-CoA (Fig. 2F) were higher in $\Delta paaABCDE$, (0.94 µM) than in the PaaK mutants (0.54 µM

and 0.38 µM). However, the low micromolar amounts detected and the high variability between

biological replicates made it challenging to establish clear differences between the PAA-CoA

content of the wild type and the PAA degradation mutants.

To determine how interruption of each of the two consecutive steps of PAA degradation

could affect QS-regulated virulence traits, the killing ability of PAA pathway mutants was

compared to wild type in slow killing assays, which quantify the survival of gut-infected

nematodes fed on the respective mutants (Fig. 3A). As previously seen, the $\Delta paaABCDE$-

exposed nematodes had a higher survival rate than those fed on K56-2 (p < 0.001). Surprisingly,

the nematodes exposed to the $\Delta paaK1\Delta paaK2$ mutant showed only 31% (±19%) survival on day

2. This was an increase in pathogenicity compared to K56-2, which had 66% (±10%) survival on

day 2 (p < 0.0001). This virulent phenotype was also observed in nematodes fed with

$\Delta paaK2\Delta paaK1$ (Fig. S3A) but not in those fed with the single $paaK$ deletion mutants (Fig.

S3B).

To further investigate the opposite virulence phenotypes of the $\Delta paaABCDE$ and

$\Delta paaK1\Delta paaK2$ mutants, we measured the exoprotease activity of both strains, a well-studied

virulence trait of *B. cenocepacia* that is regulated by CepIR (10, 27). To ensure that PAA-related

metabolites could be produced, we added the precursor phenylalanine to the 2% skim milk agar

used for the exoprotease assay, as previously performed (18). In the absence of phenylalanine,

the proteolytic activity of the Δ*paaABCDE* mutant was similar to that of K56-2. However, when

phenylalanine was added to the medium, the proteolytic activity of Δ*paaABCDE* was abolished

(Fig. 3B). On the other hand, the proteolytic activities of Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK*2 and Δ*paaK2*Δ*paaK1*

were higher than that of K56-2, regardless of the addition phenylalanine (Fig. 3B and Fig. S3C).

This is in agreement with the results from the slow killing assays where only Δ*paaABCDE* was

attenuated for virulence while the Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK*2 and Δ*paaK2*Δ*paaK1* were more pathogenic

than the wild type. Together, we observed no correlation between extracellular levels of PAA

and pathogenicity (Fig. S4).

PAA-CoA has no effect on CepR and CepI function in vitro

Because PAA-CoA synthesis is interrupted in the *paaK* mutants but not in the

paaABCDE mutant, we hypothesized that PAA-CoA was responsible for attenuating virulence.

As the Δ*paaABCDE* is attenuated for virulence traits that are under the control of the CepIR

quorum sensing system (28), we focused our attention on a possible direct effect of PAA-CoA on

the CepIR. In addition, Δ*paaABCDE* had decreased *cepI* and *cepR* promoter activity and AHL

signaling (18). Specifically, we asked whether PAA-CoA could: 1) inhibit the formation of

CepR:AHL complexes; 2) inhibit the enzymatic activity of CepI; and/or 3) indirectly affect an

upstream regulator.

To address the first question, we built a reporter system (W14/pTL7/pTL5/pTL22

referred to from here on as CepR reporter strain, Fig. 4A) similar to those commonly used to

identify quorum sensing inhibitors (29). Briefly, *cepR* was expressed under the control of an

arabinose-inducible promoter. In the presence of exogenously added AHL, CepR binds to the

cepI promoter that controls the expression of luminescence genes *luxCDABE*. Addition of an

inhibitor would result in decreased expression of luminescence. To test PAA-CoA, PAA was

added and converted to PAA-CoA (Fig. 4B) by the action of a PaaK ligase (See supplemental

materials for a full description of the reporter system). Using this reporter system we observed

that although there was inhibition of luminescence in the presence of PAA-CoA, the level of

inhibition was similar to that of the control strains (Fig. 4C). Similarly, PAA itself also had no

effect on the system (Fig. 4D). In summary, these results show that PAA-CoA and PAA do not

directly affect CepI activity or CepR:C8-HSL formation.

To analyze if PAA or PAA-CoA inhibits the enzymatic activity of CepI, we used

recombinant CepI in the presence of dichlorophenolindophenol (DCPIP) to

spectrophotometrically measure the activity of CepI (30). CepI catalyzes the formation of C8-

HSL from octanoyl-Acyl Carrier Protein (C8-ACP) and *S*-adenosyl methionine (SAM). During

this reaction DCPIP is reduced resulting in a colour change that can be used to measure activity

of CepI. Enzyme activity showed no change in the presence of 200 µM of PAA-CoA or PAA

(Table 1), suggesting that neither molecule directly inhibits the activity of CepI.

As our data did not show a direct effect of PAA-CoA on the CepIR QS system but *cepI*

and *cepR* promoter activity was decreased in the PaaABCDE mutant (18), we hypothesized that

PAA-CoA may indirectly affect an upstream regulator of the CepIR QS system. If this was the

case, we predicted that the differences in pathogenicity between the Δ*paaABCDE* and the

Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2* mutant strains would be explained by differential expression of *cepI* and *cepR*.

Using stationary phase cultures, we measured the transcript levels of *cepI* and *cepR* and the

levels of C8-HSL in the PAA pathway mutants and compared it to wild type. Surprisingly, the

Δ*paaABCDE* and the Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2* mutants had wild type levels of *cepI* and *cepR*

transcription (Fig. 5A and Fig. S5A) despite the striking differences in their virulence

phenotypes and contradicting our previous results where reporter systems measured decreased

cepI and *cepR* promoter activity and decreased AHL signaling (18). This suggested that the

attenuation of the Δ*paaABCDE* mutant is independent of the transcription of the CepIR QS

system. To confirm the wild type transcription levels of our mutants, we measured the levels of

AHL molecules in each strain. Similar to the transcription, the levels of C8-HSL, taken from

stationary phase samples did not correlate with the decreased virulence of our PAA pathway

mutants (Fig. 5B and Fig. S5B). However, both Δ*cepI* and Δ*cepR* had no measurable C8-HSL

which is consistent with their lack of virulence (Fig. 5B).

The CepR-independent virulence of PaaK knockout mutants is mediated by the presence/absence

of PAA-CoA

Transcription of *cepI* and *cepR* is not decreased in PAA pathway mutants and C8-HSL is

present in the mutants yet the virulence factors attenuated in the Δ*paaABCDE* mutant

(pathogenicity in *C. elegans* and exoprotease activity) are known to be under the control of the

CepIR system. To further understand how the PAA pathway may regulate QS-related virulence

without affecting *cepIR* transcription, we created marker-less deletions of *cepI* and *cepR* in the

PAA pathway deletion mutant backgrounds. We reasoned that if PAA-related regulation of

virulence was completely independent of CepI and CepR activity, then deletion of *cepI* and *cepR*

in a Δ*paaABCDE* background should show an additive attenuation effect. Similarly, deletion of

cepI and *cepR* in a Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2* mutant background should show the same degree of

attenuation as the *cepI* and *cepR* deletions in a wild type background. Once we had created

knockout mutants of *cepI* and *cepR* for each PAA pathway mutant in parallel with *cepI* and *cepR*

deletions in wild type K56-2, we analyzed their growth and found no defect when grown in LB

media over 24 hours (Fig. S6). Next, we used virulence assays to determine if the CepIR QS

system was needed for the regulation of their QS. The virulence of the *cepI* and *cepR* knockout

mutants in wild type and PAA mutant backgrounds was compared in slow killing assays (Fig. 6A

and B, Fig. S7A and B). Both *cep* QS mutants in the Δ*paaABCDE* background were more

attenuated for virulence than Δ*paaABCDE* (Fig. S7A). However, they failed to show an additive

effect (Fig. S7A). Moreover, while the Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2*Δ*cepI* mutant was as attenuated as Δ*cepI*,

Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2*Δ*cepR* was not, showing that the pathogenic phenotype was independent of

CepR (Fig. 6A and B). This was mirrored in the Δ*paaK2*Δ*paaK1*Δ*cepR* mutant (Fig. S7B). This

is surprising considering the *cepR* deletion in wild type and the *paaABCDE* mutant has a severe

attenuation (Fig. S7A).

242   Corroborating the results of the *C. elegans* assay, Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2*Δ*cepR* had wild type

243 levels of proteolytic activity whereas the Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2*Δ*cepI* mutant had none (Fig. 6C and

244 Fig. S7C). The only difference between the Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2*Δ*cepR* mutant and the *cepR* mutant

245 is the presence of PAA. If PAA was responsible for the elimination of the *cepR* attenuation, the

246 Δ*paaABCDE*Δ*cepR* mutant should be pathogenic but our results show it is not.

247   To further understand the virulence of the Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2*Δ*cepR* mutant, we examined

the expression levels of *cepI* and *cepR* and the levels of C8-HSL in the mutants. While

transcription of *cepR* is abolished in Δ*cepI*, it is restored to wild type levels when the deletion of

cepI occurs in a Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2* or Δ*paaABCDE* background (Fig. 6D and Fig. S7D for

Δ*paaK2*Δ*paaK1*). Therefore PAA, which is present in both PAA pathway mutants, restores *cepR*

transcription but not pathogenicity, because there is no CepI and no C8-HSL (Fig. 6F). When

cepI transcript levels were analyzed in Δ*cepR* in wild type and PAA degradation mutant

backgrounds, the transcription of *cepI* was downregulated in the CepR mutant, as expected.

Similarly, *cepI* transcription was reduced in the attenuated Δ*paaABCDE*Δ*cepR* and the

pathogenic Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2*Δ*cepR* (Fig. 6E and Fig. S7E for Δ*paaK2*Δ*paaK1*Δ*cepR*). The lack of

C8-HSL in both the Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2*Δ*cepI* and Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2*Δ*cepR* (Fig. 6F) mutants

suggests the pathogenicity of the Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2*Δ*cepR* mutant is independent of *cepI*. This was

mirrored in the Δ*paaK2*Δ*paaK1*Δ*cepR* mutant (Fig. S7F).

Deletions of the *cepI* and *cepR* genes in the PAA pathway mutant backgrounds allowed

us to determine that the PAA pathway has an effect on CepIR-regulated virulence that is evident

when CepI or CepR is absent. In this context, our results suggest that there is an alternative

signalling pathway to activate virulence in the Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2*Δ*cepR* mutant. The opposite

effects of the PaaK and PaaABCDE mutations with regards to pathogenicity and the striking

differences that *paaK* and *paaABCDE* gene deletions have in the *cepR* mutant background

suggest that PAA-CoA, or a derivative, is the central molecule implicated in this alternative

signalling pathway.

Discussion

In *B. cenocepacia*, the attenuation of CepIR QS-regulated virulence traits in PAA

pathway mutants was thought to be due to the accumulation of PAA (18). In line with this

finding, PAA has also been shown to regulate the virulence of other Gram-negative bacteria,

Acinetobacter baumannii (16) and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (31, 32), two Gram-negative

bacteria that also use LuxIR-type QS systems to regulate their virulence (33, 34). Previously, we

demonstrated that the release of PAA in a *B. cenocepacia* mutant of the PAA pathway resulted in

the inhibition of CepIR-regulated QS, a LuxIR-type system (18). However, the Δ*paaABCDE*

mutant has the genes necessary to convert PAA to PAA-CoA (Fig. 1). Therefore, PAA or PAA-

CoA could be the molecule responsible for the inhibition of CepIR-regulated QS.

To determine the molecule responsible, we attempted to create a mutant unable to

accumulate PAA-CoA. The PaaK knockout mutant accumulated less PAA-CoA than the

Δ*paaABCDE* mutant, and was more virulent than the wild type, suggesting that the attenuated

virulence could be due to the accumulation of PAA-CoA, or a derivative. Another difference

between these two mutants is that the PaaK knockout mutant released less PAA than the

PaaABCDE mutant. Since PAA-CoA is the true inducer of the PAA pathway, the increased

accumulation of PAA in the PaaABCDE mutant is likely due to induction of the upstream

degradation pathway when PAA-CoA relieves the regulator, PaaR (35). Although our results

show that the PaaABCDE mutant produces more PAA than both PaaK1PaaK2 and PaaK2PaaK1

mutants, the accumulation of PAA is extracellular. There were no significant differences in the

intracellular concentrations of PAA mutants compared with the wild type and the amounts were

detected at levels very close to, or lower than, the smallest standard used for the calibration curve

(8 µM). Therefore, any effect of PAA on virulence should be attributed to extracellular levels of

PAA. However, this does not seem to be the case as exogenous addition of PAA to *B.*

cenocepacia wild type did not change its pathogenic phenotype (18).

We hypothesized CepIR-regulated QS inhibition was achieved by one of three

mechanisms: 1) direct inhibition of the enzymatic activity of CepI or its products; 2) inhibition of

the formation of CepR:C8-HSL complex; or 3) an indirect effect on an upstream regulator. Using

an *E. coli* reporter system that can't metabolize PAA, we examined the ability of PAA-CoA to

act as a direct inhibitor of the CepIR QS system. We were able to observe strong but unspecific

inhibition of luminescence by PAA and PAA-CoA, highlighting the importance of control strains

when reporter systems are used to identify QS inhibitors: QS-regulated phenotypes often depend

on other factors; and reporter strains using bioluminescence can be affected by the overall

metabolic activity of the cell (29). In our system, the control strains had either the arabinose-

inducible P_{BAD} promoter or the *dhfr* constitutive promoter controlling the expression of

luxCDABE luminescence genes. First, in the presence of higher concentrations of PAA (above 1

mM) the expression of luminescence by the constitutive promoter was inhibited suggesting a

general effect on luminescence. Second, the concentration of rhamnose used to express *paaK,*

0.01% w/v, inhibited the arabinose-inducible promoter. With these control strains, we were able

to minimize the general effects on the reporter system and determine that neither PAA or PAA-

CoA have a direct effect on the formation of CepR:C8-HSL complexes or on CepI activity.

Interestingly, we found that the attenuation of virulence in Δ*paaABCDE* did not

correspond to decreased *cepI* and *cepR* transcription or C8-HSL production. The lack of

downregulation of either *cepI* or *cepR* in the Δ*paaABCDE* mutant was quite surprising because

this contradicted the results from our plasmid-based reporter systems that showed decreased *cepI*

and *cepR* promoter activity and decreased AHL signalling (18). To investigate this discrepancy,

we introduced the plasmids with P_{cepI}::*luxCDABE* or P_{cepR}::*luxCDABE* to the Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2*

and Δ*paaK2*Δ*paaK1* mutants and found decreased *cepI* and *cepR* promoter activity almost

identical to that of the Δ*paaABCDE* mutant with the same plasmid-based reporter system (data

not shown). This suggests that the PAA present in both these mutants might have had a general

effect on the reporter system itself. It is possible that PAA may affect the copy number of the

plasmid or affect the metabolism of the cells in such a way that affects plasmid-based reporter

strains as previously shown in *E. coli* (36).

We initially focused our attention on *B. cenocepacia* CepIR because this QS system

solely controls pathogenicity in *C. elegans* where the virulence attenuation of PAA degradation

mutants was first characterized (22). However, current evidence suggests that a two-component

system, RqpSR, is at the top of the hierarchy controlling both AHL- and BDSF-dependent QS

systems (37, 38) . The BDSF-dependent system uses cis-2-dodecenoic acid signalling molecule

(*Burkholderia* diffusible signal factor or BDSF) that regulates overlapping genes with the AHL

QS system (39). We considered that the virulence of the Δ*paaABCDE* may be attenuated through

an indirect effect. However, RqpSR and BDSF both regulate the expression of *cepI*, which is not

differentially regulated in the Δ*paaABCDE* mutant, nor was there decreased production of AHLs

(37, 40). To determine if the attenuated virulence of Δ*paaABCDE* could be independent of CepI

and CepR activity we created *cepI* and *cepR* mutants in the PAA pathway mutant backgrounds.

If PAA-related regulation of virulence was independent of CepI and CepR activity, then we

would see an additive effect on attenuation. Whereas, in a *paaK* knockout mutant background we

expected to see a virulence phenotype similar to that of the same deletion in a wild type strain. In

the Δ*paaABCDE* QS mutants we saw no evidence of an additive effect as the QS mutations were

dominant, leading to the same pathogenicity as a wild type Δ*cepI* or Δ*cepR* mutant. Because the

cepI/R mutations in Δ*paaABCDE* did not have an additive effect, this suggests the mechanism of

attenuation involves the CepIR QS system without affecting the expression of the *cepI/R* genes.

Recently, an analogue of BDSF was shown to inhibit the production of AHL signals in *B.*

cenocepacia H111 (38). In the future, it would be interesting to test the ability of the compound

to inhibit QS-regulated virulence in a genetic background where PAA-CoA synthesis is

interrupted.

In the *paaK* knockout background the QS mutations had opposing effects. While a *cepI*

deletion resulted in the expected attenuated virulence, a *cepR* deletion had wild type levels of

virulence. Surprisingly, the PAA pathway mutants with a *cepI* deletion had increased

transcription of *cepR*. Therefore, it seems that extracellular PAA, observed in both PAA pathway

mutants, can restore the transcription of *cepR* to wild type levels. While increased transcription

of *cepR* by PAA may suggest that this is the reason why the *paaK* mutants are more pathogenic

than the wild type, it does not explain why PAA does not produce the same effect in the

paaABCDE mutant nor does explain why the *cepR* mutation in a *paaK* background reverts to

wild type levels of virulence. A possible reason for these striking opposite phenotypes, is that in

the *paaK* mutants a regulatory component is activated in the absence of CepR. We speculate that

this activation is sensitive to the levels of PAA-CoA. However, a limitation of our work is that

we were unable to detect statistically significant differences between the levels of PAA-CoA in

wild type and PaaK mutants as the amounts of PAA-CoA were very close to the limit of

detection of our method.

Finally, the results presented here highlight how changes in a catabolic pathway can

modulate virulence in bacteria. Variations in the concentration of PAA-CoA led to CepR-

dependent attenuated virulence, despite the presence of CepR. Conversely, the same virulence

factors could increase, despite the absence of CepR. We propose that increased virulence due to

PAA metabolites may be relevant in environmental conditions where quorum sensing signals do

not accumulate but a virulent response is necessary.

Materials and Methods

Strains, media preparation and growth conditions

Bacterial strains, listed in Table 2, were grown at 37°C with agitation at 230 rpm in

Lysogeny Broth (LB) Lennox medium (without glucose) (41), unless specified. All cultures were

started from isolated colonies grown 48 hours on LB agar at 37°C, unless specified. Plasmids

used are listed in Table 3. For *E. coli* strains the following antibiotics and concentrations were

used: Ampicillin (100 µg/ml; 200 µg/ml for W14 strain); Chloramphenicol (30 µg/ml),

Kanamycin (30 µg/ml; 40 µg/ml for MM290 strain), Trimethoprim (50 µg/ml; 100 µg/ml for

W14 strain), Tetracycline (20 µg/ml). For *B. cenocepacia* strains the following antibiotics and

concentrations were used: Trimethoprim (100 µg/ml), Tetracycline (100 µg/ml), Gentamycin (50

µg/ml). Stock solutions of C8-HSL (Sigma Aldrich), were suspended in dimethyl sulfoxide

(DMSO) and stored at -20°C. For assays with exogenous addition of C8-HSL cultures were

grown in LB supplemented with 50 mM 3-(*N*-morpholino)propanesulfonic acid (MOPS) to

prevent pH-dependent lactonolysis (42). Stock solutions of L-arabinose (Alfa Aesar, Fisher

Scientific) and L-rhamnose (Sigma Aldrich) were prepared at a concentration of 20% (w/v) in

deionized water and filter sterilized. Stock solutions of phenylalanine and PAA (Sigma Aldrich)

were prepared at 100 mM in deionized water, filter sterilized and stored at room temperature.

Stock solutions of PAA-CoA (Sigma Aldrich) were prepared at 3.5 mM in DMSO and stored at -

80°C.

Molecular biology techniques

Genetic manipulation of *B. cenocepacia* K56-2 was performed via tri-parental matings

with *E. coli* MM290/pRK2013 as a helper strain. Plasmids generated were maintained in *E. coli*

SY327λpir or DH5α Z-competent cells depending on their origin of replication. PCRs were

performed with an Eppendorf Mastercycler ep gradient S thermocycler with either HotStar

HiFidelity *Taq* polymerase (Qiagen) or *Taq* DNA polymerase (Qiagen). Conditions were

optimized for each primer set; primers used are listed in Table 4. Restriction enzymes and T4

DNA ligase (New England Biolabs) were used as recommended by the manufacturer. PCR

products and digested DNA were purified by QIAquick Gel or PCR purification kits (Qiagen)

and plasmids were isolated using QIAprep Miniprep kit (Qiagen).

Construction of unmarked deletion mutants in B. cenocepacia

Unmarked deletion mutants were created using the system developed by Flannagan *et al*.

(48). Flanking regions of the target gene were synthesized as a custom gene fragment with *Xba*I

and *Sma*I restriction sites (Integrated DNA Technologies, Inc.), see Table S1 for sequences. The

fragment with regions flanking BCAL0404 (*paaK1*) and pGPI-*Sce*I were digested and ligated

together to create pTL17 and pTL18 was created by insertion of the fragment with regions

flanking BCAM1711 (*paaK2*). Each plasmid was introduced into wild type K56-2 by tri-parental

mating and were integrated into the genome by homologous recombination. Colonies were

picked onto LB medium supplemented with trimethoprim and onto *Burkholderia cepacia*

selective agar (BCSA) (54). Conjugates with a dull phenotype on BCSA were selected. The

integration of the suicide plasmids was confirmed with primers 900/901 for pTL17 and primers

902/903 for pTL18. Then, pDAI-*Sce*I, expressing I-*Sce*I endonuclease, was introduced into K56-

2::pTL17 and K56-2::pTL18 by tri-parental mating. The double-stranded break caused by the I-

*Sce*I endonuclease triggered a recombination event that resulted in a reversion of the conjugate to

a wild type allele or a deletion of the fragment between the two flanking regions. Potential

conjugates were tetracycline resistant and trimethoprim sensitive. The deletion event was

confirmed by PCR using primer set 980/981 for *paaK1* and 982/983 for *paaK2*. Positive clones

were cured of the pDAI-*Sce*I plasmid by sequential sub-culturing in LB medium. Loss of the

plasmid was confirmed by the loss of tetracycline resistance using the replica plate method and

PCR with primer set 920/921 for the absence of pDAI-*Sce*I.

Once cured, the mutants were tested for growth defects by washing overnight cultures

twice in PBS, diluting to an OD_{600} of 0.04 in 200 μl of LB in a clear 96-well plate in triplicate.

Plates were incubated at 37°C in a Biotek Synergy II plate reader with continuous shaking for 24

hours with OD_{600} measured every hour. Deletions of *cepI* and *cepR* were performed in the wild

type and PAA pathway mutant backgrounds using the pDelCepI and pDelCepR plasmids created

by Aubert *et al.* (53). Integration of the plasmids was confirmed using primer set 1082/154 for

cepI deletions and 1080/154 for *cepR*. pDAI-*Sce*I was introduced and potential conjugates were

selected on appropriate antibiotics and the deletion event was confirmed by PCR with primer sets

1112/1113 and 1080/1081 for *cepI* and *cepR*, respectively. Positive clones were cured of the

pDAI-*Sce*I and screened for the loss of the plasmid as described above.

Plasmid construction

To create pKF2, *paaK2* (BCAM1711) was amplified from genomic *B. cenocepacia* K56-

2 DNA using primers 1055/1056 and restricted with *Xba*I and *Nde*I before ligation into similarly

digested pSCrhaB2 (52). The plasmid construct was verified using primers 1055/848. To create

the *E. coli* reporter system, *cepR* (BCAM1868) was amplified using primers 703/704 and the

amplicon and pBAD30 were restricted with *Eco*RI and *Xba*I and then ligated to form pTL5. To

construct a plasmid expressing the *luxCDABE* operon, the *cepI* promoter region including the

first 15 codons of *cepI* was amplified and an in-frame stop codon was added using primers 712

and 713. Plasmid pBBRlux and the amplicon were digested with *Spe*I and *Bam*HI, and ligation

then resulted in pTL7. Plasmids pTL12 and pTL13 were created in the same way with primers

768/769 for the P_{BAD} promoter and regulatory *araC* and primers 770/771 for the *dhfr* promoter

region of pTnMod-STp. To create a plasmid that expressed PaaK and was compatible with the

reporter strain we had to use the pSC101 ori. pTL9 was created by digesting pTnMod-STp with

*Bgl*II to remove the Tn*5* transposase, then the rhamnose inducible promoter and its regulatory

genes were added to create pTL21 using primers 724 and 947. Using primers 725 and 726 the

paaK ligase from *E. coli* W was amplified from pAAD (45) and restriction cloned into pTL21 to

create pTL22.

Growth of B. cenocepacia *strains on various carbon sources*

One ml of culture from a five-ml overnight culture in LB with appropriate antibiotic was

washed in PBS twice and the OD_{600} was adjusted to 0.08 in 1 ml of M9 with 25 mM of Glucose

or M9 with 5 mM PAA. 100 µl was aliquoted to each well of a clear 96-well plate with 100 µl of

appropriate media for a starting OD_{600} of 0.04 in triplicate. Plates were incubated at 37°C with

aeration at 230 rpm and the OD_{600} was read after 48 hours of incubation. OD_{600} values were

converted to 1-cm-path-length by prior calibration with a GeneQuant^{TM} III 4283, version

4283V1.6.

Quantification of intracellular and extracellular levels of PAA and PAA-CoA by ion pair

reversed phase ultra-high performance liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (IP-

RP-UHPLC-MS/MS)

B. cenocepacia cultures were diluted 1:100 into 10 ml of LB broth in a 50 ml Erlenmeyer

flask and incubated at 37°C with agitation at 230 rpm for 6 hours until late exponential phase.

Using the differential method (24, 25), 1 ml of culture was immediately transferred into weighed

tubes containing 5 ml of 60% (v/v) methanol in water held at -40°C in an acetonitrile/dry-ice

bath, vortexed and returned to -40°C. Two ml of culture was drawn into a syringe, equipped with

a 0.45 μm filter, and 1 ml of filtrate was immediately transferred into 5 ml of 60% (v/v)

methanol in water held at -40°C in an acetonitrile/dry-ice bath, vortexed and returned to -40°C.

Tubes were weighed and 500 μl was transferred to a fresh tube and held at -40°C. 5 ml of 75%

(v/v) ethanol was boiled at 95°C for 4 minutes and then poured into the tube with 500 μl of

sample, mixed and placed at 95°C for 3 minutes. Extracted samples were then put back at -40°C

and evaporated in a speedvac (Savant SC110 with refrigerated condensation trap RT100) until

dry. Care was taken to ensure that the samples were not overdried. All measurements were

carried out using IP-RP-UHPLC-MS/MS as described previously (26) with slight modifications.

Briefly, no splitter or make up flow was used and the chromatographic separation was performed

on a narrower column (1x100 mm) with a lower eluant flow (0.075 ml/min).

For the *E. coli* W14 CepR reporter assay strains, cultures were diluted 1:100 in 5 ml of

LB supplemented with 50 mM MOPS and appropriate antibiotics and grown at 30°C, 230 rpm to

$OD_{600} \sim 0.3$. Cultures were provided 0.5 mM PAA and 0.01% rhamnose to induce the expression

of *paaK* to convert PAA to PAA-CoA. Cultures were incubated again until an OD_{600} of 0.6 and

diluted back to OD_{600} 0.3 before incubation for 1h30 minutes to simulate the conditions of the

reporter assay. Samples were immediately prepared using the differential method described

above.

Slow killing assays in Caenorhabditis elegans

Worms were propagated and maintained on nematode growth medium (NGM) agar (2.5

g peptone/l) seeded with a lawn of *E. coli* OP50 at 16°C. Slow killing assays were performed as

described previously (18). Briefly, 60-mm Petri plates filled with 10 ml of a modified NGM agar

(3.5 g peptone/l) were seeded with 50 μl of a stationary-phase culture adjusted to an OD_{600} of

1.7. Plates were incubated overnight at 37°C to allow formation of a bacterial lawn. 20 to 40

hypochlorite-synchronized *C. elegans* DH26 nematodes at L4 larval stage were inoculated onto

each plate and subsequently incubated at 25°C for the duration of the assay. Worms were scored

as live or dead for a period of 7 days.

Exoprotease assays

Cells from an overnight culture were washed with PBS twice and adjusted to an OD_{600} of

1.0. Three microliters of culture were spotted on 2% skim milk agar plates or 2% skim milk agar

supplemented with 2 mM phenylalanine. Plates were incubated at 37°C for 48 hours. Plates were

prepared in duplicate and three biological replicates were performed. Proteolytic activity was

measured as a zone of clearing surrounding the colony. Images were taken at 48 hours and the

area of the zone of clearance was analyzed using ImageJ software (55). A scale was applied to

the images and a threshold analysis was used to determine the zone of clearance. The area of this

zone was then calculated (minus the area of the colony).

CepI enzymatic assay

Heterologous expression and purification of *cepI* was performed according to the

conditions described previously (30). CepI enzyme activity was determined

spectrophotometrically by measuring *holo*-ACP formation with dichlorophenylindophenol

(DCPIP; = 19100 M-1 cm-1) using the assay described previously (30, 56). Reaction mixtures

contained 50 mM 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid (HEPES) pH 7.5, 0.005%

Nonidet P-40, 0.13 mM DCPIP, 70 µM C8-ACP, 4 µM CepI. After 10 minutes of pre-incubation

the reaction was initiated by addition of 40 µM S-adenosyl methionine. The compounds were

assayed in triplicate at a concentration of 200 µM.

Luminescence assays with CepR reporter strain

The reporter assay was performed based on the assay by McInnis and Blackwell (57)

with slight modifications. Briefly, overnight cultures were prepared from glycerol stocks in LB

with appropriate antibiotics and incubated overnight at 30°C with agitation at 230 rpm. The

culture was diluted 1:100 into 5 ml fresh LB medium supplemented with 50 mM MOPS and

appropriate antibiotics. This subculture was incubated at 30°C with shaking at 230 rpm until it

reached an optical density of 0.6. One hundred microliters of culture were plated into wells with

100 µl of appropriate media with C8-HSL, PAA and arabinose as needed, resulting in a starting

OD_{600} of 0.3. For the reporter strain with pTL22 (rha-inducible *paaK*) the culture was grown and

subcultured as described above. This subculture was incubated at 30°C with shaking at 230 rpm

until it reached an optical density of ~0.3. At this time 0.5 mM PAA and 0.01% rhamnose were

added to induce *paaK* expression resulting in the conversion of PAA to PAA-CoA. The cultures

were incubated at 30°C, 230 rpm until an OD_{600} of 0.6. One hundred microliters of culture were

plated into wells with 100 µl of appropriate media with C8-HSL, PAA, and arabinose and

rhamnose as needed, resulting in a starting OD_{600} of 0.3. Arabinose and rhamnose were used at

final concentrations of 0.2% (v/v) and 0.01% (v/v), respectively. C8-HSL was used at a final

concentration of 20 nM, which was the EC_{50} of C8-HSL for the conditions of this assay as

determined using a dose response curve (Supplemental Fig. S1). PAA was tested at several

concentrations (100 µM, 500 µM, 1 mM and 5 mM) and PAA was added at 500 µM in the

presence of 0.01% rhamnose to produce PAA-CoA. White 96-well microplates with clear

bottoms were used and the lids were treated with a TritonX-100/Ethanol solution. Plates were

incubated at 30°C with agitation in a Biotek Synergy 2 plate reader. OD_{600} and relative

luminescence were measured at 30 min intervals for 4 h. Inhibition was measured at the time

point with peak signal intensity (2 h for PAA and 3 h for PAA-CoA).

Reverse Transcription quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR)

Since quorum sensing is associated with cell density, the expression levels of quorum

sensing genes are often measured during stationary phase (58–60). To study the expression of

cepI and *cepR*, *B. cenocepacia* cells were harvested from stationary cultures (OD_{600} ~7). RNA

was purified and DNase treated using the Ribopure bacteria kit (Ambion) with the DNase

treatment extended to 2 h. RNA quality was confirmed by running on a 2% agarose gel. cDNA

was synthesized using iScript Reverse Transcriptase kit (Bio-Rad) and quantified using iQ

SYBR Green mastermix (Bio-Rad) performed on a CFX96 Touch Real-Time PCR Detection

System (Bio-Rad). Primer efficiency was calculated for each primer set and efficiencies between

95% and 105% were deemed acceptable. Data were analyzed using the comparative C_T method

(61, 62). Genes were normalized to the RNA polymerase sigma factor *rpoD* (BCAM0918,

formerly known as *sigE*) as a reference gene (primers 750 and 751) (7, 63, 64).

LC-MS/MS quantification of AHLs

For AHL extraction, five milliliters of *B. cenocepacia* strains were harvested at the same

time as the samples used for RT-qPCR (see above). Samples were extracted and analyzed as

described previously (65) and 5,6,7,8-Tetradeutero-4-hydroxy-2-heptylquinoline (HHQ-d4) was

used as an internal standard at a concentration of 0.2 ppm.

Acknowledgements

This study was supported by a discovery grant from the Natural Sciences and Engineering

Research Council of Canada (NSERC) awarded to S.T. Cardona. The authors would like to

acknowledge the preliminary work of Samuel J. Wolfram, Vincent Henega and Stacey Line. The

authors thank Dr. Miguel Valvano for generously sharing plasmids pDelCepR and pDelCepI.

pBBRlux was a gift from Dr. Aleksandra Sikora. TJL and STC were responsible for the

experimental design and writing the manuscript. TJL and KLF performed the experimental work.

CR detected PAA and PAA-CoA using IP-RP-UHPLC-MS/MS. SB and LRC performed the

CepI enzyme activity assay. MCG and ED performed the LC-MS/MS and data analysis for AHL

quantification. JLS provided knowledge and equipment for the initial detection of PAA by HPLC

and edited the manuscript.

References

1.   Bassler BL. 1999. How bacteria talk to each other: regulation of gene expression by

quorum sensing. Curr Opin Microbiol 2:582–587.

2.   Fuqua WC, Winans SC, Greenberg EP. 1994. Quorum sensing in bacteria: the LuxR-LuxI

family of cell density-responsive transcriptional regulators. J Bacteriol 176:269–275.

3.   Hanzelka BL, Greenberg EP. 1995. Evidence that the N-terminal region of the *Vibrio*

fischeri LuxR protein constitutes an autoinducer-binding domain. J Bacteriol 177:815–817.

4.   Winzer K, Williams P. 2001. Quorum sensing and the regulation of virulence gene

expression in pathogenic bacteria. Int J Med Microbiol IJMM 291:131–143.

5.   Mahenthiralingam E, Urban TA, Goldberg JB. 2005. The multifarious, multireplicon

Burkholderia cepacia complex. Nat Rev Microbiol 3:144–156.

6.   Darling P, Chan M, Cox AD, Sokol PA. 1998. Siderophore production by cystic fibrosis

isolates of *Burkholderia cepacia*. Infect Immun 66:874–877.

7.   O'Grady EP, Viteri DF, Malott RJ, Sokol PA. 2009. Reciprocal regulation by the CepIR

and CciIR quorum sensing systems in *Burkholderia cenocepacia*. BMC Genomics 10:441.

8.   Malott RJ, Baldwin A, Mahenthiralingam E, Sokol PA. 2005. Characterization of the cciIR

quorum-sensing system in *Burkholderia cenocepacia*. Infect Immun 73:4982–4992.

9.   Lewenza S, Sokol PA. 2001. Regulation of ornibactin biosynthesis and *N*-acyl-L-

homoserine lactone production by CepR in *Burkholderia cepacia*. J Bacteriol 183:2212–

2218.

10.   Lewenza S, Conway B, Greenberg EP, Sokol PA. 1999. Quorum sensing in *Burkholderia*

cepacia: identification of the LuxRI homologs CepRI. J Bacteriol 181:748–756.

11.   Malott RJ, O'Grady EP, Toller J, Inhülsen S, Eberl L, Sokol PA. 2009. A *Burkholderia*

cenocepacia orphan LuxR homolog is involved in quorum-sensing regulation. J Bacteriol

191:2447–2460.

12.   Brown SA, Palmer KL, Whiteley M. 2008. Revisiting the host as a growth medium. Nat

Rev Microbiol 6:657–666.

13.   Eisenreich W, Dandekar T, Heesemann J, Goebel W. 2010. Carbon metabolism of

intracellular bacterial pathogens and possible links to virulence. Nat Rev Microbiol 8:401–

412.

14.   Fuchs TM, Eisenreich W, Heesemann J, Goebel W. 2012. Metabolic adaptation of human

pathogenic and related nonpathogenic bacteria to extra- and intracellular habitats. FEMS

Microbiol Rev 36:435–462.

15.   de Lorenzo V. 2014. From the selfish gene to selfish metabolism: revisiting the central

dogma. BioEssays News Rev Mol Cell Dev Biol 36:226–235.

16.   Bhuiyan MS, Ellett F, Murray GL, Kostoulias X, Cerqueira GM, Schulze KE, Mahamad

Maifiah MH, Li J, Creek DJ, Lieschke GJ, Peleg AY. 2016. *Acinetobacter baumannii*

phenylacetic acid metabolism influences infection outcome through a direct effect on

neutrophil chemotaxis. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 113:9599–9604.

17.   Bartz FE, Glassbrook NJ, Danehower DA, Cubeta MA. 2012. Elucidating the role of the

phenylacetic acid metabolic complex in the pathogenic activity of *Rhizoctonia solani*

anastomosis group 3. Mycologia 104:793–803.

18.   Pribytkova T, Lightly TJ, Kumar B, Bernier SP, Sorensen JL, Surette MG, Cardona ST.

2014. The attenuated virulence of a *Burkholderia cenocepacia paaABCDE* mutant is due to

inhibition of quorum sensing by release of phenylacetic acid. Mol Microbiol 94:522–536.

19.   Teufel R, Mascaraque V, Ismail W, Voss M, Perera J, Eisenreich W, Haehnel W, Fuchs G.

2010. Bacterial phenylalanine and phenylacetate catabolic pathway revealed. Proc Natl

Acad Sci U S A 107:14390–14395.

20.   Teufel R, Friedrich T, Fuchs G. 2012. An oxygenase that forms and deoxygenates toxic

epoxide. Nature 483:359–362.

21.   Lightly TJ, Phung RR, Sorensen JL, Cardona ST. 2017. Synthetic cystic fibrosis sputum

medium diminishes *Burkholderia cenocepacia* antifungal activity against *Aspergillus*

fumigatus independently of phenylacetic acid production. Can J Microbiol 1–12.

22.   Law RJ, Hamlin JNR, Sivro A, McCorrister SJ, Cardama GA, Cardona ST. 2008. A

functional phenylacetic acid catabolic pathway is required for full pathogenicity of

Burkholderia cenocepacia in the *Caenorhabditis elegans* host model. J Bacteriol 190:7209–

7218.

23.   Imolorhe IA, Silvia TC. 2011. 3-Hydroxyphenylacetic Acid Induces The *Burkholderia*

cenocepacia Phenylacetic Acid Degradation Pathway. Towards Understanding The

Contribution Of Aromatic Catabolism To Pathogenesis. Front Cell Infect Microbiol 1.

24. Taymaz-Nikerel H, de Mey M, Ras C, ten Pierick A, Seifar RM, van Dam JC, Heijnen JJ,

van Gulik WM. 2009. Development and application of a differential method for reliable

metabolome analysis in *Escherichia coli*. Anal Biochem 386:9–19.

25. Van Gulik WM, Canelas AB, Taymaz-Nikerel H, Douma RD, de Jonge LP, Heijnen JJ.

2012. Fast sampling of the cellular metabolome. Methods Mol Biol Clifton NJ 881:279–

306.

26. Seifar RM, Ras C, Deshmukh AT, Bekers KM, Suarez-Mendez CA, da Cruz ALB, van

Gulik WM, Heijnen JJ. 2013. Quantitative analysis of intracellular coenzymes in

Saccharomyces cerevisiae using ion pair reversed phase ultra high performance liquid

chromatography tandem mass spectrometry. J Chromatogr A 1311:115–120.

27. Sokol PA, Sajjan U, Visser MB, Gingues S, Forstner J, Kooi C. 2003. The CepIR Quorum-

Sensing System Contributes to the Virulence of *Burkholderia cenocepacia* Respiratory

Infections. Microbiology 149:3649–3658.

28. Uehlinger S, Schwager S, Bernier SP, Riedel K, Nguyen DT, Sokol PA, Eberl L. 2009.

Identification of specific and universal virulence factors in *Burkholderia cenocepacia*

strains using multiple infection hosts. Infect Immun 9:4102–4110.

29. Defoirdt T, Brackman G, Coenye T. 2013. Quorum sensing inhibitors: how strong is the

evidence? Trends Microbiol 21:619–624.

30. Scoffone VC, Chiarelli LR, Makarov V, Brackman G, Israyilova A, Azzalin A, Forneris F,

Riabova O, Savina S, Coenye T, Riccardi G, Buroni S. 2016. Discovery of new

diketopiperazines inhibiting *Burkholderia cenocepacia* quorum sensing in vitro and in vivo.

Sci Rep 6:32487.

31. Musthafa KS, Sivamaruthi BS, Pandian SK, Ravi AV. 2012. Quorum sensing inhibition in

Pseudomonas aeruginosa PAO1 by antagonistic compound phenylacetic acid. Curr

Microbiol 65:475–480.

32. Wang J, Dong Y, Zhou T, Liu X, Deng Y, Wang C, Lee J, Zhang LH. 2013. *Pseudomonas*

aeruginosa cytotoxicity is attenuated at high cell density and associated with the

accumulation of phenylacetic acid. PloS One 8:e60187.

33. Niu C, Clemmer KM, Bonomo RA, Rather PN. 2008. Isolation and Characterization of an

Autoinducer Synthase from *Acinetobacter baumannii*. J Bacteriol 190:3386–3392.

34. Latifi A, Winson MK, Foglino M, Bycroft BW, Stewart GS, Lazdunski A, Williams P.

1995. Multiple homologues of LuxR and LuxI control expression of virulence determinants

and secondary metabolites through quorum sensing in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* PAO1.

Mol Microbiol 17:333–343.

35. Yudistira H, McClarty L, Bloodworth RA, Hammond SA, Butcher H, Mark BL, Cardona

ST. 2011. Phenylalanine induces *Burkholderia cenocepacia* phenylacetic acid catabolism

through degradation to phenylacetyl-CoA in synthetic cystic fibrosis sputum medium.

Microb Pathog 51:183–196.

36. Sobotková L, Grafková J, Kyslík P. 2002. Effect of phenylacetic acid on the growth and

production of penicillin G acylase of recombinant and host strains derived from *Escherichia*

coli W. Enzyme Microb Technol 31:992–999.

37.   Cui C, Yang C, Song S, Fu S, Sun X, Yang L, He F, Zhang L-H, Zhang Y, Deng Y. 2018.

A novel two-component system modulates quorum sensing and pathogenicity in

Burkholderia cenocepacia. Mol Microbiol 108:32–44.

38.   Cui C, Song S, Yang C, Sun X, Huang Y, Li K, Zhao S, Zhang Y, Deng Y. 2019.

Disruption of Quorum Sensing and Virulence in *Burkholderia cenocepacia* by a Structural

Analogue of the cis-2-Dodecenoic Acid Signal. Appl Environ Microbiol 85.

39.   Schmid N, Pessi G, Deng Y, Aguilar C, Carlier AL, Grunau A, Omasits U, Zhang L-H,

Ahrens CH, Eberl L. 2012. The AHL- and BDSF-Dependent Quorum Sensing Systems

Control Specific and Overlapping Sets of Genes in *Burkholderia cenocepacia* H111. PLOS

ONE 7:e49966.

40.   Deng Y, Lim A, Wang J, Zhou T, Chen S, Lee J, Dong YH, Zhang LH. 2013. Cis-2-

dodecenoic acid quorum sensing system modulates N-acyl homoserine lactone production

through RpfR and cyclic di-GMP turnover in *Burkholderia cenocepacia*. BMC Microbiol

13:148-2180-13–148.

41.   Lennox ES. 1955. Transduction of linked genetic characters of the host by bacteriophage

P1. Virology 1:190–206.

42.   Yates EA, Philipp B, Buckley C, Atkinson S, Chhabra SR, Sockett RE, Goldner M,

Dessaux Y, Cámara M, Smith H, Williams P. 2002. N-Acylhomoserine Lactones Undergo

Lactonolysis in a pH-, Temperature-, and Acyl Chain Length-Dependent Manner during

Growth of *Yersinia pseudotuberculosis* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Infect Immun

70:5635–5646.

43.   Mahenthiralingam E, Coenye T, Chung JW, Speert DP, Govan JR, Taylor P, Vandamme P.

688   2000. Diagnostically and experimentally useful panel of strains from the *Burkholderia*

689   *cepacia* complex. J Clin Microbiol 38:910–913.

690   44.   Miller VL, Mekalanos JJ. 1988. A novel suicide vector and its use in construction of

691   insertion mutations: osmoregulation of outer membrane proteins and virulence determinants

692   in *Vibrio cholerae* requires *toxR*. J Bacteriol 170:2575–2583.

693   45.   Ferrandez A, Prieto MA, Garcia JL, Diaz E. 1997. Molecular characterization of PadA, a

694   phenylacetaldehyde dehydrogenase from *Escherichia coli*. FEBS Lett 406:23–27.

695   46.   Ferrandez A, Minambres B, Garcia B, Olivera ER, Luengo JM, Garcia JL, Diaz E. 1998.

696   Catabolism of phenylacetic acid in *Escherichia coli*. Characterization of a new aerobic

697   hybrid pathway. J Biol Chem 273:25974–25986.

698   47.   Figurski DH, Helinski DR. 1979. Replication of an origin-containing derivative of plasmid

699   RK2 dependent on a plasmid function provided in trans. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A

700   76:1648–1652.

701   48.   Flannagan RS, Linn T, Valvano MA. 2008. A system for the construction of targeted

702   unmarked gene deletions in the genus *Burkholderia*. Environ Microbiol 10:1652–1660.

703   49.   Guzman LM, Belin D, Carson MJ, Beckwith J. 1995. Tight regulation, modulation, and

704   high-level expression by vectors containing the arabinose PBAD promoter. J Bacteriol

705   177:4121–30.

50.   Zielke RA, Simmons RS, Park BR, Nonogaki M, Emerson S, Sikora AE. 2014. The type II

secretion pathway in *Vibrio cholerae* is characterized by growth phase-dependent

expression of exoprotein genes and is positively regulated by sigmaE. Infect Immun

82:2788–2801.

51.   Dennis JJ, Zylstra GJ. 1998. Plasposons: modular self-cloning minitransposon derivatives

for rapid genetic analysis of gram-negative bacterial genomes. Appl Environ Microbiol

64:2710–2715.

52.   Cardona ST, Valvano MA. 2005. An expression vector containing a rhamnose-inducible

promoter provides tightly regulated gene expression in *Burkholderia cenocepacia*. Plasmid

54:219–228.

53.   Aubert DF, O'Grady EP, Hamad MA, Sokol PA, Valvano MA. 2013. The *Burkholderia*

cenocepacia sensor kinase hybrid AtsR is a global regulator modulating quorum-sensing

signalling. Environ Microbiol 15:372–385.

54.   Henry DA, Campbell ME, LiPuma JJ, Speert DP. 1997. Identification of *Burkholderia*

cepacia isolates from patients with cystic fibrosis and use of a simple new selective

medium. J Clin Microbiol 35:614–619.

55.   Schneider CA, Rasband WS, Eliceiri KW. 2012. NIH Image to ImageJ: 25 years of image

analysis. Nat Methods 9:671–675.

56.   Christensen QH, Grove TL, Booker SJ, Greenberg EP. 2013. A high-throughput screen for

quorum-sensing inhibitors that target acyl-homoserine lactone synthases. Proc Natl Acad

Sci U S A 110:13815–13820.

57. McInnis CE, Blackwell HE. 2011. Thiolactone modulators of quorum sensing revealed

through library design and screening. Bioorg Med Chem 19:4820–4828.

58. O'Grady EP, Viteri DF, Sokol PA. 2012. A unique regulator contributes to quorum sensing

and virulence in *Burkholderia cenocepacia*. PloS One 7:e37611.

59. Chapalain A, Vial L, Laprade N, Dekimpe V, Perreault J, Déziel E. 2013. Identification of

quorum sensing-controlled genes in *Burkholderia ambifaria*. MicrobiologyOpen 2:226–

242.

60. Uzelac G, Patel HK, Devescovi G, Licastro D, Venturi V. 2017. Quorum sensing and RsaM

regulons of the rice pathogen *Pseudomonas fuscovaginae*. Microbiol Read Engl.

61. Livak KJ, Schmittgen TD. 2001. Analysis of relative gene expression data using real-time

quantitative PCR and the 2(-Delta Delta C(T)) Method. Methods San Diego Calif 25:402–

408.

62. Schmittgen TD, Livak KJ. 2008. Analyzing real-time PCR data by the comparative C(T)

method. Nat Protoc 3:1101–1108.

63. Peeters E, Sass A, Mahenthiralingam E, Nelis H, Coenye T. 2010. Transcriptional response

of *Burkholderia cenocepacia* J2315 sessile cells to treatments with high doses of hydrogen

peroxide and sodium hypochlorite. BMC Genomics 11:90.

64. Wong Y-C, Abd El Ghany M, Ghazzali RNM, Yap S-J, Hoh C-C, Pain A, Nathan S. 2018.

Genetic Determinants Associated With *in vivo* Survival of *Burkholderia cenocepacia* in the

Caenorhabditis elegans Model. Front Microbiol 9:1118.

65.   Chapalain A, Groleau M-C, Le Guillouzer S, Miomandre A, Vial L, Milot S, Déziel E.

2017. Interplay between 4-Hydroxy-3-Methyl-2-Alkylquinoline and N-Acyl-Homoserine

Lactone Signaling in a *Burkholderia cepacia* Complex Clinical Strain. Front Microbiol

8:1021.

Table 1: CepI activity is not inhibited by the presence of PAA or PAA-CoA.

Conditions	Enzyme activity ± SD (min^{-1})
C8-ACP + SAM	3.46 ± 0.12
C8-ACP + SAM + 200 μM PAA	3.29 ± 0.21
C8-ACP + SAM + 200 μM PAA-CoA	3.04 ± 0.29

755 **Table 2. Bacterial strains used in this study.**

Strains	Features	Reference or source
Burkholderia cenocepacia		
K56-2 (LMG18863)	WT strain, ET12 clone related to a cystic fibrosis clinical isolate, J2315	(43)
ΔpaaABCDE	Deletion of *paaABCDE* operon in K56-2	(18)
ΔpaaK1	Deletion of *paaK* gene on chromosome 1 (BCAL0404) in K56-2	This study
ΔpaaK2	Deletion of *paaK* gene on chromosome 2 (BCAM1711) in K56-2	This study
ΔpaaK1Δpaak2	Deletion of *paaK* gene on chromosome 2 (BCAM1711) in K56-2*ΔpaaK1*	This study
ΔpaaK2Δpaak1	Deletion of *paaK* gene on chromosome 1 (BCAL0404) in K56-2*ΔpaaK2*	This study
ΔcepI	Deletion of BCAM1870 in K56-2	This study
ΔcepR	Deletion of BCAM1868 in K56-2	This study
ΔpaaABCDEΔcepI	Deletion of BCAM1870 in K56-2*ΔpaaABCDE*	This study
ΔpaaABCDEΔcepR	Deletion of BCAM1868 in K56-2*ΔpaaABCDE*	This study
ΔpaaK1ΔpaaK2ΔcepI	Deletion of BCAM1870 in K56-2*ΔpaaK1ΔpaaK2*	This study
ΔpaaK1ΔpaaK2ΔcepR	Deletion of BCAM1868 in K56-2*ΔpaaK1ΔpaaK2*	This study

ΔpaaK2ΔpaaK1ΔcepI	Deletion of BCAM1870 in K56-2*ΔpaaK2ΔpaaK1*	This study
ΔpaaK2ΔpaaK1ΔcepR	Deletion of BCAM1868 in K56-2*ΔpaaK2ΔpaaK1*	This study
Escherichia coli OP50	Uracil auxotroph	*Caenorhabditis* Genetic Center (University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, USA)
MM290		
SY327lpir	*araD Δ(lac pro) argE*(Am) *recA56 rifR nalA λpir*	(44)
W14	*E. coli* W with deletion encompassing PAA pathway genes.	(45, 46)

757 **Table 3. Plasmids used in this study.**

Plasmids	Features	Reference or source
pRK2013	ori_{colE1}, RK2 derivative, Kan^R, *mob$^+$*, *tra$^+$*	(47)
pGPI-*Sce*I	ori_{R6K}, I-*Sce*I recognition sequence, Tmp^R	(48)
pDAI-*Sce*I	DHFR promoter controlling e-I-*Sce*I, Tet^R	(48)
pBAD30	ori_{p15A} *araC* P_{BAD} Amp^R	(49)
pTL5	pBAD30 containing CepR (BCAM1868) with Shine Dalgarno region	This study
pBBR*lux*	*luxCDABE*-based promoter plasmid	(50)
pTL7	pBBR*lux* containing *cepI* promoter region (upstream of BCAM1870)	This study
pTL12	pBBR*lux* containing *araC* and P_{BAD} promoter	This study
pTL13	pBBR*lux* containing *dhfr* promoter region	This study

pTL17	pGPI-SceI containing custom gene fragment for the deletion of *paaK1* (BCAL0404) in K56-2	This study
pTL18		This study
	pGPI-SceI containing custom gene fragment for the deletion of *paaK2* (BCAM1711) in K56-2	
pTnMod-STp		(51)
	ori$_{pSC101}$ Tn5 inverted repeats Tn5 transposase Tmp^R	
pTL9		This study
	BglII restriction digest of pTnMod-STp to remove Tn5 transposase	
pTL21		This study
	ori$_{pSC101}$ rhaR rhaS P$_{rhaB}$ Tmp^R	
pTL22		This study
	pTL21 expressing rhamnose-inducible paaK (ECW_m1532)	
pAAD		(46)
	15.4 Kb region contains paa cluster from E. coli W	
pSCrhaB2		(52)
	ori$_{pBBR1}$ rhaR rhaS P$_{rhaB}$ Tmp^R mob$^+$	
pKF2		This study
	pSCrhaB2 expressing rhamnose-inducible *paaK2* (BCAM1711)	
pCP300		(53)
	cepI::luxCDABE transcriptional promoter fusion in pMS402	
pPromcepR		(53)
	cepR::luxCDABE transcriptional promoter fusion in pMS402	
pMS402		(53)
	luxCDABE-based promoter reporter plasmid, Kan^R Tp^R	
pDelCepR		(53)
	pGPI-*Sce*I containing the upstream and downstream regions of *cepR* for marker-less deletion in K56-2	
pDelCepI		(53)
	pGPI-*Sce*I containing the upstream and downstream regions of *cepR* for marker-less deletion	

758   Amp^R, Ampicillin resistance; Kan^R, Kanamycin resistance; Tmp^R, Trimethoprim resistance;

759   Tet^R, Tetracycline resistance.

761   **Table 4. Primers used in this study.** Restriction sites are underlined and start or stop codons are
762   in bold.

Primer #	Sequence (5'-3')	Restriction site	Template and location
900	TGCAACTCGTACAACCT	n/a	K56-2 upstream of BCAL0404
901	CCTGTGATTTAGGTTCGC	n/a	K56-2 downstream of BCAL0404
902	AAGGGCGTGAACTATCC	n/a	K56-2 upstream of BCAM1711
903	TAGAACGGCACACCTC	n/a	K56-2 downstream of BCAM1711
980	GTTGACATGACGAACGCCAC	n/a	K56-2 upstream of BCAL0404
981	GACATGCCGACCAAGGAAGA	n/a	K56-2 downstream of BCAL0404
982	CCGTTCGAGTTGATGGACCT	n/a	K56-2 upstream of BCAM1711
983	CGCATCGAAAAAGCGCTTGA	n/a	K56-2 downstream of BCAM1711
1055	GTGACT<u>CAT**ATG**</u>ACTCACCCGACGCATC	*Nde*I	K56-2 BCAM1711
1056	TTGACT<u>TCTAGA</u>CTTCAATTCACCCATCGAACAG	*Xba*I	K56-2 downstream of BCAM1711
848	CCGCCAGGCAAATTCTGTTT	n/a	pSCrhaB2 downstream of the MCS
920	GCTTTCTGATAGTTGTTGTGG	n/a	pDAI-*Sce*I
921	AGGTTGTTCGGGATGG	n/a	pDAI-*Sce*I

154	ACAGGAACACTTAACGGCTGACATG	n/a	External to the MCS on pGPI-*Sce*I
1080	GACAAGGGTTCGATCCAG	n/a	pDelCepR
1081	GATGGCCATCACGTTGCT	n/a	pDelCepR
1082	CATGACTTCACCCTTGC	n/a	pDelCepI
1083	CTTCGATGAACTGCGC	n/a	pDelCepI
1112	GTTGGTAGGCATCCTGC	n/a	K56-2 upstream of BCAM1870
1113	GTCGGTCAATGCGTGTC	n/a	K56-2 downstream of BCAM1870
703	ATTAGA<u>GAATTC</u>GGAGAAAGAATGGAACTGCGC	*Eco*RI	K56-2 BCAM1868
704	TCTAAT<u>TCTAGA</u>TCAGGGTGCTTCGATGAGC	*Xba*I	K56-2 BCAM1868
712	TCTAAT<u>ACTAGT</u>TGGCGCTCTTTATAAGC	*Spe*I	K56-2 BCAM1870 promoter region
713	TTGATC<u>GGATCC</u>**TCA**GAGTTCGTGTGGCAACC	*Bam*HI	K56-2 BCAM1870 promoter region
768	AAGTAT<u>GAGCTC</u>CAAGCCGTCAATTGTC	*Sac*I	pBAD30 P_{BAD} region
769	TAAGAT<u>ACTAGT</u>AACAGTAGAGAGTTGCG	*Spe*I	pBAD30 P_{BAD} region
770	AAGTAT<u>GAGCTC</u>GACATAAGCCTGTTCGG	*Sac*I	pTnMod-STp P_{DHFR} region
771	TAAGAT<u>ACTAGT</u>TCAGTTGGCTTCATCGCTAC	*Spe*I	pTnMod-STp P_{DHFR} region
750	TACGCCGAAATCAACGACCA	n/a	qPCR primer for BCAM0918 (*rpoD*)
751	ACTTCGGCTTCCTCTTCGAC	n/a	qPCR primer for

			BCAM0918 (*rpoD*)
1033	AAGTTTCGAGCGTGACCAGTTC	n/a	qPCR primer for BCAM1870 (*cepI*)
1034	AACAGCGACTTCAGCAGATACG	n/a	qPCR primer for BCAM1870 (*cepI*)
1035	CGGATTCGAATACTGCTGTTACGG	n/a	qPCR primer for BCAM1868 (*cepR*)
1036	CTCGATGTAGTTCTGCGCCTG	n/a	qPCR primer for BCAM1868 (*cepR*)

Figure Legends

Fig. 1: The proposed phenylacetic acid degradation (PAA) pathway in *B. cenocepacia.*

Based on the pathway described in *E. coli* and *Pseudomonas* by Teufel *et al.* (2010),

phenylalanine (Phe) is degraded to PAA and the first step of the pathway is the conversion of

PAA to phenylacetyl-CoA (PAA-CoA) by the phenylacetyl-CoA ligase, **PaaK** (shown in

purple). The phenylacetyl-CoA thioesterase, **PaaI,** can reversibly convert PAA-CoA back to

PAA to prevent toxic accumulation of the epoxide if the downstream pathway is blocked. PAA-

CoA is epoxidized by the ring 1,2 phenylacetyl-CoA epoxidase, **PaaABCDE** (shown in orange),

forming ring-1,2-epoxyphenylacetyl-CoA or epoxide (EP-CoA). The epoxide is further degraded

to components of the TCA cycle, acetyl-CoA and succinyl-CoA.

Fig. 2: Characterization of the growth and metabolite production of *B. cenocepacia*

PAA pathway mutants. A) Growth curves of *B. cenocepacia* K56-2 PAA pathway mutants on

LB media. **B)** Endpoint growth of *B. cenocepacia* K56-2 PAA pathway mutants. Strains were

cultured on M9 with 25 mM Glucose or with 5 mM PAA as the sole carbon sources for 48 hours

and the OD_{600} was measured. Error bars represent SD for three biological replicates. a represents

no significant difference, b represents p values ≤ 0.05 as determined by student's T-test (two

tailed) when compared to growth on PAA of K56-2. **C-F)** Cultures were grown to late

exponential phase and equal volumes of whole-cell cultures and filtered supernatants were

frozen, extracted with 75% (v/v) ethanol and analyzed with ion pair reversed phase ultra-high

performance liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (IP-RP-UHPLC-MS/MS).

Extracellular and intracellular levels of PAA (**C-D**) and PAA-CoA (**E-F**). A horizontal line

represents the mean and an asterix denotes $p \leq 0.05$ as determined by student's T-test (two

tailed) when compared to K56-2 (**C**) or Δ*paaABCDE* (**F**). The limits of detection for PAA (1μM)

and PAA-CoA (0.3 μM) are indicted by red lines. Two biological replicates with three technical

replicates each were performed.

Fig. 3: The Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2* mutant is more virulent than wild type in *C. elegans* and has

higher proteolytic activity. A) Slow killing assays with *C. elegans* over a period of seven days

show that the Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2* mutant kills *C. elegans* in a similar time frame as wild type,

whereas the nematodes exposed to the Δ*paaABCDE* mutant have increased survival (n = ~70-

100 nematodes per strain). The increased killing ability of the Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2* mutant compared

to wild type was determined as significant according to the log-rank test ($p < 0.001$). Three

biological replicates were performed. **B)** Proteolytic activity was measured as the area of the

zone of clearance (excluding colonies) on agar containing 2% skim milk with or without the

addition of 2 mM of phenylalanine. The error bars represent the SD of three independent

experiments. An asterix '*' denotes significant difference from wild type ($p < 0.05$) and '**'

denotes significant difference from wild type ($p < 0.01$).

Fig. 4: Neither PAA nor PAA-CoA affect the formation of CepR:C8-HSL complexes. A)

The CepR reporter strain and control strains used. Regulatory genes *araC* (for P_{BAD}) and *rhaSR*

(for P_{rhaBAD}) were excluded from the figure for simplicity. **B)** In the presence of 0.01% rhamnose

(rha), 0.5 mM of PAA was converted to PAA-CoA by the PaaK ligase in the CepR reporter

strain. For the reporter system 0.2% arabinose was used to induce the expression of *cepR* and the

calculated EC_{50} of C8-HSL (20 nm) was used to activate the system. **C)** To test the effect of

PAA-CoA, 0.5 mM PAA and 0.01% rhamnose were added and the % activity (activity in the

presence of rhamnose compared to in the absence of rhamnose) was determined at 3 hours. PAA-

CoA had no effect on the CepR reporter strain compared to that of the effect on control strains.

D) PAA itself was tested at various concentrations from 0.1-1 mM (0.1 mM shown here) and

percent activity was calculated for the presence of PAA compared to the absence of PAA at 2

hours. No effect was observed when compared to the control strains. The error bars represent the

SD of three independent experiments.

Fig. 5: Transcription of *cepI* and *cepR* and C8-HSL production is not decreased in any of

the PAA pathway mutants. A) RT-qPCR shows that *cepI* and *cepR* gene expression is not

decreased compared to wild type in the PAA pathway mutants. **B)** C8-HSL levels were not

decreased in any of the mutants, but C8-HSL levels were higher in the Δ*paaABCDE* mutant.

Virulence of strains in both *C. elegans* assays and exoprotease activity assays is denoted above

the graphs per the results from Fig. 3.

Fig. 6: The virulence of Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2*Δ*cepR* is independent of the CepIR QS system. A)

The *cepI* and *cepR* mutations in a Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2* mutant have opposing levels of virulence.

Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2*Δ*cepR* is as virulent as wild type whereas Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2*Δ*cepI* is attenuated for

virulence in *C. elegans*. **B)** *cepI* and *cepR* mutants have similar levels of attenuation in *C.*

elegans. Figures **A)** and **B)** are representative of three biological replicates (n = ~70 - 110

nematodes per strain). **C)** The Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2*Δ*cepR* mutant has wild type levels of proteolytic

activity with or without phenylalanine whereas the Δ*cepR* mutant has decreased proteolytic

activity. Proteolytic activity was measured as the area of the zone of clearance (excluding

colonies) on agar containing 2% skim milk with or without the addition of 2 mM of

phenylalanine. **D)** *cepR* transcription is restored to wild type levels in Δ*paaABCDE*Δ*cepI* and

Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2*Δ*cepI* indicating that PAA restores *cepR* transcription. **E)** *cepI* is downregulated

in all of the Δ*cepR* mutants. **F)** C8-HSL levels were measured and none of the QS mutants had

detectable levels of C8-HSL. The error bars represent the SD of three independent experiments.

Supplemental Material Figure Legends

(see Supplemental Material document for Tables and Figures)

Table S1. Gene fragment sequences flanking the regions of target genes.

Fig. S1: 0.02 μM (20 nM) is the effective concentration (EC$_{50}$) of C8-HSL with the CepR

reporter system. The CepR reporter system was tested with varying concentrations of *N*-

octanoyl homoserine lactone (C8-HSL) to determine the concentration required for half maximal

signal. The signal was measured over 4 hours and the time point where the signal was highest (2

hours) was used. Data was graphed and the EC$_{50}$ was calculated using GraphPad Prism. Error

bars are standard deviations of two replicates. For the conditions of this reporter system the EC$_{50}$

of C8-HSL is 20 nM.

Fig. S2: Growth of *paaK* ligase mutants on M9 with 5 mM PAA was restored by pKF2, a

rhamnose-inducible *paaK* ligase expression vector. *B. cenocepacia* strains were grown on M9

with 25 mM of glucose or 5 mM of PAA as a sole carbon source. There was no difference of

growth of *B. cenocepacia* K56-2 containing the empty vector (pSCrhaB2) in the presence of

0.01% (v/v) rhamnose on glucose or PAA as a sole carbon source. When the *paaK* ligase

expression vector (pKF2) was induced with rhamnose in the K56-2*ΔpaaK1ΔpaaK2* and the K56-

2*ΔpaaK2ΔpaaK1* strains growth was restored on PAA. This was not the case for the empty

vector controls, indicating that the PAA pathway interruption in this mutant can be

complemented with the introduction of BCAM1711 (*paaK2*) in trans. Error bars represent

standard deviations of three biological replicates.

Fig. S3: *C. elegans* **slow killing assays show that the** *paaK* **single deletion mutants have wild**

type levels of virulence but the double *paaK* **knockout mutants have increased virulence**

compared to wild type. A) *ΔpaaK2ΔpaaK1* had slightly increased virulence compared to wild

type as determined by the log-rank test ($p < 0.001$). **B)** The *ΔpaaK1* and *ΔpaaK2* single deletion

mutants have wild type levels virulence in a *C. elegans* model of infection. This figure is

representative of at least three independent experiments. **C)** Proteolytic activity was measured as

the area of the zone of clearance (excluding colonies) on agar containing 2% skim milk with or

without the addition of 2 mM of phenylalanine. The error bars represent the SD of three

independent experiments. An asterix '*' denotes significant difference from wild type ($p < 0.05$)

and '**' denotes significant difference from wild type ($p < 0.01$).

Fig. S4: The concentration of extracellular PAA does not correlate with the virulence of

PAA pathway mutants. Correlation between the extracellular concentration of PAA (μM) and

the A) median survival of *C. elegans* ($p = 0.148$) in slow killing assays or B) proteolytic activity

on 2% skim milk agar supplemented with 2 mM phenylalanine ($p = 0.114$).

Fig. S5: Transcription of *cepI* and *cepR* and C8-HSL production is not decreased in any of

the PAA pathway mutants. A) RT-qPCR shows that *cepI* and *cepR* gene expression is not

decreased compared to wild type in the PAA pathway mutants. Error bars are standard deviations

of three biological replicates. **B)** C8-HSL levels were not decreased in any of the mutants, but

C8-HSL levels were higher in the Δ*paaABCDE* and Δ*paaK2*Δ*paaK1* mutants. The bar is the

mean of three biological replicates. Virulence is for *C. elegans* slow killing assays and

exoprotease assays as seen in Fig. 3.

Fig. S6: Mutations of *cepI* and *cepR* in the PAA pathway mutant backgrounds result in no

visible growth defects. Mutants were grown in LB from a starting OD_{600} of 0.04 over 24 hours

and showed no significant growth defects compared to wild type. Error bars are standard

deviation of three biological replicates.

Fig. S7: The virulence of Δ*paaK2*Δ*paaK1*Δ*cepR* is independent of the CepIR QS system. A)

cepI and *cepR* deletions in wild type and Δ*paaABCDE* mutant backgrounds led to attenuation of

virulence in *C. elegans*. The Δ*paaABCDE* mutant is attenuated compared to wild type but is less

attenuated than *cepI* and *cepR* mutants. **B)** As seen with the Δ*paaK1*Δ*paaK2*Δ*cepR* mutant, the

*paaK2*Δ*paaK1*Δ*cepR* mutant displays CepR-independent virulence in *C. elegans*. A *cepI* deletion

in the Δ*paaK2*Δ*paaK1* mutant resulted in similar attenuation to that of the *cepI* and *cepR*

deletions in wild type backgrounds. **C)** The Δ*paaK2*Δ*paaK1*Δ*cepR* mutant has wild type levels

of exoprotease activity with or without phenylalanine whereas the Δ*cepR* mutant has decreased

exoprotease activity. Exoprotease activity was measured as the area of the zone of clearance

(excluding colonies) on agar containing 2% skim milk with or without the addition of 2 mM of

phenylalanine. **D)** *cepR* transcription is restored to wild type levels in Δ*paaABCDE*Δ*cepI* and

Δ*paaK2*Δ*paaK1*Δ*cepI* indicating that PAA increases *cepR* transcription. **E)** *cepI* is

downregulated in all of the Δ*cepR* mutants. **F)** C8-HSL levels were measured and none of the QS

mutants had detectable levels of C8-HSL. Experiments were performed in triplicate. The error

bars represent the SD of three independent experiments.

L-Phe   PAA   PAA-CoA   EP-CoA

Ligation   PaaK / PaaI

Epoxidation   PaaABCDE

TCA Cycle