

## Regulation of $\sigma$ factors by conserved partner switches controlled by divergent signalling systems

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1	Regulation of $\sigma$ factors by conserved partner switches controlled by divergent signaling
2	systems
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9	Running title: Many sensing roads lead to partner switches.
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15	chemosensory systems, phylogeny.
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17	Abstract
18	Partner-Switching Systems (PSS) are widespread regulatory systems, each comprising a kinase-
19	anti- $\sigma$ , a phosphorylatable anti- $\sigma$ antagonist and a phosphatase modules. The anti- $\sigma$ domain
20	quickly sequesters or delivers the target $\sigma$ factor according to the phosphorylation state of the
21	anti- $\sigma$ antagonist induced by environmental signals. The PSS components are proteins alone or
22	merged to other domains probably to adapt to the input signals. PSS are involved in major
23	cellular processes including stress response, sporulation, biofilm formation and pathogenesis.
24	Surprisingly, the target $\sigma$ factors are often unknown and the sensing modules acting upstream
25	from the PSS diverge according to the bacterial species. Indeed, they belong to either two-
26	component systems or complex pathways as the stressosome or Chemosensory Systems (CS).

27 Based on a phylogenetic analysis, we propose that the sensing module in Gram-negative bacteria

is often a CS.

#### 29 Introduction

Bacteria have to face constantly many environmental changes in their ecological niches. Their 30 ability to rewire rapidly the expression of genes involved in the response to these alterations is 31 32 crucial for their survival and is mediated by the use of different alternative  $\sigma$  factors. The  $\sigma$ factors target the core RNA polymerase to the promoter of genes required to adapt to new cell 33 34 surroundings. All bacteria possess a primary housekeeping  $\sigma$  factor ( $\sigma^{70}$ ) that insures the 35 transcription of the majority of genes, but most bacteria own additional  $\sigma$  factors that coordinate 36 the transcription of many genes involved in response and adaptation of bacteria to changing environmental or cellular conditions. The number of these alternative  $\sigma$  factors varies 37 38 depending on the lifestyle of the bacteria (Österberg *et al.*, 2011).

39 Except for *Escherichia coli*  $\sigma^{54}$  and homologs, all  $\sigma$  factors belong to the  $\sigma^{70}$  family, divided itself 40 into four subfamilies based on phylogenetic and structural properties (Paget and Helmann, 41 2003; Helmann, 2011). The group 1 of  $\sigma^{70}$  family is composed of the whole housekeeping  $\sigma$ factors,  $\sigma^{70}$  also called  $\sigma^{A}$  in Gram-positive bacteria. The group 2 gathers  $\sigma$  factors that resemble 42 to that of group 1 except that they are not essential in laboratory conditions, as  $\sigma^s$  factor 43 involved in the General Stress Response (GSR) of proteobacteria (Helmann, 2011; Battesti et al., 44 45 2011). The group 3 contains more diverse  $\sigma$  factors, which have roles in various cellular processes as  $\sigma^{32}$  that regulates genes involved in response to heat shock,  $\sigma^{28}$  in flagella synthesis 46 47 and also  $\sigma^{E}$ ,  $\sigma^{F}$ ,  $\sigma^{G}$ ,  $\sigma^{K}$ , of *Bacillus subtilis* that control different stages of sporulation. The group 4 contains very diverse  $\sigma$  factors called  $\sigma^{ECF}$  (for ExtraCytoplasmic Function) that have been 48 classified into at least 56 subgroups (Staroń et al., 2009; Huang et al., 2015; Sineva et al., 2017). 49

Sigma factors play crucial roles to conduct the cellular processes and in turn they have to be tightly regulated. In many cases, sigma factors are controlled at several levels, from transcription to post-translation. At the protein level, we can distinguish three main modes of regulation, the proteolysis of the sigma factor as for  $\sigma^{s}$  in *E. coli* (Becker *et al.*, 1999; Hengge, 2009, 2011;

Battesti *et al.*, 2011); the cleavage of the  $\sigma$  factor from an inactive to an active form, including 54 pro- $\sigma^{E}$  and pro- $\sigma^{K}$  in *B. subtilis* (Hilbert and Piggot, 2004; Higgins and Dworkin, 2012; Fimlaid 55 56 and Shen, 2015) and the inactivation of the sigma factor activity by an anti- $\sigma$  factor (Hughes and Mathee, 1998; Helmann, 1999; Österberg et al., 2011; Feklístov et al., 2014; Paget, 2015). The 57 anti- $\sigma$  factors sequester their target  $\sigma$  factor, disabling it to interact with the core RNAP and thus 58 59 to transcribe genes of its regulon (Campbell et al., 2002; Sorenson et al., 2004; Feklístov et al., 60 2014). In doing so, anti- $\sigma$  factors could protect their  $\sigma$  factor partner from proteolysis (Barembruch and Hengge, 2007; Mao *et al.*, 2013, 2014; Bouillet *et al.*, 2017). Thus, anti-σ factors 61 62 enable the cell to maintain a pool of  $\sigma$  factor molecules that can be rapidly released to act without *de novo* synthesis when suddenly required. Most of the  $\sigma^{ECF}$  are regulated by anti- $\sigma$ 63 factors and are usually co-transcribed into the same transcriptional unit to keep a 1:1 64 65 stoichiometry of the two proteins (Brooks and Buchanan, 2008; Campagne et al., 2015). The release of the  $\sigma$  factor is also precisely driven to ensure the transcription of its regulon in 66 response to specific signals. Different strategies are thus employed including cell-surface 67 68 signaling (regulation of  $\sigma^{24}$  also called  $\sigma^{E}$  in *E. coli*) (Brooks and Buchanan, 2008; Ho and Ellermeier, 2012), the secretion of the anti-σ factors (FliA/FlgM in *E. coli*) (Hughes *et al.*, 1993; 69 Kutsukake, 1994; Smith and Hoover, 2009), the direct sensing of redox state by cysteine 70 residues of the anti- $\sigma$  factors (RsrA/ $\sigma^{R}$  in *Streptomyces coelicolor*) (Ilbert *et al.*, 2006; Jung *et al.*, 71 72 2011) as well as the involvement of an additional protein called anti- $\sigma$  factor antagonist in a 73 mechanism known as the partner-switching system (PSS).

#### 74 Partner-switching systems

The term "partner-switch" has been defined by Alper and colleagues in 1994 to describe the mechanism that regulates  $\sigma^{F}$ , crucial in the sporulation process of *B. subtilis* (Alper *et al.*, 1994).

The nature of the PSS components as well as their function is a common feature among typical PSS. Indeed, PSS are made up with an anti- $\sigma$  factor having a serine kinase activity (HATPase domain), a phosphorylatable STAS anti- $\sigma$  antagonist, a PP2C serine phosphatase and a target  $\sigma$ factor (Alper *et al.*, 1994; Mittenhuber, 2002). Anti- $\sigma$  factors are constituted of a dimerization interface and of a HATPase domain. The latter harbors conserved motifs for phosphorylation
and is found in many kinase families (Dutta and Inouye, 2000). STAS stands for Sulfate
Transporter and Anti-Sigma antagonist and proteins containing this domain play a role in either
of these two processes and are phosphorylatable on a specific serine residue (Sharma *et al.*,
2011). The PP2C domain characterizes a family of serine/threonine phosphatases that need
metallic ion for their activity (Shi, 2009; Pereira *et al.*, 2011; Bradshaw *et al.*, 2017).

In a partner-switching mechanism, the anti- $\sigma$  factor binds to its target  $\sigma$  factor disabling it to 87 88 recruit the core RNAP. The release of the  $\sigma$  factor is mediated by the anti- $\sigma$  factor antagonist, also called anti-anti- $\sigma$  factor. Indeed, when no specific signal is transduced to the regulatory 89 system, the anti- $\sigma$  factor binds to the  $\sigma$  factor and phosphorylates its partner the anti- $\sigma$  factor 90 antagonist. When the specific signal arises, the PP2C-type phosphatase is activated and 91 92 dephosphorylates the anti- $\sigma$  factor antagonist that becomes thus efficient to interact with the anti- $\sigma$ , leading to the release of the  $\sigma$  factor by a competition effect. Anti- $\sigma$  factors have usually a 93 94 better affinity for the unphosphorylated form of the anti-anti- $\sigma$  factor than for the  $\sigma$  protein 95 allowing the binding of the  $\sigma$  factor only when the anti- $\sigma$  factor antagonist is phosphorylated but not when it is dephosphorylated (Duncan *et al.*, 1996; Masuda *et al.*, 2004; Bouillet *et al.*, 2016). 96

97 A 3D-structure of the anti- $\sigma$  factor SpoIIAB bound to its partners showed that two monomers of 98 anti- $\sigma$  factors interact with only one monomer of  $\sigma^{F}$  factor but with two monomers of anti- $\sigma$ 99 factor antagonist SpoIIAA (Campbell *et al.*, 2002; Masuda *et al.*, 2004). This mode of binding is 100 probably similar for other PSS. Moreover, anti- $\sigma$  proteins contain a dimerization interface 101 suggesting their ability to dimerize. However, additional biochemical characterization of the 102 interactions of the PSS partners is needed to confirm their mode of action.

Numerous PSS have been discovered in many bacteria including Gram-negative bacteria
whereas they were initially thought to be restricted to Gram-positive bacteria (Shi *et al.*, 1999;
Mittenhuber, 2002; Kozak *et al.*, 2005; Morris and Visick, 2010; Houot *et al.*, 2012; Morris and
Visick, 2013b; Eshghi *et al.*, 2014; Mercer and Lang, 2014; Lambert *et al.*, 2015; Thompson *et al.*,
2015; Bouillet *et al.*, 2016; Gebhardt and Shuman, 2017). Although PSS comprises four

108 components (an anti- $\sigma$  factor, an anti- $\sigma$  factor antagonist, a phosphatase and a  $\sigma$  factor), the 109 domain organization of the partners is highly diversified as depicted in Figure 1. While the anti- $\sigma$ 110 antagonist usually remains as a one-domain protein, the anti- $\sigma$  factor can be a domain of a complex protein. Indeed, it can be associated with other domains including receiver domain of 111 112 typical response regulator, PP2C-type phosphatase domain or unknown function domain. 113 Interestingly, the phosphatase is usually associated with a signaling domain such as receiver, 114 HAMP or detection domains. These data show that PSS have evolved probably according to the 115 detected stresses and to the target  $\sigma$  factor.

In conclusion, although the core domain composition is conserved, the domain organization
frequently varies and, consequently, PSS often comprise additional domains (Figure 1)
(Mittenhuber, 2002; Galperin, 2006).

119 Nevertheless, the presence of PSS encoded within bacterial genomes remains yet poorly studied. 120 Phylogenetic analyses of PSS are thus needed to evaluate how widespread are these systems in 121 particular in Gram-negative bacteria. In fact, the presence of HATPase and STAS domains in 122 other proteins and complex domain organizations make difficult the characterization of anti- $\sigma$ 123 and anti-anti- $\sigma$  factors in bacteria by using basic bioinformatics.

However, anti- $\sigma$  factor antagonist and phosphatase homologs have been found in Gram-positive 124 bacteria, as well as cyanobacteria, Deinococcus species and proteobacteria including 125 126 Pseudomonas, Vibrio and Shewanella species (Mittenhuber, 2002). For example, B. subtilis and B. *cereus* possess 16  $\sigma$  factors and two known PSS targeting  $\sigma^{F}$  and  $\sigma^{B}$ , *M. tuberculosis* harbors 13  $\sigma$ 127 factors, one of which is subjected to two PSS ( $\sigma^F$  is submitted to UsfX/RsfAB and to Rv1364c 128 regulation). In S. oneidensis, 10  $\sigma$  factors are present with a known and a putative PSS. 129 Surprisingly, some species including *E. coli* do not seem to possess PSS. In contrast, the Gram-130 131 positive bacterium *S. coelicolor* is one of the organisms that contain the highest number of  $\sigma$ factors (60 to 65) and its chromosome has been predicted to encode many PSS partners with 45 132 anti-o factors, 18 anti-anti-o factors and 44 PP2C proteins (Bentley et al., 2002; Mittenhuber, 133 2002; Martínez et al., 2009). Among them, few have been identified but their study appears 134

135 complicated because of cross-talks between several PSS, and anti- $\sigma$  factor antagonists could 136 have more than one associated anti- $\sigma$  factor. If we consider that each anti- $\sigma$  factor antagonist is 137 the output protein from distinct sensory modules, this suggests that the release and thus the 138 activation of the targeted  $\sigma$  factor might be induced by many transducing pathways in response 139 to various signals.

#### 140 Role of the Partner-switching systems

141 The role of PSS is to control the availability of specific  $\sigma$  factors. However, various PSS have been 142 discovered in many bacteria but the targeted  $\sigma$  factor has not been found in some cases (Figure 143 1).

144 PSS signal transduction pathways seem to be implicated in various major cellular processes 145 including the control of type III secretion system synthesis, virulence, chemotaxis, biofilm 146 formation, exoprotein production, stress responses and also metabolism (Shi et al., 1999; Mattoo 147 et al., 2004; Kozak et al., 2005; Bordi et al., 2010; Bhuwan et al., 2012; Houot et al., 2012; Morris 148 and Visick, 2013b, 2013a; Eshghi et al., 2014; Mercer and Lang, 2014; Lambert et al., 2015; 149 Bouillet et al., 2016; Gebhardt and Shuman, 2017). For instance, the spore formation of B. subtilis 150 is a complex multi-step mechanism under the control of many regulators (Higgins and Dworkin, 2012; Fimlaid and Shen, 2015). Notably, four main  $\sigma$  factors act successively during the 151 sporulation process. Each of them is thus tightly regulated but has to be also quickly freed to 152 153 make sure that all genes are correctly expressed in time.  $\sigma^{F}$  is active during the first stage of sporulation only in the forespore compartment. The anti- $\sigma$  factor SpoIIAB interacts with  $\sigma^{F}$ 154 disabling it to recruit the core RNAP. The release of  $\sigma^F$  is permitted by the anti- $\sigma$  factor 155 antagonist SpoIIAA. When no signal is transduced to the regulatory system, SpoIIAB binds to  $\sigma^{F}$ 156 157 and also phosphorylates SpoIIAA. When a signal is launched, the PP2C-type phosphatase SpoIIE, 158 which is a membrane-anchored protein that perceives the signal dephosphorylates specifically SpoIIAA. The anti- $\sigma$  antagonist becomes thus efficient to interact with SpoIIAB, leading to the 159 release of  $\sigma^{F}$  (Diederich *et al.*, 1994; Duncan *et al.*, 1996; Magnin *et al.*, 1997; Campbell *et al.*, 160 2002; Masuda et al., 2004; Levdikov et al., 2012). 161

162 The Rsb partner-switching system regulating the availability of the  $\sigma^{B}$  factor of Bacillales is 163 another PSS that has been extensively studied.  $\sigma^{B}$ , the general stress response (GSR)  $\sigma$  factor, is 164 inhibited during growth conditions without stress by the anti- $\sigma$  factor RsbW and  $\sigma^{B}$  becomes 165 active during stress conditions due to the binding of the dephosphorylated anti- $\sigma$  factor 166 antagonist RsbV on RsbW (Figures 1 and 2) (Price, 2011).

167 Beside Gram-positive bacteria PSS models, it has been recently shown in *Shewanella oneidensis*, 168 an aquatic bacterium from the  $\gamma$ -proteobacteria class,  $\sigma^s$ , the GSR- $\sigma$  factor, is post-translationally regulated by a PSS (Figures 1 and 2E). This system is composed of the two main proteins CrsA 169 170 and CrsR, an anti- $\sigma$  factor antagonist and a three-domain response regulator, respectively. CrsR 171 contains a N-terminal receiver, a central PP2C and a C-terminal HATPase domains. The latter is 172 able to phosphorylate efficiently CrsA whereas the phosphatase domain dephosphorylates it. In addition, direct interactions of CrsR-CrsA and of CrsR-os combined with in vivo data have 173 174 revealed that  $\sigma^s$  is the target of the PSS. The CrsRA- $\sigma^s$  is the first system that links GSR regulation to PSS in a  $\gamma$ -proteobacterium as it is the case in many other bacterial species (Bouillet *et al.*, 175 176 2016, 2017).

In *P. aeruginosa*, the PSS protein HsbR comprises a receiver, a PP2C phosphatase and a HATPase 177 domains. It has been proposed that the last domain could constitute a simple kinase and not an 178 anti- $\sigma$  factor (Figure 1). The anti- $\sigma$  factor antagonist HsbA can bind to the anti- $\sigma$  factor FlgM, 179 inducing the release of the  $\sigma$  factor FliA (or  $\sigma^{28}$ ) (Bhuwan *et al.*, 2012). Furthermore, HsbA is 180 subjected to phosphorylation control by HsbR that, consequently, modulates the activity of 181 HsbA. Contrarily to typical PSS, HsbA acts thus downstream HsbR. This system controls 182 swimming motility through the regulation of the flagella synthesis mediated by FliA. 183 184 Furthermore, HsbA interacts with the diguanylate cyclase HsbD stimulating therefore the c-di-185 GMP production (Valentini et al., 2016). This original partner-switch has thus crucial functional implications in both motility control and biofilm development. 186

The Syp system formed by SypE and SypA of *Vibrio fisheri* as well as the Btr system composed of
BtrW and BtrV of *Bordetella pertussis* have important roles in biofilm formation and

pathogenesis through type III secretion system control, respectively (Figure 1). The target  $\sigma$ factor and the mechanism of action have not been unraveled. Interestingly, as for HsbR of *P. aeruginosa*, the HATPase domains of SypE and RsbW could act solely as a kinase and not as an anti- $\sigma$  factor (Kozak *et al.*, 2005; Morris and Visick, 2013b, 2013a).

193 Usually, PSS regulate the activity of alternative  $\sigma$  factors but one example of a housekeeping 194 sigma factor regulation by a PSS has been recently brought to light (Figure 1). Indeed, the 195 primary  $\sigma$  factor  $\sigma^{66}$  of *Chlamydia trachomatis* is controlled by PSS partners (Hua *et al.*, 2006; 196 Thompson *et al.*, 2015).

#### 197 Atypical partner-switching modules

In *E. coli*,  $\sigma^{70}$  activity is also modulated by the anti- $\sigma$  factor Rsd and the histidine phosphorylatable HPr that acts as an anti- $\sigma$  factor antagonist. However, even though the mechanism of sequestration and release of the  $\sigma$  factor is alike that of PSS, the two partners Rsd and HPr are not homologous to typical PSS proteins with HPr playing a primary role in the translocation of several sugars across the membrane (Mitchell *et al.*, 2007; Yuan *et al.*, 2008; Hofmann *et al.*, 2011; Park *et al.*, 2013, 2015).

In Gram-negative  $\alpha$ -proteobacterial species, the  $\sigma$  factor controlling the GSR called  $\sigma^{\text{ECFG}}$ , RpoE or 204 205 SigT depending on the bacterium, is controlled by an atypical PSS (Figure 2F) (Francez-Charlot et al., 2009; Staroń et al., 2009; Campagne et al., 2012; Kaczmarczyk et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2014; 206 207 Francez-Charlot et al., 2015; Fiebig et al., 2015; Herrou et al., 2015; Francez-Charlot et al., 2016). 208 Indeed, the PSS partners are not homologous to canonical PSS proteins. Nevertheless, they use a 209 similar mechanism of sequestration and release of the  $\sigma$  factor as typical PSS. The PSS module of GSR regulation is mostly shared by  $\alpha$ -proteobacterial species with little divergences. In all cases, 210 211 two proteins are involved: the anti- $\sigma$  factor NepR and the two-domain PhyR. The latter acts as an 212 anti- $\sigma$  factor antagonist and contains a N-terminal  $\sigma$ -like factor and a C-terminal receiver domains (Figure 2F). NepR possesses homologies with  $\sigma^{ECF}$  factors. Phosphorylation of the 213 214 receiver domain increases the affinity between the  $\sigma$ -like domain of PhyR and NepR so that the  $\sigma^{ECF}$  is freed whereas unphosphorylated PhyR has almost no affinity for NepR that in turn binds 215

to  $\sigma^{\text{ECFG}}$ . The phosphorylation state of PhyR is controlled by various histidine kinases that detect and transduce signals including blue light and osmolytes. As for GSR regulation of Gram-positive bacteria, the composition and the number of the sensory inputs vary greatly from a bacterium to another depending on their lifestyle (Fiebig *et al.*, 2015; Francez-Charlot *et al.*, 2015).

#### 220 Activation of partner-switching systems

221 Diversified sensory and transducing modules appear to converge to PSS, although the 222 mechanisms of transduction have not been unraveled in most cases. Input modules could be 223 two-component systems, chemosensory systems or might be directly integrated in PSS modules 224 via the addition of sensing domain(s) in PSS proteins (Figures 1 and 2) (Hsu et al., 2008; Morris and Visick, 2013a; Lambert et al., 2015; Norsworthy and Visick, 2015; Chambonnier et al., 2016). 225 In the Gram-positive bacteria *Bacillus, Listeria* and *Staphyloccoccus*, the stress responsive  $\sigma$ 226 factor  $\sigma^{B}$  is submitted to a PSS. The PSS module formed by the anti- $\sigma$  factor RsbW and the anti- $\sigma$ 227 228 factor antagonist RsbV is conserved but the RsbV phosphatases as well as the mechanisms of 229 signal transduction to the PSS module diverge from one species to another (Figure 2A and 2B).

230 In B. subtilis, two sensing modules linked to two independent PP2C-containing phosphatases (RsbU and RsbP) converge to the PSS module. Environmental stresses including blue light, heat 231 shock and osmolytes are detected by a protein complex called the stressosome that 232 subsequently transduces signals to the PP2C phosphatase RsbU. The energetic level of the cell is 233 234 perceived by the PAS domain containing phosphatase RsbP associated with the hydrolase RsbQ (Figure 2A) (Benson and Haldenwang, 1993; Boylan et al., 1993; Voelker et al., 1996; Kim et al., 235 2004; Marles-Wright et al., 2008; Marles-Wright and Lewis, 2010; Price, 2011; Gaidenko and 236 Price, 2014; Guldimann et al., 2016). RsbU, RsbP and a stressosome are absent from other 237 Bacillales as B. cereus. They are replaced by the RsbY protein composed of a receiver fused to a 238 239 PP2C domain and the complex histidine kinase RsbK, which is able to detect internal and environmental stresses and thus transduces the signal to RsbY (Figure 2B) (van Schaik et al., 240 2005; de Been et al., 2010, 2011). Interestingly, genes coding for a stressosome-like complex are 241 242 also found in many species in particular among the proteobacteria, cyanobacteria and actinobacteria phyla (Pané-Farré *et al.*, 2005; Jia *et al.*, 2016). Likewise, homologs of the histidine
kinase RsbK have been found in many species including the proteobacterial genus *Vibrio*, *Pseudomonas, Magnetoccocus* or *Myxococcus* but their roles are still unknown (de Been *et al.*,
2011).

247 Streptomyces coelicolor PSS regulation of  $\sigma^{B}$  resembles that of *B. subtilis* but possesses an 248 additional PSS absent from other species (Lee *et al.*, 2004): the Osa system that regulates  $\sigma^{B}$ 249 under "back to normal" conditions after an osmotic shock. OsaA is a RsbK homolog that may 250 detect signals from a GAF domain, OsaB is a two-domain protein with a N-terminal receiver and 251 an unknown C-terminal domain, and OsaC contains an anti- $\sigma$  factor, a PAS, two GAF and a PP2C-252 type phosphatase domains (Figure 2C) (Martínez et al., 2009; Price, 2011). The regulatory cascade that regulates  $\sigma^{B}$  availability is still unknown but the domain composition of OsaC 253 254 suggests a direct additional signal sensing by the phosphatase protein. In the Actinomycetales 255 *Mycobacterium tuberculosis,* the GSR  $\sigma$  factor called  $\sigma^{F}$  is also mediated by two PSS (DeMaio *et al.,* 256 1997). Notably, the protein Rv1364c is a PSS module organized in four domains corresponding 257 to a PAS, a phosphatase, an anti- $\sigma$  factor and an anti- $\sigma$  factor antagonist domain (Parida *et al.*, 258 2005; Sachdeva et al., 2008; Greenstein et al., 2009; Malik et al., 2009; Jaiswal et al., 2010; King-259 Scott *et al.*, 2011). It has been shown that its anti- $\sigma$  factor domain can bind to  $\sigma^{F}$  whereas its anti- $\sigma$  factor antagonist domain antagonizes the action of the anti- $\sigma$  domain. However, the complex 260 261 network of  $\sigma^{F}$  post-translational regulation has not been completely unraveled yet, but Rv1364c seems to detect signals itself without upstream sensing module. 262

The PSS composed of HsbR and HsbA from *P. aeruginosa* is activated by a complex phosphocascade. The histidine phosphotransfer protein HptB constitutes the module activating HsbR. HptB acts in the GacA-GacS two-component pathway regulating sRNA involved in *P. aeruginosa* biofilm formation and pathogenesis (Lin *et al.*, 2006; Hsu *et al.*, 2008; Bordi *et al.*, 2010; Bhuwan *et al.*, 2012; Houot *et al.*, 2012; Chambonnier *et al.*, 2016). Moreover, other histidine kinases have been shown to detect specific signals and transduce them by

phosphorylating HptB that in turn phosphorylates the receiver domain of HsbR, activating the
phosphatase domain of HsbR (Hsu *et al.*, 2008).

# Activation of partner-switching modules in various proteobacteria: a role for chemosensory systems

273 Chemosensory systems (CS) are complex signal transduction pathways mainly involve in the 274 regulation of the flagella rotation necessary for swimming motility in most bacteria. Since then, 275 many CS that do not control bacterial motility have been spotted in various bacteria. They were 276 shown to play a role in the cellular differentiation of Myxococcus xanthus and Rhodospirillum 277 centenum, in the production of molecules involved in biofilm formation as c-di-GMP or EPS in P. aeruginosa and Azospirillum brasilense or in the type IV pili based motility in P. aeruginosa. In 278 279 fact, a large number of bacteria possess more than one CS coding locus in their genome, but their 280 roles are still largely unknown (Kirby, 2009; Wuichet and Zhulin, 2010; He and Bauer, 2014).

In *S. oneidensis*, the genes coding for the two PSS proteins CrsA and CrsR are located in the *che1* locus, composed of 10 genes with 8 of them coding for classical CS components (Che proteins). This system is not involved in swimming motility and could form a chemosensory system (Armitano *et al.*, 2013). This gene organization strongly suggests that the chemosensory system Che1 contains the signal sensing machinery that regulates the activity of the CrsR-CrsA PSS.

Interestingly, it appears that chemosensory machinery adapted to regulate a partner-switch is a 286 287 common feature of aquatic proteobacteria (Figure 3). Indeed, crsR gene homologs are widespread among those bacteria and an analysis of the genes surrounding *crsR* in 59 bacterial 288 genomes was carried out for this review (Bouillet et al., 2017). This phylogenetic analysis clearly 289 290 shows that the CrsR-CrsA PSS is most of the time genetically related to a *che* locus. As shown in 291 Figure 3, the *crsR-crsA* genes are located in the vicinity of a central histidine kinase *cheA* gene in 292 71% of these bacteria (32 out of 45), or of two-component histidine kinase(s). This indicates that the sensing modules of the CrsR-CrsA partner-switch could predominantly be a 293 chemosensory system. Interestingly, two genes coding for detectors MCP (Methyl-accepting 294 295 Chemotaxis Proteins) are comprised in the *che1* locus of *S. oneidensis*. One of them is predicted 296 to be anchored to the membrane whereas the other seems to be located in the cytosol and 297 possesses two PAS domains (Figure 2). The two MCP could thus allow the detection of different 298 kinds of signals: one from outside and the other from inside the cell cytoplasm. Interestingly, 299 many PSS controlling the GSR including those in *B. cereus* and in some alpha-proteobacterial 300 species often comprise two sensory detectors presenting similar sensing domains as those found 301 in MCP (Figure 2 and Figure 3). It has been shown that the RsbK histidine kinase from *B. cereus* 302 that controls the downstream RsbVWY PSS is subjected to the methylation by the methyltransferase RsbM, as usually seen in MCP (Chen et al., 2012, 2015). The methylation of 303 304 RsbK by RsbM leads to the inhibition of  $\sigma^{B}$ . As the *che1* locus of *S. oneidensis* contains a gene encoding the methyltransferase CheR1, we propose that  $\sigma^s$  sequestration by CrsR could also be 305 modulated by the methylation level of the two MCP. 306

PSS imbedded in a CS operon has been recently described in *Leptospira interrogans*. This operon contains genes encoding a response regulator composed of a receiver and an anti- $\sigma$  factor domains, an anti- $\sigma$  factor antagonist and chemosensory proteins (CheA, CheY, CheW, CheD, CheB, MCP). This PSS that controls a still unknown  $\sigma$  factor could be regulated by the chemosensory system (Eshghi *et al.*, 2014; Lambert *et al.*, 2015).

Two-component systems or signal transduction coding genes have also been found in the neighborhood of *crsR* homologs and could thus be the sensor that detects signals and transduces them to the PSS. Genes encoding Hpt proteins are also found near to *crsR-crsA* genes in *Hahella ganghwensis* and *Marinobacter lipolyticus* (Figure 3). This illustrates that the sensing modules acting upstream PSS diverge from one species to another.

#### 317 The case of GSR regulation in bacteria

The main strategy commonly developed by bacteria to respond, defend and adapt to general stresses is to modify its transcriptional program in order to express appropriate genes. This ability is mediated by the use of a specific  $\sigma$  factor. Gram-positive bacteria as *Bacillales* and *Actinomycetales* possess a type-3  $\sigma$  factor named  $\sigma^{B}$  or  $\sigma^{F}$ , whereas  $\beta$ - and  $\gamma$ -proteobacteria hold the type-2  $\sigma$  factor  $\sigma^{S}$  and  $\alpha$ -proteobacteria use a type-4  $\sigma^{ECF}$  often called  $\sigma^{ECFG}$  (Boylan *et al.*, 323 1993; Battesti et al., 2011; Hengge, 2011; Price, 2011; Fiebig et al., 2015; Francez-Charlot et al., 324 2015). Despite the fact that all these  $\sigma$  factors are not homologous and present large differences 325 in terms of sequence and structure, they control analogous processes in the cells (Alvarez-326 Martinez et al., 2006; Sauviac et al., 2007; Gourion et al., 2009; Martínez-Salazar et al., 2009; 327 Britos et al., 2011; Hengge, 2011; Foreman et al., 2012; Jans et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2013; Landini 328 et al., 2014; Guldimann et al., 2016). Moreover, although their global regulation is highly 329 divergent, the presence of a PSS is a relatively common feature for their post-translational regulation (Figure 2). 330

Strikingly, although *B. cereus* and *S. oneidensis* are distant species and use the two nonhomologous GSR  $\sigma$  factors  $\sigma^{B}$  and  $\sigma^{S}$ , respectively, the pathways that control their posttranslational activity are similar. Conversely, *E. coli* and *S. oneidensis* are both  $\gamma$ -proteobacteria and both possess  $\sigma^{S}$  to regulate GSR, but their post-translational regulations of  $\sigma^{S}$  are entirely different (Battesti *et al.*, 2011; Price, 2011). This strongly suggests that these regulatory pathways can be more related between bacteria that share common lifestyle than phylogenetic proximity.

#### 338 Concluding Remarks

Since a couple of years, novel PSS have been detected in many bacteria. These PSS play a key role in major cellular processes although the partner  $\sigma$  factor has not been determined in several cases. PSS are common post-translational regulators for the control of the response to general stress but they are also involved in crucial cell processes as motility, biofilm formation, virulence, and cell differentiation as sporulation. Other physiological roles of PSS will be undoubtedly discovered in the next future.

In fact, based solely on basic bioinformatics, it is quite difficult to find out PSS genes within bacterial genomes mainly because their HATPase domain is common to other types of proteins. Furthermore, each species has to adapt to its own environment, doing this, it has set up dedicated regulatory pathways. PSS and the sensing modules have thus evolved to adapt to their target  $\sigma$  factors and to the signals this  $\sigma$  factor has to be responding to. As a consequence, the

domain organization of the PSS (Figures 1 and 2) and the composition of the sensing modules
vary greatly (Figures 2 and 3). In other words, a common signal transduction pathway like PSS
can be activated by a large range of sensing machineries.

In conclusion, recent results have revealed that PSS are found not only in Gram-positive but also in Gram-negative bacteria. Moreover, many PSS are governed by complex signaling pathways including two-component and chemosensory systems. PSS are clearly very efficient and rapid ways to trigger or stop specific  $\sigma$  factor responses. Therefore, future studies will most probably reveal novel module architectures for PSS and their regulatory pathways to better respond to the numberless environmental signals encountered by bacteria.

359

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685	Figures legends
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687	Figure 1: Domain organization of PSS modules of chosen bacterial species.

688 The color code is: red for  $\sigma$  factors, purple for anti- $\sigma$  factor domains, green for anti- $\sigma$  factor antagonists (anti-anti- $\sigma$  factors) and yellow for phosphatase domains. HAMP domains (present 689 690 in Histidine kinases, Adenyl cyclases, Methyl-accepting proteins and Phosphatases) are linkers 691 possessing a role in signal transduction. Transmembrane domains of membranous proteins are 692 mentioned by "TM" (in black), other proteins are cytoplasmic. REC stands for Receiver domain. 693 Sensing domains comprise: CACHE (CAlcium channels and CHEmotaxis receptors), PAS for Per (Period Circadian Protein), Arnt (Aryl hydrocarbon Receptor Nuclear Translocator protein), Sim 694 695 (Single-Minded Protein) and GAF (for cGMP-specific phosphodiesterases, Adenylyl cyclases and 696 <u>FhlA</u>). When known, the physiological role of PSS is indicated as well as its sensing modules. The 697 domain organizations appear on the right part of the figure.

#### **Figure 2: Conserved PSS modules regulating GSR σ factors are controlled by various signal**

#### 699 transduction systems.

700 The signal transduction pathways are divided in three major steps:

1(blue) - Signal sensing. Modules involved in the signal detection present a large range of
mechanisms with various level of complexity. This step is the most diversified and bacteria have
been very creative to detect signals and transduce them to the PSS modules.

2 (green) - Intermediate signal transduction from the input (signal sensing) to the output ( $\sigma$ factors). The partner-switching mechanism is highly conserved. The rule is that according to the environmental conditions, the  $\sigma$  factor should be sequestered or released to hamper or allow its regulatory activity, respectively.

708 3 (red) - The  $\sigma$  factor involved in the GSR. The release of the  $\sigma$  factor leads to the expression of 709 the genes belonging to the  $\sigma$  factor regulon.

Question marks (?) indicate that the steps have not been experimentally demonstrated. \* 710 711 means that the components are not conserved in all alpha-proteobacterial species. A green 712 arrow represents a phosphorylation and a red arrow a dephosphorylation event. "HK-CA" corresponds to the domains HisKA and HATPase involved in receiver (REC) phosphorylation. 713 Histidine kinases from two-component systems and the CheA1 kinase from the Che1 714 chemosensory system are represented. Protein names are indicated inside the drawing except if 715 716 the protein harbors multiple domains, in this case the name is written above. The cytoplasmic membrane is symbolized in dark. The colors of the  $\sigma$  factors and the PSS components are those 717 of figure 1. Protein hampering is indicated by a line ending by a small horizontal line.  $\alpha\sigma$  and  $\alpha\alpha\sigma$ 718 719 stand for anti-sigma factor and anti-anti-sigma factor (or anti-sigma factor antagonist).

#### 720 Figure 3: Occurrence and synteny of CrsR homologs in bacteria

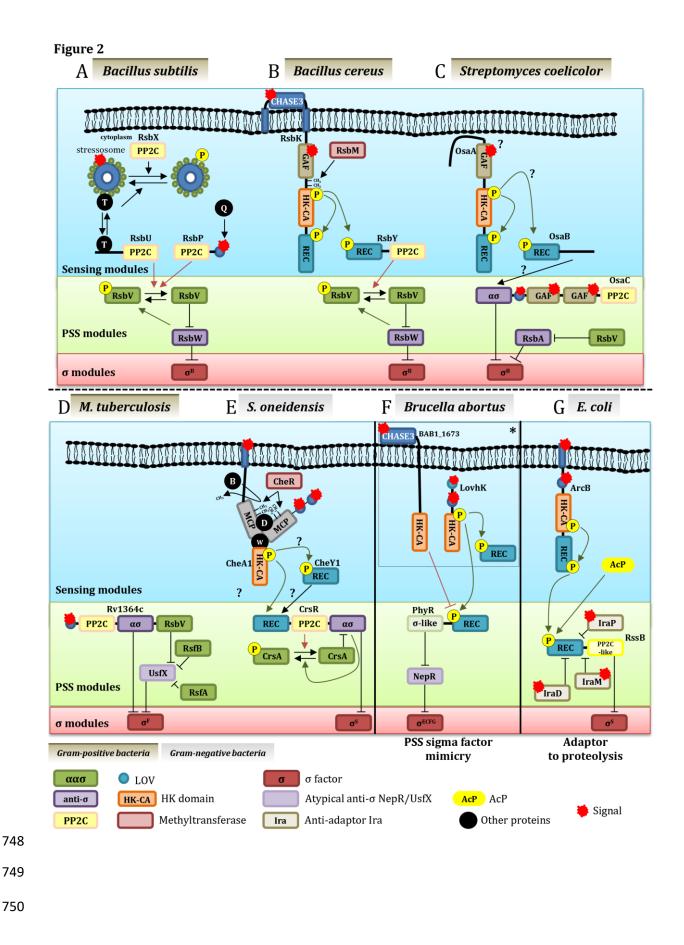
Searches for homologous proteins to *S. oneidensis* CrsR were performed using the bioinformatics
BLAST tool from the NCBI database (NCBI Resource Coordinators, 2016) and the sequences
were assembled using the program "Phylogeny" (Dereeper *et al.*, 2008). Among the Gammaproteobacteria, CrsR homologs are found in *Alteromonadales, Chromatiales, Methylococcales,*

Oceanospirillales, Pseudomonadales, Thiotrichales, Vibrionales. Symbol "\*" indicate a genus. 725 726 Among the genus Pseudomonas, the species P. aeruginosa, P. putida, P. chlororaphis, P. fluorescens, P. syringae, P. stutzeri were selected. The symbol "\*\*" indicates that the synteny is 727 728 conserved in all Pseudomonas species except for P. aeruginosa. The genus Vibrio includes V. 729 mimicus, V. cholerae, V. vulnificus, and the genus Shewanella includes S. xiamenensis, S. 730 decolorationis, S. sp. HN-41, S. baltica OS185, S. sp. ANA-3, S. sp. MR-7, S. putrefaciens and S. 731 oneidensis MR-1. Genes surrounding crsR homologs were examined by hand using the BioCyc database (Romero and Karp, 2004; Krummenacker et al., 2005). The question mark (?) means 732 that the genes surrounding crsR homologs are not exhaustive because of the incomplete 733 database. "HK" stands for Histidine Kinase, "RR" for Response Regulator and "RR-GGDEF" for a 734 receiver domain fused to a GGDEF domain. GGDEF domains have an enzymatic activity 735 producing c-di-GMP necessary for biofilm formation. The corresponding proteins and the color 736 737 code of the bacterial species are summarized in the bottom of the figure. Inside gene drawings, 3 738 and 5 indicate the number of copies.

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Target σ factor	Anti-σ factor antagonist	Anti-σ factor	Phosphatase PP2C	Sensing modules	Species	Roles			
$\sigma^{\text{F}}$	SpoIIAA	SpoIIAB	SpoIIE	Phosphatase	Bacillus subtilis	sporulation			SpoIIE
σ <sup>70</sup>	RsbV1 + RsbV2	RsbW	RsbU1	Phosphatase?	Chlamydia trachomatis	housekeeping			RsbU1
unknown	BtrV	BtrW	BtrU	Phosphatase?	Bordetella pertussis	type-3 secretion system			BtrU
ınknown	Lb136	?	Lb139	?	Leptospira interrogans	virulence/motility			Lb139
ınknown	La2424	La2422	?	CSS?	Leptospira interrogans	motility		La 2422	?
ınknown	SypA	SypE	SypE	RscS (TCS)	<i>Vibrio fisheri</i> and other <i>Vibrio</i>	biofilm formation		SypE	
ınknown	slr1856 and slr1859?	slr1861	IcfG	direct?	<i>Synechocystis</i> sp. Strain PCC 6803	metabolism of inorganic carbon in limiting-CO2 condition			LefG
$\sigma^{24}$ ?	GigB	NPr	GigA	?	Acinetobacter baumanii	stress responses, pathogenicity and multi-antibiotic resistance			GigA
ınknown	RbaV	RbaW	RbaY	?	Rhodobacter capsulatus	stationary phase response and production of gene transfer RcGTA			RbaY
$\sigma^{B}$	RsbV	RsbW	RsbU/ RsbP/ RsbY	stressosome+RsbT/ RsbQ/ RsbK (TCS)	Bacillales	GSR			RsbY RsbU RsbP
$\sigma^{B}$	RsbV/ ?	RsbA/ OsaC	?/ OsaC	?/ direct? OsaA? (TCS)	Streptomyces coelicolor	GSR		OsaC	
$\sigma^{\rm F}$	RsfA + RsfB/ Rv1364c	UsfX/ Rv1364c	?/ Rv1364c	?/ direct sensing?	Mycobacterium tuberculosis	GSR	٠-	Rv1364c	
$\sigma^{S}$	CrsA	CrsR	CrsR	CSS?	Shewanella oneidensis	GSR		CrsR	
$\sigma^{\text{ECFG}}$	PhyR	NepR	Bab1_1673?	LovhK	<i>Brucella abortus</i> and various α- proteobacteria	GSR			

## Figure 1



#### Figure 3

