Mechanistic Insights into Human Antimicrobial Peptide-Induced

Activation of a Broadly Conserved Bacterial Signaling System

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Abstract

Antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) represent a promising class of therapeutics against bacterial pathogens. While their direct bactericidal mechanisms are well-characterized, how bacteria sense and respond to these peptides at sublethal concentrations remains poorly understood. Here, we investigate the activation of the *Escherichia coli* PhoQ-PhoP signaling system by the human cathelicidin LL-37 and its derivatives (KR-12 and RI-10). We demonstrate that these peptides exhibit variable antimicrobial potency but surprisingly similar abilities to activate the PhoQ-PhoP pathway, indicating that signaling function is separable from bactericidal activity. Notably, sublethal concentrations of these peptides induce significant cell elongation, a phenotype dependent on PhoQ and mediated by the upregulation of QueE, which interferes with bacterial cell division. Contrary to the previous model suggesting peptides activate PhoQ passively by displacing its inhibitor MgrB, we observed enhanced cell elongation in *ΔmgrB* strains across all tested peptides, including RI-10, lacking antibacterial activity. Our findings suggest peptides actively stimulate PhoQ through a mechanism independent of MgrB dissociation, providing a more refined understanding of the peptide signaling through the PhoQ-PhoP system. These insights into bacterial adaptation mechanisms against host-derived peptides may guide the development of peptide therapeutics with enhanced efficacy against drug-resistant pathogens.

Introduction

When exposed to specific cationic antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) at sublethal concentrations, *Escherichia coli* activates the PhoQ/PhoP signal transduction pathway—a conserved two-component system crucial for stress adaptation in Gram-negative bacteria (1, 2). The PhoQ/PhoP signaling system is also an important pathway for adaptation and survival in conditions such as low Mg^{2+}, mildly acidic pH, and hyperosmolarity in *E. coli* and closely related enterobacteria (3, 4). Activated PhoQ-PhoP regulate numerous genes, including those responsible for remodeling the outer membrane, activation of efflux pumps, and proteolytic degradation of the peptides that help bacteria resist cationic AMPs (5–8). Strong activation of the PhoQ-PhoP system is observed when cells are treated with a human platelet-derived AMP (C18G), causing the upregulation of QueE, an enzyme primarily known for its role in the queuosine biosynthetic pathway that modifies specific tRNAs (2). Remarkably, elevated QueE levels lead to the accumulation of this protein at the bacterial division septum, where it interacts with the cell division machinery. This interaction disrupts normal septation processes downstream of Z-ring formation, resulting in inhibited cell division and the development of filamentous bacterial morphology. This mechanism represents a sophisticated bacterial stress response that temporarily halts proliferation when facing host antimicrobial challenges.

Human cathelicidin, LL-37, is one of the best-studied AMPs (9–11) with a broad spectrum of activity against bacteria, fungi, parasites, viruses, and cancer cells (11–15). LL-37 is known to activate the PhoQ-PhoP system and exert its antimicrobial action primarily by interacting with bacterial membranes, inserting itself into the lipid bilayer, and leading to membrane destabilization and the formation of pores (1, 16–18). This disruption results in the loss of membrane integrity, causing leakage of cellular contents and ultimately leading to bacterial cell death. LL-37's efficacy against pathogens is influenced by the composition of the growth

medium, particularly the presence of high salt concentrations and divalent cations (19). In our

current understanding, cationic antimicrobial peptides interact with the acidic patch in the

periplasmic sensing domain of PhoQ, displacing divalent cations (particularly Mg^{2+}) that

normally repress PhoQ activity, leading to PhoQ autophosphorylation and subsequent

phosphorylation of PhoP (1). Besides peptides and other signals, a 47 amino acid long small

membrane protein called MgrB interacts with and inhibits PhoQ by affecting its kinase activity

(20, 21). Specific residues in the transmembrane and periplasmic regions of MgrB are important

for the interaction with PhoQ (22). It is proposed that the sensing of AMPs by PhoQ at

physiological concentrations of magnesium is dependent on MgrB (23). A conformational

change in PhoQ upon AMP binding is thought to disrupt the PhoQ-MgrB complex, resulting in

PhoQ activation via derepression. This model suggests that AMPs play an inert role in

stimulating PhoQ.

Human cathelicidin LL-37 contains 37 amino acids and is costly to make. Structural studies

established that the C-terminal tail of LL-37 (residues 33-37) is disordered and not required for

membrane-targeting mediated antimicrobial activity (24). This led to the use of several

derivatives of the LL-37 peptide from the central region for therapeutic development (11, 24, 25).

KR-12, the smallest antibacterial peptide of human LL-37 (24), has been widely utilized in

peptide engineering (26). To effectively develop AMPs as novel peptide therapeutics, it is

imperative to study the bacterial response to these peptides, including the biochemical and

regulatory pathways that underlie this process. While there has been tremendous progress in

establishing the direct antimicrobial action of AMPs (27), much less is known about the

phenotypic responses elicited by AMPs at sub-lethal doses and whether the peptides have a

direct and active effect on stimulating PhoQ.

In this study, we first examined the antibacterial activity of LL-37 and its smaller fragments, KR-

12 and RI-10, to establish their minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) and minimum

bactericidal concentration (MBC) against *E. coli* under physiologically relevant growth

conditions. We then determined the killing kinetics and characterized the peptides using

membrane permeabilization and depolarization assays. Next, we investigated whether LL-37

and its derived peptides, at concentrations below MIC, are effective in activating the PhoQ/PhoP

signaling system by analyzing both the changes in cell morphology and PhoP-dependent

transcriptional reporter activity as readouts. Finally, using cells lacking the PhoQ inhibitor, MgrB,

we provide key insights into how LL-37 and its derivatives may interact with their target histidine

kinase and affect bacterial physiology. Our study sheds light on the mechanism of molecular

regulation of bacterial physiology by biologically relevant host defense peptide LL-37, which is

known to play a key role in human health via both antimicrobial and immune regulatory roles (9-

12,27).

Results

Analysis of LL-37 and its derivatives for antibacterial activity against *E. coli*.

To assess the antibacterial activity of AMP LL-37 derivatives KR-12 and RI-10 against *E. coli*,

we compared the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) or minimum bactericidal concentration

(MBC) to establish the lowest concentration of LL-37 or its derivatives that either inhibit growth

or kill the cells, respectively. Thus, lower MIC and MBC values indicate higher potency of the LL-

37 or its derivatives. To better delineate antimicrobial capability, we evaluated the activity of LL-

37 and its derivatives in three different media conditions, Mueller Hinton Broth (MHB), tryptic

soy broth (TSB), or supplemented minimal A medium (MinA) against four *E. coli* strains

(MG1655, E423-17, E416-17, and 25922, Tables 1, S1, S2). Gentamicin was included as a non-

peptide antibiotic control. LL-37 exhibited the highest potency with MIC values around 2-8 μM,

depending on the media used (Table 1). Interestingly, the KR-12 peptide, which is shorter than

LL-37 by 25 amino acids, is also active against the *E. coli* isolates tested. The MIC and MBC

values for KR-12 are similar or 2-4 fold higher than those obtained for LL-37. The values

obtained in minimal medium were in a similar range as those obtained in other media, especially

for *E. coli* K-12 MG1655 strain (Tables 1, S1). The shortest LL-37 variant, RI-10, did not show

antibacterial activity against any of the isolates tested here across different media conditions, or

after dilution of MHB to 10%. From here on, for characterization of the antibacterial and

physiological effects of these peptides, we used the *E. coli* MG1655 strain grown in

supplemented minimal medium. Next, we investigated the time-dependent killing kinetics of LL-

37, KR-12, and RI-10 to further substantiate their bactericidal properties using a concentration

corresponding to 2x MIC values (Figure S1). LL-37 (2× MIC) completely eradicated the

exponential phase of *E. coli* K-12 MG1655 in 1 hour, while KR-12 caused about a 4-log fold

reduction in 2 hours. As expected, RI-10 displayed no activity at the concentration tested.

Together, these results show that full-length LL-37 and KR-12 exhibit antibacterial properties

against *E. coli* but not RI-10.

LL-37 and KR-12, but not RI-10, disrupt bacterial membranes.

Given that LL-37 and its derivative SK-24 both target bacterial membranes, we wondered if the

shorter peptide variants, KR-12 and RI-10, may retain and exhibit activity against *E. coli*

membranes. To assess membrane disruption, we conducted membrane permeabilization and

depolarization experiments. We analyzed membrane permeability by the uptake of a

membrane-impermeable red dye, propidium iodide (PI), either in the presence of a peptide,

0.1% Triton-X (positive control) or PBS (untreated). Treatment with either LL-37 or KR-12 led to

an increase in membrane permeability in a dose-dependent manner, although LL-37 was more

effective (Figure 1A-C). To assay membrane depolarization, we used $DiBAC_4(3)$, a probe for

membrane potential, whose fluorescence increases upon entering depolarized cells. As

expected, LL-37 depolarized membranes well with increasing concentration of the peptide

(Figure 1D-F). Similarly, KR-12 also caused membrane depolarization but to a lower extent

relative to LL-37. Consistent with the data from MIC assay and killing kinetics, RI-10 did not

have a discernible effect on membrane permeability and depolarization. Together, the data

suggest that KR-12, like LL-37, targets the bacterial membrane as its mode of action.

Sub-MIC levels of LL-37 and KR-12 activate the PhoQ/PhoP signaling system and cause

cell elongation.

Cationic antimicrobial peptides, LL-37 and C18G activate the PhoQP pathway in *E. coli* and

related bacteria (1, 2). In addition, *E. coli* cells elongate upon exposure to a sub-lethal dose of

C18G, leading to filamentous growth (2). This filamentation is associated with conditions that

strongly activate PhoQ/PhoP. We asked if the truncated LL-37 derivatives retain the ability to

activate the PhoQP system. We used a promoter-reporter strain containing P_{mgrB}-*yfp* to measure

the transcriptional activity of the *mgrB* gene, whose expression is PhoQP-dependent. In parallel,

we observed the cells by phase contrast microscopy to test if the peptides induce any changes

in *E. coli* cell morphology. Our analysis revealed that there is a 3 to 3.5-fold increase in PhoQP-

regulated transcriptional activity when cells are treated with a sub-MIC dose of LL-37 at 1.25 µM

and KR-12 at 5 µM (Figure 2A). RI-10 showed weak activation of ~1.7-fold higher than the

untreated control. As the amino acid sequence of RI-10 is included in both KR-12 and LL-37, we

also asked how a different LL-37 segment, KE-10, with a minimal sequence overlap with KR-12

and RI-10 (Table S2), behaves. Like RI-10, KE-10 showed no antibacterial activity against *E.*

coli (MIC > 64 µM in Table 1). In contrast to RI-10, the KE-10 peptide showed negligible

activation of the PhoQP system based on the transcription activity measurement of the *mgrB*

gene, implying that there is a requirement for a particular peptide sequence for this activation.

Although LL-37 was long known to activate the PhoQP system, its impact on *E. coli* cell

morphology, especially at concentrations below the MIC, has not been studied previously. Upon

observation by phase contrast microscopy, both LL-37 and KR-12 treated cells displayed

elongation with heterogeneous cell lengths (Figure 2B). The average cell lengths increased by

~1.5-fold for cells exposed to LL-37 and KR-12 when compared to the control cells (Figure 2C).

However, both RI-10 and KE-10 treated cells did not show a significant change in cell length

(Figure 2B-C). Together, these data elucidate that the truncated LL-37 derivative KR-12, but not

RI-10, is functional in stimulating the PhoQP pathway and eliciting a physiological response.

Additionally, our findings indicate that this stimulation by full-length LL-37 and its minimal

antibacterial peptide KR-12 is strong enough to cause morphological changes similar to what

was observed for the C18G peptide previously (2) , whereas two shorter LL-37 segments, which

lost antibacterial activity, were unable to.

Cell elongation caused by sub-MIC levels of peptides is dependent on PhoQ and QueE.

Given that sub-lethal concentrations of AMPs LL-37 and KR-12 stimulate the PhoQP signaling

pathway, we examined the morphology of the cells upon deletion of *phoQ*. As expected, Δ*phoQ*

cells did not elongate when treated with LL-37 and KR-12 (Figure 3A). There was no increase in

PhoQP-dependent transcriptional activity of P$_{mgrB}$, even in the presence of LL-37 and KR-12 in

Δ*phoQ* cells (Figure 3B), and the average cell lengths were similar relative to the no-peptide

control (Figure 3C), confirming that the cell elongation phenotype associated with these AMPs is

dependent on PhoQ activation. In previous work, sub-MIC levels of C18G are shown to cause

filamentation in wild-type *E. coli* cells, which is mediated by increased expression of a PhoP-

dependent gene called *queE*, encoding a protein with dual activities in the inhibition of cell

division and the synthesis of queuosine tRNA modification (2, 28). We asked if the

morphological phenotype observed here for cells exposed to LL-37 and KR-12 is also mediated

by QueE or through an independent mechanism. Using a *queE* deletion strain, we carried out

microscopy and measured cell lengths and transcriptional reporter activity. Δ*queE* suppressed

the elongation phenotype observed when cells were treated with either LL-37 or KR-12 (Figures

3A, 2B). It is worth noting that $\Delta queE$ cells grown in the presence of these peptides still display

an increase in PhoQP-regulated transcriptional reporter activity similar to the wild-type cells

(Figures 3D, 2A). Consistently, $\Delta queE$ cells exposed to peptides did not show a difference in the

average cell length relative to the controls (no peptide, RE-10, Figure 3E). Overall, filamentation

and heterogeneity in cell size observed upon treatment with LL-37 and KR-12 peptides are both

PhoQ- and QueE-dependent.

Deletion of PhoQ inhibitor, MgrB, increases cell responsiveness to LL-37 and its

derivatives.

Cells deleted for MgrB show an overall, robust increase in PhoQP-controlled gene expression

(20). These cells experience higher stimulation of PhoQ under magnesium-limiting conditions,

similar to the strong activation of this system observed in wild-type cells grown in the presence

of C18G at intermediate magnesium concentrations (2). Consequently, $\Delta mgrB$ cells grow as

long filaments, and this phenotype is dependent on upregulation of QueE expression by

PhoQ/PhoP (2). It is proposed that MgrB mediates the sensing of specific AMPs by PhoQ at

intermediate concentrations of magnesium, therefore, LL-37, KR-12, and RI-10 may activate

PhoQ only when MgrB is present. In this case, we expect $\Delta mgrB$ cells to show no significant

change in either the PhoP-dependent transcriptional reporter activity or cell morphology when

treated with peptides vs. no treatment. We examined how LL-37 and its derivatives influence the

activity of the PhoQP system and cell lengths in a $\Delta mgrB$ strain. As expected, in the absence of

peptides, $\Delta mgrB$ cells showed an increase in P_{mgrB} transcription relative to the wild-type cells

under the same growth conditions (Figures 4A, 2A). When the AMPs were added to $\Delta mgrB$

cells, there was a modest increase of ~1.4-fold in the PhoQP-regulated transcriptional reporter

activity for LL-37, as observed previously using the same media conditions carrying 0.1 mM

Mg^{2+} (Figure 4A) (20). The addition of peptides KR-12, RI-10, and KE-10 did not lead to a

substantial increase in reporter activity, suggesting that PhoP-mediated transcription is not

sensitive in response to the two peptides in cells lacking MgrB. This result is consistent with a

recent study where ∆*mgrB* cells did not show an increase in PhoP-regulated transcription in the

presence of another AMP, C18G (23).

To investigate this further, we analyzed the morphology of ∆*mgrB* cells in the presence of

peptides, wherein cell elongation is PhoQ-dependent and a direct function of strong PhoQP

activation. As expected, we noticed filamentation in ∆*mgrB* cells treated with LL-37 and KR-12,

but only short, typical cells in the KE-10-treated or no-peptide control cells, under this growth

condition with 0.1 mM Mg^{2+} (Figure 4C). It was intriguing, however, to see that RI-10-treated

∆*mgrB* cells also displayed elongation, suggesting that RI-10 may interact more effectively with

PhoQ to activate it, in the absence of MgrB. In other words, loss of the inhibitor MgrB appears to

unmask the effect of RI-10 peptide on PhoQ stimulation, resulting in an evident cell elongation

phenotype. Interestingly, cell size quantification revealed greater heterogeneity and higher

average cell lengths across all three peptides for ∆*mgrB* of 6-8 μm (Figure 4D). The mean cell

lengths for LL-37, KR-12, and RI-10-treated ∆*mgrB* cells were higher than the corresponding

values obtained for the wild type by 2.5-, 2.3-, and 1.9-fold, respectively; however, there is no

difference in cell length in the KE-10-treated cells (Figures 4D, 2C), indicating a central role of

the RI-10 containing LL-37 segments in activation in the absence of *mgrB*.

It is known that high stimulation of PhoQ from exposure to LL-37 results in differential regulation

of specific PhoP-regulated promoters, including that of *mgrB* (29). Also, upon activation by LL-

37, a mutated *mgrB-t7a* promoter (with a T7A substitution in the PhoP-binding site) shows a

higher fold change in transcriptional activity relative to the wild-type *mgrB* promoter. To

substantiate whether there may be an increased transcriptional response to peptide treatment

via this promoter, we analyzed wild-type and ∆*mgrB* strains carrying the *mgrB-t7a* promoter

(Figure S2). We observed a significant increase in cell size heterogeneity in wild-type cells

treated with LL-37 and KR-12, and ∆*mgrB* cells treated with LL-37, KR-12, and RI-10. The cells

did not display an increase in cell lengths when treated with control peptide KE-10 or in the

absence of a peptide. Together, these data support the idea that LL-37 and its derivatives

potentially compete with MgrB to bind and activate PhoQ, and when MgrB is absent, the AMPs

and other peptides can further activate PhoQ. If the exacerbated cell elongation observed in

peptide-treated Δ*mgrB* cells is indeed due to a PhoQP-dependent mechanism that is mediated

by QueE, we should see this phenotype suppressed upon deletion of *queE*. Consistent with our

hypothesis, Δ*mgrB* Δ*queE* cells treated with LL-37, KR-12, and RI-10 displayed a loss of

filamentation and a decrease in cell size heterogeneity (Figure 4D).

Discussion

Despite extensive investigation, fundamental questions remain about the molecular

mechanisms of peptide-mediated signal transduction by the PhoQ-PhoP system. Moreover, the

effects of PhoPQ activation by these AMPs in cells and the physiological importance of these

interactions have not been elucidated. We address two critical questions in this work: (i) Can

peptides lacking potent antimicrobial activity still interact with PhoQ and act as a signal for this

pathway? Using LL-37 and derivatives with variable MICs and antibacterial activities against *E.*

coli cells, we show that the signaling function of peptides through the PhoQ-PhoP system is

separable from their antimicrobial activity (Figure 5A), suggesting that bacteria may use this

pathway primarily as a detection mechanism for host environments rather than simply as a

response to membrane damage. (ii) Do the peptides actively stimulate PhoQ, or do they exert

their effect on PhoQ passively by displacing the inhibitor protein, MgrB? Many studies on

peptide-induced signaling of PhoQ measure the activity of peptides using PhoP-dependent

transcriptional reporters as a proxy. In agreement with the previous studies, upon exposure to

peptides, we do not observe a significant increase in PhoQP-driven transcriptional reporter

activity in Δ*mgrB* cells relative to the wild type. It is possible that the derepression of PhoP-

regulated gene expression in the absence of MgrB could lead to lower sensitivity of the reporter

signal, masking small increments in the amplitude. While such reporters are incredibly useful in

determining the activation status of this pathway and measuring the transcription levels, we

have a second, sensitive readout – a cell elongation or filamentation phenotype in response to

peptide stress in *E. coli*. Based on our microscopy and cell length measurements, we find that

cells elongate significantly upon exposure to sublethal concentrations of peptides, LL-37 and

KR-12, even though the promoter reporters do not show a significant change in their activities.

The extent of cell elongation may differ in response to specific peptides, as we note that

filamentation induced by an AMP, C18G, in wild-type *E. coli* cells is quite robust, with an

average cell length of > 20 μm (2). Upon deletion of MgrB, the average cell lengths increased

further, and even RI-10-treated cells displayed cell elongation; this observation is in stark

contrast to a previous model suggesting that AMPs activate PhoQ by driving the dissociation of

MgrB (23). Our findings elucidate phenotypic effects on cell size caused by the peptides in a

PhoQ-dependent manner and implicate an active and more direct role for peptides in PhoQ

activation (Figure 5B).

Our understanding of what characteristics of AMPs are required to activate the PhoP-PhoQ

system is still evolving. A previous report found a correlation between the extent of positive

charge, hydrophobicity, and amphipathicity of an AMP and its ability to activate PhoQ-PhoP (8).

Intriguingly, the authors discovered that even a peptide with minimal positive charge (+1) but

containing histidines was highly potent at activating the system, suggesting the existence of an

activation mechanism independent of peptide charge. A later study with 117 AMPs from the

Antimicrobial Peptide Database (30) showed that PhoQ is activated by a diverse set of AMPs,

including the human cathelicin LL-37 and non-cathelicidin peptides that carry either an α-helical

or a combination of α-helical/β-sheet structural regions (31). In our work, we see that LL-37

derivatives induce PhoQ-dependent morphological changes, and KR-12, the smallest

antibacterial peptide, is also the smallest peptide sequence for the PhoPQ induction. Further,

RI-10, but not KE-10, became responsive upon the deletion of mgrB. Interestingly, LL-25, the

N-terminal segment of LL-37 which does not kill bacteria under normal conditions (31), does not

activate PhoPQ based on the recent human AMPs screen study although it contains partial

sequence of KR-12 (30). LL-25 can be obtained by extending the sequence of KE-10 from both

ends (Tables S2, S3). Thus, our study implies that the bacterial molecular detection machinery

is elegantly tuned to specifically target the minimal antimicrobial region of human antimicrobial

peptide LL-37 but not fragments outside the region. Biologically, bacterial targeting of the key

antimicrobial region of human LL-37 (24) is rather effective since this region is commonly

shared by all the active fragments of LL-37 naturally produced in human skin (Table S3),

including KS-27, KR-20, KS-30, RK-31, and LL-29 (32). Indeed, all these human fragments

responded to the PhoPQ system based on a recent screening of human AMPs registered in the

APD (30). Collectively, these findings indicate that the PhoQ-PhoP system likely responds to

peptides based on specific structural and chemical properties rather than simply their

antimicrobial activity, allowing bacteria to sense and respond to host environments in a more

nuanced way than just reacting to membrane damage.

Finally, the dramatic rise of antimicrobial resistance is a major public health concern. AMPs and

other peptide derivatives are relatively small, typically comprised of around 10 to 50 amino acids

(30), and constitute a key component of host innate immunity for defense against microbial

pathogens (32, 33). These peptides are relatively cheap to produce, have good thermal stability

and water solubility, and exhibit a broad spectrum of activity against bacteria and fungi, making

them promising candidates for drug development (34–38). Studying the cellular responses to

AMPs and peptides in general provides us with a deeper understanding of how cells can sense,

adapt, and develop tolerance to these molecules and guide the strategic design of therapeutics

with enhanced efficacy.

Materials and Methods

Strains

Details of the strains used in this study are provided in Table S4. AML20, JNC21, NRS5, NRS6, SAM31, TIM92, TIM100, and TIM166 are *E. coli* K-12 MG1655 derivatives. Additionally, clinical strains of *E. coli*, E423-17, E416-17, and ATCC strain 25922 were used for specific assays as indicated. NRS6 was made by transducing the KEIO strain JW1815 into the TIM148 and TIM166 strains, respectively, using P1$_{vir}$.

Media, reagents, and growth conditions

Routine bacterial growth on solid agar was performed using LB Miller medium (IBI scientific) containing 1.5% bacteriological grade agar (VWR Lifesciences) at 37°C. Liquid cultures were grown at 37°C with aeration in either LB miller medium or minimal A medium (MinA) (39) (K_2HPO_4 (10.5 g l^{-1}), KH_2PO_4 (4.5 g l^{-1}), $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ (1.0 g l^{-1}), Na_3 citrate.$2H_2O$ (0.5 g l^{-1}), supplemented with 0.1% casamino acids, 0.2% glucose and 1 mM $MgSO_4$ unless otherwise indicated. Throughout this study, supplemented MinA, as indicated above, will be referred to as a minimal medium. In addition, Mueller-Hinton broth (MHB, catalog info) and tryptic soy broth (TSB, catalog info) were used for minimum inhibitory/bactericidal concentration (MIC/MBC) assays. Peptides and/or AMPs used in the study are indicated in Table S2.

For the measurement of cell length and transcriptional reporter activity, overnight cultures of SAM31, TIM92, TIM100, AML20, SAA58, and JNC21 were grown in supplemented MinA containing 1 mM $MgSO_4$. Saturated cultures were back diluted 1:500 into 5 ml supplemented MinA with 0.1 mM Mg^{2+} and grown for 2 hours in a shaker at 300 rpm. Each culture was split into two tubes, with one tube designated as a no-peptide control and the second tube where a test peptide was added. LL-37, KR-12, RI-10, and KE-10 were added to a final concentration of

1.25 µM, 5 µM, 5 µM, and 5 µM, respectively. These cultures were further grown for 4 hours at

37°C in a roller drum at 60 rpm.

Microscopy and image analysis

Cell morphology was observed and single-cell fluorescence to measure transcriptional reporter

activity was performed using phase contrast and fluorescence microscopy as previously

described (2). 3 µl of the cells were immobilized on a 1% agarose pad and observed using a

Nikon TiE fluorescent microscope with a TI2-S-HU attachable mechanical stage and a perfect

focus system (PFS). The images were captured using a Teledyne Photometrics Prime 95B

sCMOS camera with 1x1 binning. YFP and CFP fluorescence was imaged using a 100 ms

exposure time at 20% intensity. Image acquisition was done using Metamorph software version

7.10.3.279 (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA). The background fluorescence was determined

using MG1655 cells grown under the same conditions. The average cell fluorescence was

quantified using ImageJ (40) and the MicrobeJ plugin (41). Data from independent replicates

was plotted using R.

Minimum inhibitory/bactericidal concentration (MIC/MBC) testing

The antibacterial activity of the peptides against *E. coli* MG1655, E423-17, E416-17, and 25922

strains was evaluated using a previously established protocol (42). Briefly, a peptide

concentration gradient with twofold dilution was prepared in the 96-well polystyrene microplate

at 10 µl per well. Bacteria were grown to the exponential phase in MHB, TSB, or supplemented

MinA. It was then diluted to ~10^5 CFU/ml in MHB, TSB, or supplemented MinA with 0.1 mM

$MgSO_4$, and partitioned into the 96-well microplate at 90 µl per well. After overnight incubation at

37°C, readings were taken at 600 nm using a ChroMate 4300 Microplate Reader at (GMI,

Ramsey, MN). The minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC), represented as ranges, was

determined for wells without bacterial growth. For minimum bactericidal concentration (MBC)

determination, aliquots of 30 µl from growth-absent wells were plated on MH agar plates, and

the lowest peptide concentration with no isolated colony was considered the MBC. Results were

expressed in µM.

Membrane permeabilization

The peptide ladder was prepared as described for the antibacterial assay in a black COSTAR

96-well plate. Propidium iodide (PI) (MP Biomedicals, Solon, OH) was prepared in the dark and

dissolved in DMSO (Thermo Fisher Scientific, NY) to 20 mM. This PI stock solution was further

diluted to 1 mM with water and 2 µl of 1 mM PI was added to each well. An overnight culture of

E. coli K12 MG1655 was inoculated into 1xMinA supplemented with 0.2% glucose, 0.1%

casamino acids, 0.1mM $MgSO_4$, and grown to exponential phase. It was then diluted to OD_{600}

0.11 in the same media, and 88 µl was added to each well. The plate was incubated at 37℃ with

continuous shaking in a FLUOstar Omega (BMG LABTECH, NC) microplate reader. The sample

was read every 5 minutes for 24 cycles with excitation and emission wavelengths of 584 nm and

620 nm, respectively.

Killing kinetics

E. coli K12 MG1655 was grown to the exponential phase (OD_{600} ~ 0.3) in 1xMinA supplemented

with 0.2% glucose, 0.1% casamino acids, 1 mM $MgSO_4$. The culture was diluted to OD_{600} 0.001

(~10^5 CFU/ml) in 1xMinA supplemented with 0.2% glucose, 0.1% casamino acids, 0.1mM

$MgSO_4$. One milliliter of bacterial suspension was then mixed with LL-37 (4 µM, 2× MIC), KR-12

(8 µM, 2× MIC) or RI-10 (32 µM) and incubated at 37°C. After 15, 30, 60, 90, and 120 minutes

of incubation, 50 µl was taken and serially diluted with 1×PBS. Then, 50 µl of the diluted

suspension was plated on MH agar Agar plates. The plates were incubated overnight at 37°C

for bacterial CFU determination.

Membrane depolarization

An overnight culture of *E. coli* K12 MG1655 was inoculated into 1xMinA supplemented with

0.2% glucose, 0.1% casamino acids, 1 mM $MgSO_4$, and grown to exponential phase. Bacteria

were washed with 1×PBS, re-suspended in twice the volume of 1×PBS containing 25 mM

glucose, and incubated at 37°C for 15 minutes. Then, 500 nM (final concentration) of the

DiBAC4 (3) bis-(1,3-dibutylbarbituric acid) trimethine oxonol (ANASPEC, CA) was added and

vortexed gently. Aliquots of 90 µl of the energized bacteria solution were loaded to the 96 well

plates (Corning COSTAR, AZ) and placed in a FLUOstar Omega microplate reader (BMG

LABTECH, NC). Fluorescence was read for 15 min at excitation and emission wavelengths of

485 nm and 520 nm, respectively. Then, 10 µl of peptide solutions were added and fluorescence

readings were recorded for 45 min. Triton X-100 (0.1%) was used as a positive control.

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Author contributions

S.S.Y. and G.W. conceived the experiments. All authors planned the experiments, designed the

methodology, and performed data analysis. S.A.A., A.F.M., and A.M. performed the

experiments. All authors contributed to the writing and editing of the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

Materials and resource availability

Requests for strains and plasmids generated in this study should be directed to and will be

fulfilled by the lead contact, Srujana S. Yadavalli (sam.yadavalli@rutgers.edu). Further

information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by

Srujana S. Yadavalli (sam.yadavalli@rutgers.edu) and Guangshun Wang (gwang@unmc.edu).

Data availability

The main manuscript and its supporting files include all data generated or analyzed during this

study.

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Figure legends

Figure 1. Membrane permeabilization (A-C) and depolarization (D-F) activity of a series of LL-37, KR-12, and RI-10 in *E. coli* K-12 MG1655. The assay was performed in supplemented MinA with 0.1 mM $MgSO_4$. RFU: Relative fluorescence intensity. Data are represented as mean ± range for two independent replicates.

Figure 2. PhoQP-regulated transcription and cell morphology of *E. coli* cells treated with sub-MIC levels of antimicrobial peptides. (A) PhoQP-dependent promoter P_{mgrB}-*yfp* reporter activity, **(B)** phase contrast micrographs, and **(C)** quantification of cell lengths of *E. coli* MG1655 (TIM92) cells grown in the presence of sub-MIC levels of antimicrobial peptides LL-37 (1.25 µM), KR-12 (5 µM), RI-10 (5 µM), and KE-10 (5 µM). Mean and median values obtained from 4 biological replicates are shown in red dots and grey bars, respectively. The number of cells analyzed is indicated by *n*. P-values indicate the results of a Student's t-test: ****$P \leq 0.0001$, *$P \leq 0.05$, and "ns" = $P > 0.05$. Scale bar = 5 µm.

Figure 3. PhoQP-regulated transcription and cell morphology of Δ*queE* and Δ*phoQ* cells treated with sub-MIC levels of antimicrobial peptides. (A) Phase contrast micrographs, **(B, D)** PhoQP-dependent promoter P_{mgrB}-*yfp* reporter activity, and **(C, E)** quantification of cell lengths of Δ*phoQ* (TIM100) cells and Δ*queE* (SAM31) cells grown in the presence of sub-MIC levels of the antimicrobial peptides LL-37 (1.25 µM), KR-12 (5 µM), RI-10 (5 µM), and KE-10 (5 µM). Mean and median values obtained from 4 biological replicates are shown in red dots and grey bars, respectively. The number of cells analyzed is indicated by *n*. P-values indicate the results of a Student's t-test: ****$P \leq 0.0001$, ***$P \leq 0.001$, *$P \leq 0.05$, and "ns" = $P > 0.05$. Scale bar = 5 µm.

Figure 4. PhoQP-regulated transcription and cell morphology of Δ*mgrB* cells treated with sub-MIC levels of antimicrobial peptides. (A) PhoQP-dependent promoter P_{mgrB}-*yfp* reporter activity in Δ*mgrB* (AML20) cells, **(B)** Phase contrast micrographs, and **(C, D)** quantification of

cell lengths of ∆*mgrB* cells and ∆*mgrB* ∆*queE* cells grown in the presence of sub-MIC levels of

the antimicrobial peptides LL-37 (1.25 µM), KR-12 (5 µM), RI-10 (5 µM), and KE-10 (5 µM).

Mean and median values obtained from 4 biological replicates are shown in red dots and grey

bars, respectively. The number of cells analyzed is indicated by *n*. P-values indicate the results

of a Student's t-test: ****$P \leq 0.0001$, **$P \leq 0.01$, *$P \leq 0.05$, and "ns" = $P > 0.05$. Scale bar = 5

µm.

Figure 5. Schematic overview of peptide stress response through the *E. coli* PhoQ-PhoP

signaling system. (A) At high concentrations, toxic or antimicrobial peptides affect membrane

integrity and cause damage, leading to cell death. At sub-MIC levels, both toxic and non-toxic

peptides are sensed by the signaling systems, such as PhoQ/PhoP, which control the gene

expression under peptide stress, leading to physiological changes, including cell elongation and

modification of the outer cell membrane. **(B)** At physiological magnesium concentration, PhoQ is

strongly stimulated by specific cationic peptides, and some PhoQ molecules are inhibited by the

small protein regulator, MgrB, leading to an intermediate level of PhoQ activation. In the

absence of MgrB, PhoQ is not inhibited, and when cells are exposed to peptides, PhoQ is

strongly activated, resulting in maximal activation of this signaling system.

Tables and Figures

Table 1. Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) and minimum bactericidal concentration

(MBC) values for LL-37 and its derivatives against *E. coli* K-12 MG1655. MIC values (µM) of

antimicrobial peptide LL-37 and its derivatives KR-12, RI-10, and KE-10 against *E. coli* K-12

MG1655 in supplemented minimal medium (Min A), Mueller Hinton broth (MHB), and tryptic soy

broth (TSB). The corresponding MBC values (µM) are shown within parentheses. Gentamicin is

included as a bactericidal antibiotic control. Data represent values obtained from three

independent biological replicates.

Strain	Media	LL-37	KR-12	RI-10	KE-10	Gentamicin
E. coli K-12 MG1655	Min A	2 (2)	8-16 (16)	>64 (>64)	>64 (>64)	0.5-1 (1)
	MHB	8 (8)	16-32 (32)	>64 (>64)	>64 (>64)	0.5-1 (1)
	10% MHB	2 (4)	2 (2)	>64 (>64)	>64 (>64)	ND
	TSB	8 (16)	16 (32)	>64 (>64)	>64 (>64)	1-2 (2)
E. coli K-12 MG1655 Δ*mgrB*	Min A	2 (2)	8 (16)	>64 (>64)	>64 (>64)	-
	MHB	8 (8)	8-16 (16)	>64 (>64)	>64 (>64)	-
	10% MHB	2 (2)	2 (2)	>64 (>64)	>64 (>64)	-
	TSB	8-16 (32)	16 (32)	>64 (>64)	>64 (>64)	-

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Supporting Information

Tables

Table S1. Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) and Minimum Bactericidal Concentration (MBC) values for LL-37 and its derivatives against *E. coli* strains. MIC values (µM) of antimicrobial peptide LL-37 and its derivatives KR-12 and RI-10 against different *E. coli* strains in supplemented minimal medium (Min A), Mueller Hinton broth (MHB), and tryptic soy broth (TSB). The corresponding MBC values (µM) are shown within parentheses. Data represent values obtained from three independent biological replicates.

E. coli strains	Media	LL-37	KR-12	RI-10	Gentamicin
E.coli E423-17	Min A	2-4 (4)	8 (8)	>64 (>64)	2 (2)
	MHB	4-8 (8)	32 (32)	>64 (>64)	1 (1)
	TSB	4-8 (8)	32 (>32)	>64 (>64)	2 (4)
E.coli E416-17	Min A	4 (4)	4-8 (8)	>64 (>64)	2 (2)
	MHB	8 (8)	16 (16)	>64 (>64)	1 (2)
	TSB	8-16 (32)	16-32 (32)	>64 (>64)	4 (4)
E.coli 25922	Min A	2-4 (8)	1-2 (16)	>64 (>64)	2 (4)
	MHB	8 (8)	16 (32)	>64 (>64)	1 (2)
	TSB	8 (32)	32 (>32)	>64 (>64)	2-4 (4)

Table S2. List of peptides used in the study.

Peptide	Length	Amino acid sequence	Reference
LL-37	37	LLGDFFRKSKEKIGKEFKRIVQRIKDFLRNLVPRTES	(19)
KR-12	12	KRIVQRIKDFLR	(24)
RI-10	10	RIVQRIKDFL	(3)
KE-10	10	KEKIGKEFKR	(4)

Table S3. List of human LL-37 fragments that share the key recognition sequence for bacterial sensing (bolded).

Name	Peptide amino acid sequence
LL-37	LLGDFFRKSKEKIGKEF**KRIVQRIKDFLR**NLVPRTES
LL-23	LLGDFFRKSKEKIGKEFKRIVQR
LL-29	LLGDFFRKSKEKIGKEF**KRIVQRIKDFLR**
KR-20	**KRIVQRIKDFLR**NLVPRTES
KS-27	KSKEKIGKEF**KRIVQRIKDFLR**NLVPR
KS-30	KSKEKIGKEF**KRIVQRIKDFLR**NLVPRTES
RK-31	RKSKEKIGKEF**KRIVQRIKDFLR**NLVPRTES

Table S4. List of strains used in the study.

Strain	Relevant genotype	Reference/source
E. coli K12 MG1655	λ^- *rph-1*	*E. coli* Genetic Stock Center #7740
E. coli E423-17	Clinical antibiotic-resistant isolate	Wang lab, University of Nebraska Medical Center
E. coli E416-17	Clinical antibiotic-resistant isolate	Wang lab, University of Nebraska Medical Center
E. coli 25922	O6 isolate, reference strain for antibiotic susceptibility testing	ATCC
AML20	MG1655 $\Delta mgrB$ λ_{att} (P_{mgrB}-yfp) HK_{att} (P_{tetA}-*cfp*)	(5)
JNC21	MG1655 $\Delta mgrB$ $\Delta queE$::kan λ_{att} (P_{mgrB}-*yfp*) HK_{att} (P_{tetA}-*cfp*). kan^r	(6)
NRS6	MG1655 $\Delta mgrB$::kan $\Delta phoQ$ λ_{att}::($P_{mgrBt7a}$-*yfp*) HK_{att}::(P_{tetA}-*cfp*)	This work
SAM31	MG1655 $\Delta queE$ λ_{att} (P_{mgrB}-*yfp*) HK_{att} (P_{tetA}-*cfp*)	(6)
TIM92	MG1655 λ_{att} (P_{mgrB}-yfp) HK_{att} (P_{tetA}-*cfp*)	(7)
TIM100	MG1655 $\Delta phoQ$ λ_{att}::(P_{mgrB}-*yfp*) HK_{att}::(P_{tetA}-*cfp*)	(7)
TIM166	MG1655 $\Delta phoQ$ λ_{att}::($P_{mgrBt7a}$-*yfp*) HK_{att}::(P_{tetA}-*cfp*)	(7)

Figures

Figure S1. Killing kinetics LL-37, KR-12, and RI-10 against *E. coli* K-12 MG1655. Cells were

treated with peptides at indicated concentrations in supplemented MinA with 0.1 mM MgSO$_4$.

Data are represented as mean ± range for two biological replicates.

Figure S2. PhoQP-regulated transcription and cell lengths in *phoPQ* and *mgrBt7a* reporter cells treated with sub-MIC levels of antimicrobial peptides. (A, C) PhoQP-dependent promoter reporter activity in wild-type (TIM166) or Δ*mgrB* (NRS6) cells, and **(B, D)** quantification of cell lengths of wild-type or Δ*mgrB* cells, grown in the presence of sub-MIC levels of the antimicrobial peptides LL-37 (1.25 µM), KR-12 (5 µM), RI-10 (5 µM), and KE-10 (5 µM). Mean and median values obtained from 3 biological replicates are shown in red dots and grey bars, respectively. The number of cells analyzed is indicated by *n*. P-values indicate the results of a Student's t-test: ****P ≤ 0.0001, ***P ≤ 0.001, **P ≤ 0.01, *P ≤ 0.05, and "ns" = P > 0.05. Scale bar = 5 µm.

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