A transcription factor-sRNA-mediated double-negative feedback loop confers pathogen-specific control of quorum-sensing genes

Authors

Ameya A. Mashruwala[1,2,3], Kaitlin Decker[1,2,5], Chenyi Fei[1,2,4], Julie Valastyan[1,2], and Bonnie L. Bassler[1,2]*

Affiliations

[1]Department of Molecular Biology, Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey 08544, USA

[2]The Howard Hughes Medical Institute, Chevy Chase, MD 20815, USA

[3]Current address: The Stowers Institute for Medical Research, Kansas City, MO, 64110

[4]Current address: Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA 02139

[5]Current address: Rutgers University, Piscataway, NJ, 08854

*Correspondence to: bbassler@princeton.edu

Abstract

The cell-to-cell communication process called quorum sensing enables bacteria to

synchronize collective behaviors. Quorum sensing relies on the production, release, and

detection of signaling molecules called autoinducers. In *Vibrio cholerae*, the VqmA

transcription factor, following binding of the DPO autoinducer, activates expression of the

gene encoding the VqmR small regulatory RNA. VqmR controls traits including biofilm

formation. Here, we identify repressors of DPO-VqmA-VqmR signaling. We focus on one

identified repressor, the LuxT transcription factor. We show that LuxT represses *vqmR*

transcription. VqmR post-transcriptionally represses *luxT* translation. This arrangement

forms a double-negative feedback loop between the two regulators. Reciprocal control

hinges on the N-terminal 8 amino acids of LuxT. The nucleotide sequence encoding this

LuxT region serves as the VqmR binding site in the *luxT* mRNA and the amino acids

specified by this same N-terminal region are required for LuxT to bind the *vqmR* promoter.

This same LuxT N-terminal region also expands the DNA motifs to which LuxT can bind.

We show this regulatory circuit is unique to *V. cholerae* and closely related species and

absent from other vibrios. We define the set of LuxT-controlled genes in *V. cholerae* and

show that LuxT promotes biofilm formation, a key requirement for successful colonization

of eukaryotic hosts.

Importance

Bacterial quorum sensing enables control of collective behaviors. In *Vibrio cholerae*, the

DPO-VqmA-VqmR quorum-sensing circuit governs key processes, including biofilm

formation. Here, we identify a double-negative feedback loop between the transcription

factor LuxT and the small RNA VqmR. This regulatory circuit depends on an eight amino

acid N-terminal region that exists only in *V. cholerae* LuxT and LuxT from its close

relatives. This short peptide sequence confers three distinct functions: It enables LuxT to

repress *vqmR*, renders *luxT* mRNA susceptible to VqmR repression, and governs which

DNA motifs LuxT can bind. Our findings reveal a pathogen-specific regulatory module that

links small RNA targeting of mRNAs to transcription factor DNA binding specificity. The

results show how evolution tailors bacterial regulatory circuits to adapt to different

environments.

Introduction

Quorum sensing (QS) is a process of cell-to-cell communication that bacteria use to

coordinate group behaviors (1, 2). QS involves the production, release, and population-

wide detection of extracellular signal molecules called autoinducers (AIs) (1, 2). At low

cell density, AI concentration is below the threshold for detection and genes required to

perform individual behaviors are expressed (2, 3). As population density increases, AIs

accumulate and interact with their partner receptors (2–4). AI-bound receptors drive the

transition from the low cell density to the high cell density gene expression pattern, and

consequently, bacteria enact group behaviors (5–10). In the human pathogen *Vibrio*

cholerae, the causative agent of the cholera disease, QS regulates traits including

virulence factor production and biofilm formation (11–14). Regarding *V. cholerae* biofilms,

they form at low cell density, and at high cell density, QS represses biofilm formation and

promotes biofilm dispersal (11, 15, 16).

V. cholerae possesses multiple QS systems that operate in parallel (14, 17–21). The

current work focuses on the QS system that relies on the AI called DPO (3,5-

dimethylpyrazin-2-ol), which is produced via a threonine dehydrogenase (Tdh)-

dependent mechanism (18, 22). DPO is bound by the VqmA transcription factor (18). At

high cell density, the DPO-VqmA complex activates expression of *vqmR,* encoding the

VqmR small RNA (sRNA) (18, 23). VqmR post-transcriptionally regulates gene

expression, including repressing genes required for biofilm formation (18, 23).

In addition to extracting information encoded in DPO, VqmA also acts as an information

processing hub that enables *V. cholerae* to integrate cues derived from the environment

and the human host, such as oxygen levels and bile salts (24). VqmA indirectly perceives

oxygen through cysteine residues that form redox-responsive disulfide bonds. In the

presence of both oxygen and DPO, VqmA forms a C134-C134 intermolecular disulfide

bond that enhances binding to the *vqmR* promoter. Indeed, the VqmA$_{C134A}$ protein, which

cannot form this disulfide bond, exhibits diminished DNA binding capacity (24).

Here, we perform a genetic screen to identify additional regulators of the DPO-VqmA-

VqmR QS circuit. We focus on the LuxT transcription factor revealed in our analysis. We

define the mechanism by which LuxT represses *vqmR* expression, we show that VqmR

represses LuxT production, and we demonstrate how reciprocal regulation shapes QS-

controlled behaviors. Our assessment of the distribution of this LuxT-VqmR double-

negative feedback loop shows it is restricted to *V. cholerae* and its close relatives due to

the presence of a 24 base pair (bp) sequence in the *V. cholerae luxT* mRNA to which

VqmR binds, a sequence that is lacking in other vibrios (Figure 1). Our findings indicate

that reciprocal LuxT-VqmR regulation could provide functions specific to niches inhabited

by *V. cholerae*.

Results

A genetic screen in *V. cholerae* reveals repressors of DPO-VqmA-VqmR QS signal

transduction. QS information, cues from the local environment, and human host-derived

stimuli are all integrated by VqmA to modulate its transcriptional activity (24). Given this

understanding, we wondered whether additional inputs also regulate VqmA-directed QS

signaling. An earlier screen revealed that VqmA activates *vqmR* expression (23). Here,

we carry out the opposite screen: a transposon mutagenesis screen for repressors of

vqmR. Our strategy exploited a partially impaired VqmA protein, VqmA$_{C134A}$, that exhibits

reduced DNA binding capacity at the *vqmR* promoter (24). Using the VqmA$_{C134A}$ allele

enabled us to conduct a simple, visual blue-white colony screen using a transcriptional

reporter in which the *vqmR* promoter drives *lacZ* expression (hereafter P*vqmR-lacZ*, with

the P prefix denoting promoter). Because basal P*vqmR-lacZ* activity is low in *V. cholerae*

carrying VqmA$_{C134A}$, colonies are white/pale blue, unlike *V. cholerae* colonies possessing

wildtype (WT) VqmA, which are bright blue (Supplementary Figure S1). We reasoned that

V. cholerae vqmA$_{C134A}$ P*vqmR-lacZ* mutants that had obtained transposon insertions in

genes encoding repressors of DPO-VqmA-VqmR signaling would drive higher P*vqmR-*

lacZ expression and be identifiable as blue colonies on petri plates (Supplementary

Figure S1). Based on this logic, we mutagenized Δ*tdh vqmA$_{C134A-FLAG}$* P*vqmR-lacZ V.*

cholerae and screened for blue colonies in the presence of X-gal. We have previously

shown that the *vqmA$_{C134A-FLAG}$* allele accurately reflects VqmA protein abundance and

function (24). Using a strain lacking *tdh* for the screen ensured that hits would be restricted

to genes encoding components that act on signal relay (*vqmA* or *vqmR*) not signal

production (*tdh*). We did not supply DPO during the screen. The strategy was to keep the

endogenous P*vqmR-lacZ* activity as low as possible to enhance detection of insertion

mutants exhibiting even modest increases. We assessed ~20,000 colonies and identified

17 mutants, representing 14 unique transposon insertion sites. The mutated genes

encoded 6 regulatory proteins, 4 components involved in transport and metabolism, and

4 genes with undefined functions.

To confirm the hits from our screen, we engineered P*vqmR-lux* as a reporter to quantify

vqmR promoter activity (23, 24). We introduced the P*vqmR-lux* fusion onto the

chromosomes of Δ*tdh V. cholerae* possessing either *vqmA$_{FLAG}$* or *vqmA$_{C134A-FLAG}$*. In the

absence of DPO, P*vqmR-lux* activity was ~27-fold higher in the Δ*tdh vqmA$_{FLAG}$* strain than

in the Δ*tdh vqmA$_{C134A-FLAG}$* strain, showing that VqmA$_{C134A-FLAG}$ is, as expected, impaired

in activity. Supplementation with DPO increased *vqmR-lux* activity ~4-fold in the Δ*tdh*

vqmA$_{FLAG}$ strain and ~37-fold in the Δ*tdh vqmA$_{C134A-FLAG}$* strain (Figure 2A, B,

respectively). Thus, the P*vqmR-lux* reporter responds properly to DPO-mediated VqmA

activation, and exploiting the VqmA$_{C134A-FLAG}$ mutant expands the dynamic range of the

AI response assay.

To verify that components identified in our screen influence DPO-VqmA-VqmR signaling,

we deleted each of the identified genes from the chromosome of the Δ*tdh vqmA$_{C134A-FLAG}$*

P*vqmR-lux V. cholerae* strain. Deletions of four of the candidate genes, *vc0122, vc2614,*

vca0566, and *vca0917* resulted in 9-, 13.5-, 2.8-, and 3.3-fold increases in P*vqmR-lux*

activity, respectively (Figure 2C; growth curves for the strains are provided in

Supplementary Figure S2 and the phenotypes following complementation of the deleted

genes are shown in Supplementary Figure S3). Some temporal differences occur across

strains. For simplicity, throughout this work we report maximal fold changes and OD$_{600}$

values during early-exponential growth. The remaining ten genes did not significantly alter

P*vqmR-lux* output (Supplementary Figure S4). It is possible that these ten genes were

false positives or that they only influence *vqmR* expression on solid medium, etc. We did

not study them further. The remainder of the present work is focused on *vc0122, vc2614,*

vca0566, and *vca0917*. These genes encode Acy, Crp, WigR, and LuxT, respectively.

LuxT represses *vqmR* transcription. The putative repressors identified in our screen

could decrease DPO-VqmA-VqmR signaling by repressing expression of either *vqmA* or

vqmR. To distinguish between these two possibilities, we engineered a Δ*tdh* Δ*vqmA V.*

cholerae strain carrying P$_{BAD}$-*vqmA* at a neutral chromosomal locus. The strain also

harbors the chromosomal P*vqmR-lux* fusion. We refer to this strain simply as the P$_{BAD}$-

vqmA strain. We introduced deletions of *acy*, *crp*, *wigR*, and *luxT* into the P$_{BAD}$-*vqmA*

strain and measured P*vqmR-lux* output. Our rationale is as follows: VqmA is required to

activate *vqmR* expression. In the P$_{BAD}$-*vqmA* strain, following the addition of arabinose,

VqmA is produced and activates P*vqmR-lux*. Since *vqmA* is driven by a synthetic

promoter, it is not subject to native regulation. Thus, if deletion of a gene(s) identified in

our screen results in increased P*vqmR-lux* activity, then *vqmR* must be the target of that

particular repressor. By contrast, if no change in P*vqmR-lux* occurs, then we can infer

that repression must occur through changes in *vqmA* transcription, VqmA activity, or
VqmA turnover. Figure 3A shows that deletion of *crp* and *luxT* from the P_{BAD}-*vqmA* strain
resulted in ~13.2-fold and 2.5-fold increases in P*vqmR-lux* activity suggesting that *crp*
and *luxT* modulate VqmR levels. By contrast, no change in P*vqmR-lux* activity occurred
when *acy* and *wigR* were deleted, suggesting they modify *vqmA* expression or VqmA
abundance or activity (Figure 3A; growth curves for the strains are provided in
Supplementary Figure S5). We quantified $VqmA_{FLAG}$ abundance in the Δ*tdh V. cholerae*
strain when *acy* or *wigR* was deleted. We note that, here, $vqmA_{FLAG}$ is driven by its
endogenous promoter. We used the Δ*tdh* Δ*crp* and Δ*tdh* Δ*luxT* strains as controls for
comparison. Our logic was that if Acy and WigR modify *vqmA* transcription or VqmA
abundance, then in the Δ*acy* and Δ*wigR* strains, VqmA levels would differ from those in
the parent strain. Neither mutant displayed any change in $VqmA_{FLAG}$ abundance
(Supplementary Figure S6). Acy and WigR could affect VqmA function; we have not
examined that mechanism.
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156   For the remainder of this study, we characterize the role of LuxT in *vqmR* regulation. *V.*
157   *cholerae* LuxT ($LuxT_{Vc}$) is a transcription factor, the mRNA of which was previously
158   identified as a direct target of repression by the VqmR sRNA (23). Our identification of
159     $LuxT_{Vc}$ as a repressor of *vqmR* suggests that VqmR and $LuxT_{Vc}$ constitute a double-
160   negative feedback loop.
161

To probe whether LuxT regulates *vqmR* by transcriptional repression, we analyzed the
vqmR promoter for a consensus LuxT binding sequence. *Vibrio harveyi* LuxT ($LuxT_{Vh}$)
shares 75% amino acid identity with $LuxT_{Vc}$, making it likely that both proteins bind similar
DNA sequences. A prior study in *V. harveyi* identified a LuxT ($LuxT_{Vh}$) binding site in the
promoter of *qrr*1 (25). Inspection of the *V. cholerae vqmR* promoter ($PvqmR_{Vc}$) using the
site in the *qrr*1 promoter as a guide, revealed a potential LuxT binding site located at -28
to -9 upstream of the $vqmR_{Vc}$ transcriptional start site. To determine if $LuxT_{Vc}$ binds this
motif, we purified 6X-His-$LuxT_{Vc}$ and combined it in an electrophoretic mobility shift assay
(EMSA) with a probe containing *V. cholerae* $PvqmR_{Vc}$ (-111 to +49) or, as a control, the
same probe containing a scrambled version of the putative LuxT binding sequence

(P*vqmR*$_{Vc}$ scrambled). 6X-His-LuxT$_{Vc}$ bound to P*vqmR*$_{Vc}$ but not P*vqmR*$_{Vc}$ scrambled,

suggesting that LuxT directly represses *vqmR* expression (Figure 3B). We refer to the

LuxT binding motif in P*vqmR*$_{Vc}$ as Motif 1. Since we already know that the VqmR sRNA

represses *luxT*, we conclude that LuxT and VqmR interact in a double-negative feedback

loop.

LuxT-VqmR feedback loops are present only in *V. cholerae* and *V. cholerae*-like

vibrio species. Given that both LuxT and VqmR are present across vibrios, we wondered

whether their regulatory interactions are likewise conserved across the genus. Using

bioinformatic analyses, we compared the DNA sequences encoding P*vqmR* and the *luxT*

region targeted by *vqmR* from representative strains across sequenced vibrio species.

First, we discuss LuxT repression of P*vqmR*. Vibrio P*vqmR* sequence comparisons are

shown in a pair-wise sequence similarity color-map (Figure 4A, blue indicating highest

similarity). We compared a 50-nucleotide region from -48 to +2 relative to the *vqmR*

transcriptional start sites. This sequence space contains 20 nucleotides corresponding to

the LuxT$_{Vc}$ binding site (-28 to -9), together with 20 upstream and 10 downstream

nucleotides. We analyzed one representative genome across sixty-three different vibrios

that harbor both *luxT* and *vqmR*. For simplicity, only the LuxT consensus binding site is

shown in the figure, and it varies across P*vqmR* sequences. To test LuxT tolerance for

variation in binding site, we chose a few similar and quite different putative LuxT binding

sites from the set of *vqmR* promoters and performed EMSA analyses using 6X-His-

LuxT$_{Vc}$. The test sites come from P*vqmR* in *Vibrio metoecus*, *Vibrio splendidus*, and *V.*

harveyi (denoted P*vqmR*$_{Vm}$, P*vqmR*$_{Vs}$, and P*vqmR*$_{Vh}$, respectively, and are displayed in

Figure 4A). The *V. metoecus* P*vqmR* sequence is in the same cluster as the site bound

by LuxT$_{Vc}$ in P*vqmR*$_{Vc}$, differing by only 3 bp (sequence differences are highlighted in red

in Figure 4A). Not surprisingly, like P*vqmR*$_{Vc}$, LuxT$_{Vc}$ bound P*vqmR*$_{Vm}$ (Figure 4B). By

contrast, the LuxT binding sequences from *V. splendidus* and *V. harveyi*, which differ from

that in P*vqmR*$_{Vc}$ by ~40-50%, were not bound by LuxT$_{Vc}$ (Figure 4B). These findings

suggest that LuxT repression of P*vqmR* occurs only via DNA sequences present in *V.*

cholerae and closely related vibrios.

To further probe this hypothesis, we examined LuxT regulation of *vqmR* in *V. harveyi* by

qPCR. In this case, we predict that LuxT does not bind the *vqmR* promoter. As a positive

control for LuxT-dependent regulation, we measured expression of *swrZ*, a known *V.*

harveyi LuxT target (26). *vqmR* expression was the same in the *V. harveyi* parent and

Δ*luxT* strains (Supplementary Figure S7). By contrast, *swrZ* expression was ~100-fold

higher in the *V. harveyi* Δ*luxT* strain than the parent. Together, these results support the

conclusion that LuxT does not regulate *vqmR* in *V. harveyi*, consistent with the absence

of a LuxT binding site in the *V. harveyi vqmR* promoter.

Now we discuss VqmR repression of *luxT*. We have previously shown that the VqmR

sRNA binds to a 24 bp region encoding the first 8-amino acids of $LuxT_{Vc}$ (23). To

determine whether this N-terminal 8 amino acid extension is present in other vibrio LuxT

proteins, we compared this 24 bp region in *luxT* DNA sequences across vibrio genomes.

A pair-wise sequence similarity color-map shows that across vibrios, *luxT* genes separate

into multiple clusters. A majority cluster into a group that includes *V. harveyi*, and there is

a smaller cluster possessing *luxT* genes resembling that of *V. cholerae* (Figure 4C).

Notably, the *V. cholerae* start codon (TTG) in the *luxT* sequence is absent in vibrios that

are not closely related to *V. cholerae* (Figure 4C). Rather, in *V. harveyi* and its relatives,

luxT transcription is predicted to initiate at a downstream, ATG start codon. Consequently,

we predict that *V. harveyi* $LuxT_{Vh}$ and vibrios in the $LuxT_{Vh}$ cluster will produce a shorter

LuxT isoform that lacks the 8 N-terminal amino acids present in *V. cholerae* LuxT. These

findings imply that VqmR might only repress production of $LuxT_{Vc}$ but not LuxT in vibrios

that contain LuxT proteins that cluster with $LuxT_{Vh}$.

The N-terminal 8 amino acids in *V. cholerae* LuxT expand the DNA motifs to which

LuxT can bind. Our bioinformatic results suggest that the 24 bp region encoding the first

8 amino acids of $LuxT_{Vc}$ is specific to *V. cholerae*. We wondered whether having that N-

terminal amino acid extension is accompanied by functional consequences on the ability

of $LuxT_{Vc}$ to bind DNA. To explore this idea, we purified 6X-His-$LuxT_{Vc}$ and 6X-His-$LuxT_{Vc}$

$_{Δ8-AA N-term}$, which lacks the first 8 N-terminal amino acids, and tested binding to P*vqmR*$_{Vc}$.

As expected, the probe was bound by LuxT$_{Vc}$, however, LuxT$_{Vc\ \Delta8\text{-}AA\ N\text{-}term}$ displayed

minimal binding (Figure 5A). These results show that the first 8 amino acids in LuxT$_{Vc}$ are

essential for binding to P$vqmR_{Vc}$. We also examined whether the absence of the first eight

amino acids in LuxT affected binding at other target DNA promoter sequences. As

mentioned, in *V. harveyi*, LuxT$_{Vh}$ regulates *swrZ* (P$swrZ_{Vh}$) encoding a GntR type

transcriptional regulator (26). As no LuxT-controlled genes other than *vqmR* were known

in *V. cholerae*, we assessed LuxT$_{Vc}$ binding to P$swrZ_{Vh}$ as a surrogate (see note on a *V.*

cholerae LuxT-controlled gene, *hapR*, reported during our ongoing work, in the

Discussion (27)). Both LuxT$_{Vc}$ and LuxT$_{Vc\ \Delta8\text{-}AA\ N\text{-}term}$ bound with similar affinities to

P$swrZ_{Vh}$, demonstrating that while the first 8 amino acids of LuxT are necessary to bind

P$vqmR_{Vc}$, they are dispensable for binding to P$swrZ_{Vh}$ (Figure 5B). Below, we explore

LuxT$_{Vc}$ regulation of *V. cholerae* genes beyond *vqmR*.

To pinpoint the sequence in the -110 to +20 P$swrZ_{Vh}$ probe that is bound by LuxT$_{Vc}$, we

assayed seven overlapping DNA fragments spanning the region. Comparison of the

binding profiles suggested that multiple, non-continuous sequences are bound by LuxT$_{Vc}$

(Supplementary Figure S8). Consistent with this result, alignment of the P$swrZ$ sequences

across vibrio species revealed two conserved sequence segments separated by 18 bp.

These sequences are ~15 bp in length, divergently oriented, and differ by four bp. The

first sequence is TAATCAGTACGCTGT (designated Motif 2L (for Left); -73 to -59), and

the second is AACTACGTACTGTTT (designated Motif 2R (for Right); -41 to -27) (Figure

5C, Supplementary Figures S9 and S10). Motif 2L and Motif 2R share a GTAC core with

the Motif 1 sequence, however their flanking regions differ. Notably, neither Motif 2L or

2R exist in P$vqmR_{Vc}$.

To test whether Motif 2L and Motif 2R support LuxT$_{Vc}$ binding, we assayed a probe

spanning P$swrZ_{Vh}$ -110 to +20 (containing both Motif 2L and Motif 2R) and compared it to

probes in which one or both motifs were scrambled. Probes containing at least one intact

motif supported LuxT$_{Vc}$ binding, while binding did not occur when both motifs were

scrambled (Figure 5D). Incubation of LuxT$_{Vc}$ with the P$swrZ_{Vh}$ probe containing both

motifs resulted in two band shifts, whereas probes containing only a single motif yielded

one band shift. These results suggest that LuxT can bind Motif 2L and Motif 2R individually

and simultaneously. Other TetR family proteins, such as QacR, also bind to motifs located

in close proximity (28). We also assessed binding of $LuxT_{Vh}$ to various versions of $PswrZ_{Vh}$

-110 to +20 fragments. The $LuxT_{Vh}$ binding profile was similar to that of $LuxT_{Vc}$

(Supplementary Figure S11).

To examine sufficiency of Motif 2L and Motif 2R for binding by LuxT, we used 15 bp probes

containing exclusively Motif 2L or Motif 2R. Both $LuxT_{Vc}$ and $LuxT_{Vh}$ bound to these

fragments, albeit with lower affinity than to the corresponding full-length probes. Thus, the

Motif 2L and Motif 2R DNA sequences are sufficient for LuxT binding, and the flanking

residues promote stronger binding (Supplementary Figure S12).

We conclude that $LuxT_{Vc}$ can recognize Motif 1, Motif 2L, and Motif 2R. Moreover, the N-

terminal 8 amino acids in $LuxT_{Vc}$ are dispensable for $LuxT_{Vc}$ to bind $PswrZ_{Vh}$. Given that

these N-terminal 8 amino acids are required for $LuxT_{Vc}$ to bind Motif 1 in $PvqmR_{Vc}$, we

infer that harboring these amino acids expands the possibilities for *V. cholerae* LuxT to

control gene expression.

$LuxT_{Vc}$ promotes biofilm formation in *V. cholerae* at low cell density. A previous RNA-

Seq study in *V. harveyi* identified that the $LuxT_{Vh}$ regulon includes *swrZ* and ~10 genes

specifying GGDEF or EAL domain-containing proteins that synthesize and degrade,

respectively, the second messenger c-di-GMP molecule (26). In *V. cholerae,* c-di-GMP

levels influence biofilm formation (29, 30). Thus, we wondered whether $LuxT_{Vc}$ regulates

biofilm formation. To assess this possibility, we monitored colony biofilm morphologies of

the *V. cholerae* Δ*tdh* and Δ*tdh* Δ*luxT* strains. In *V. cholerae*, biofilm formation drives a

change in colony appearance from smooth to wrinkled, with the latter coinciding with an

increase in colony height (31–34). Thus, three-dimensional colony height profiles track

with biofilm formation. Figure 6 shows images of biofilm colonies and their corresponding

height profiles, quantitation of which are displayed as heatmaps. Both the Δ*tdh* and Δ*tdh*

Δ*luxT* strains failed to form biofilms.

The master high cell density QS regulator HapR is a key repressor of *V. cholerae* biofilm

formation (11, 29). Thus, we reasoned that LuxT$_{Vc}$-dependent biofilm phenotypes might

be revealed in the absence of *hapR*. Indeed, Figure 6 shows that while the Δ*tdh* Δ*hapR*

strain formed colony biofilms with heights reaching up to ~550 μm, heights of Δ*tdh* Δ*hapR*

Δ*luxT* colonies reached only ~250 μm. As expected, complementation of the Δ*hapR*

Δ*luxT* strain with *luxT* on a plasmid restored biofilm formation (Supplementary Figure

S13) Thus, *V. cholerae* forms colony biofilms only in the absence of HapR and, in this low

cell density context, LuxT$_{Vc}$ promotes biofilm formation.

Production of the VqmR sRNA at high cell density suppresses colony biofilm formation

(18, 23). To probe whether LuxT$_{Vc}$ modulates biofilm formation via control of *vqmR*, we

compared colony morphologies of the Δ*tdh* Δ*hapR* Δ*vqmA* and Δ*tdh* Δ*hapR* Δ*vqmA* Δ*luxT*

strains. VqmA is required for activation of P*vqmR*$_{Vc}$, thus in its absence, *vqmR* is not

expressed (23). The Δ*tdh* Δ*hapR* Δ*vqmA* strain formed colony biofilms similar to those of

the Δ*tdh* Δ*hapR* strain with heights reaching up to ~550 μm, while colony biofilms of the

Δ*tdh* Δ*hapR* Δ*vqmA* Δ*luxT* strain had heights of ~250 μm (Figure 6). Thus, LuxT$_{Vc}$

activates biofilm formation. Moreover, in our assays, endogenous levels of VqmA and

VqmR do not influence colony biofilm formation so LuxT$_{Vc}$ must drive biofilm formation by

a mechanism that is independent of VqmA and VqmR.

LuxT$_{Vc}$ controls a regulon of *V. cholerae* genes at high cell density. Given that LuxT$_{Vc}$

binds to distinct DNA motifs and it regulates *V. cholerae* biofilm formation independently

of VqmA-VqmR, we reasoned that LuxT$_{Vc}$ may control additional genes. To define the *V.*

cholerae LuxT$_{Vc}$-controlled regulon, we conducted RNA-Seq on the *V. cholerae* Δ*tdh*

Δ*luxT* strain carrying plasmid-borne *luxT*$_{Vc}$ under control of the arabinose promoter (p-

P$_{BAD}$-*luxT*$_{Vc}$). Following growth to high cell density in the presence and absence of

arabinose, approximately 20 genes displayed changes in expression of >2-fold (Figure

7). As anticipated, *luxT*$_{Vc}$ was the most upregulated gene in the dataset. Other LuxT$_{Vc}$-

regulated genes included ones involved in galactose and sulfate metabolism, which were

activated and repressed ~2-4 fold, respectively. Alteration of expression of a gene

specifying an orphan histidine kinase (*vc1088*, ~3-fold) occurred. *vc1088* resides

immediately adjacent to an 8-gene operon (*vc1080-vc1087*) encoding genes involved in
nitric oxide sensing and biofilm formation (35–37). Additionally, several genes specifying
hypothetical proteins or those with domains of unknown function were differentially
expressed. Other than *vc1088*, which, given its genomic context, we hypothesize is a
regulator of biofilm genes, the regulon did not harbor genes known to be involved in
biofilm formation. This result was expected because the strain used in the RNA-Seq
experiment possesses HapR, and as shown in Figure 6, HapR represses biofilm
formation at high cell density. Also, as expected, we did not identify *vqmR* because our
sample preparation was not optimized for enrichment of sRNAs. The RNA-Seq data,
together with the other findings from the above studies, suggest that LuxT acts broadly to
regulate signaling and metabolic pathways in *V. cholerae*, ranging from QS to biofilm
formation to sulfate metabolism.

Discussion
Here, we used a genetic screen to identify repressors of the *V. cholerae* DPO-VqmA-
VqmR QS circuit. Our screen revealed four genes: *acy*, *crp*, *wigR*, and *luxT*. We first
interpret our findings regarding *acy*, *crp*, *wigR* in the context of QS regulation and then
we discuss *luxT*, the gene we focused on in the current study.

The *acy* and *crp* genes encode adenylate cyclase (Acy) and the cAMP receptor protein
(Crp), respectively. Acy and Crp typically function together (38–40). Acy synthesizes
cAMP, which is bound by Crp. The Crp-cAMP complex regulates transcription of target
genes, particularly those involved in utilization of different carbon sources. Given this well-
established partnership, it is surprising that we find that Acy and Crp apparently work
independently of each other to control the DPO-VqmA-VqmR QS circuit with Acy affecting
VqmA activity, and Crp modifying P*vqmR* expression. *V. cholerae* possesses at least two
additional Crp family proteins, neither of which have been studied. One or both of them
could partner with Acy to regulate VqmA activity. WigR is a response regulator that, with
its partner kinase WigK, constitutes a two-component system that is proposed to monitor
cell wall damage (41, 42). Our finding suggests the possibility that cell wall damage feeds
into QS control of gene expression.

LuxT is a TetR-family transcriptional regulator. TetR-family proteins frequently bind small-
molecule ligands and a target DNA motif (43). We demonstrate that *V. cholerae* LuxT
binds DNA; it remains to be determined whether it binds a ligand. *luxT* is conserved
across vibrio species. In *V. harveyi*, LuxT represses expression of the gene encoding the
QS sRNA called Qrr1 at low cell density, a function conserved in several vibrio species
but not in *V. cholerae* (25). By contrast, we show that in *V. cholerae*, LuxT represses
expression of the gene encoding the VqmR sRNA, and this feature is not conserved in *V.*
harveyi. Thus, as a broader regulatory theme, LuxT represses genes encoding sRNAs
that function at the hearts of QS systems. In the context of LuxT regulation of QS
components, we note that, after we concluded our experiments, a study was published
reporting that $LuxT_{Vc}$ binds $PhapR_{Vc}$. The motif identified is similar to that in $PvqmR_{Vc}$
(Figure 5D) (27).

Our findings also reveal that VqmR post-transcriptionally represses LuxT by targeting the
mRNA region encoding its first eight amino acids. The eight N-terminal amino acid
residues are required for LuxT to bind the *vqmR* promoter. Furthermore, while $LuxT_{Vc\,\Delta8\text{-}}$
$_{AA\,N\text{-term}}$ fails to bind the *vqmR* promoter, it nonetheless retains binding to another
promoter, P*swrZ*. LuxT in other vibrios lacks this N-terminal extension. We propose that
the acquisition of the LuxT N-terminal 8 amino acids delivers three activities: it allows
repression of *luxT* by VqmR, it enables LuxT binding to the *vqmR* promoter to establish
the VqmR-LuxT double-negative feedback loop, and it promotes regulon expansion by
broadening the DNA motifs to which LuxT can bind (Figure 1). To our knowledge, this is
the first example in which the mRNA sequence that is targeted by a sRNA regulator
encodes a portion of a protein that governs that protein's DNA-binding capabilities.

Double negative feedback loops are common in biological systems requiring tight
regulation of state transitions. For instance, in bacteriophage λ, the cI and Cro proteins
mutually repress each other to control the switch between lysogenic and lytic cycles (44).
Similarly, in *Sinorhizobium meliloti*, a double negative feedback loop between the NtrBC
two-component system and the sRNA NfeR1 modulates nitrogen metabolism (45). In *V.*

cholerae, the transition from low cell density to high cell density QS modes involves

upregulation of genes encoding energetically costly processes such as motility and the

type six secretion system (7, 46, 47). Thus, the double negative feedback between LuxT

and VqmR may serve as a buffer that prevents inappropriate transitions between states

until conditions are optimal.

In *V. cholerae*, we find that LuxT promotes biofilm formation in a strain genetically locked

into expressing low cell density QS behaviors. The mechanism by which LuxT mediates

this effect remains undefined but is independent of HapR. Preliminary analyses of

promoter regions of canonical biofilm genes do not reveal recognizable LuxT binding

motifs, raising the possibility that LuxT binds to an uncharacterized DNA sequence in

these promoters or, alternatively, it indirectly regulates biofilm formation genes. That LuxT

regulates biofilm formation is particularly intriguing in light of recent work in *V. harveyi*,

where LuxT was shown to be a global regulator of gene expression at low cell density

(25, 26). Here, we primarily characterized LuxT functions in *V. cholerae* at high cell

density. Studies to identify the full *V. cholerae* LuxT regulon across different cell densities

are required to delineate the scope of its regulatory roles.

Biofilm formation is required for *V. cholerae* to colonize the anaerobic intestinal lumen of

infant mice and to form communities on human host cells (27, 48–50). Given that *luxT*

and the DPO-VqmA-VqmR QS circuit are responsive to oxygen levels and human-host

produced bile salts, future studies could examine the roles of LuxT, the DPO-VqmA-VqmR

QS circuit, and the VqmR-LuxT double negative feedback during the *V. cholerae*

infectious lifecycle (24, 27).

The regulatory logic uncovered here highlights how a modest genetic innovation, the eight

amino acid N-terminal extension in *V. cholerae* LuxT, generates a pathogen-specific

signaling architecture that links sRNA-mediated post-transcriptional control to

transcription factor DNA-binding specificity. This dual-function sequence represents, to

our knowledge, the first example in which a sRNA binding site also encodes a domain

required for the encoded protein's regulatory activity. Moreover, the LuxT-VqmR feedback

loop is restricted to *V. cholerae* and its close relatives, illustrating how QS circuits can be
rewired to produce species-specific behaviors. These findings provide conceptual insight
into evolution of new regulatory modules and help us understand how QS networks can
be tailored to particular ecological niches.

Materials and Methods:

Bacterial growth, strain construction and reagents. *Escherichia coli* Top10 and
Saccharomyces cerevisiae were used as hosts for cloning, while *E. coli* S17-1 *λpir* was
used for conjugations. Cultures of *V. cholerae* and *E. coli* were grown in LB medium at
37°C with shaking. When required, media were supplemented with streptomycin, 200
µg/mL; kanamycin, 50 µg/mL; polymyxin B, 50 µg/mL; chloramphenicol, 1 µg/mL;
spectinomycin, 200 µg/mL. Bioluminescence-reporter assays were conducted as
previously described (24). Where indicated, relative light units (RLU) denote
bioluminescence output divided by the culture optical density.

Chromosomal alterations were introduced into *V. cholerae* using multiplexed genome
editing (MuGENT) or the pRE112 suicide vector harboring the counter-selectable *sacB*
gene as previously described (24, 51). Unless otherwise specified, chromosomal DNA
from *V. cholerae* C6706 was used as the template for PCR reactions. Plasmids were
constructed using pBAD-pEVS or pRE112 as backbones and assembled using NEB Hi-
Fi reagent or yeast-recombination-assisted assembly as previously described (52).
Strains, plasmids, and oligonucleotides used in the study are listed in Supplementary
Tables 1, 2, and 3, respectively.

Gel purification and plasmid preparation kits, iProof DNA polymerase, and
Deoxynucleotide Mix were purchased from Qiagen, Bio-Rad, and New England Biolabs,
respectively.

Sequence analyses. Sequence-similarity based identification of *luxT* and *vqmR* genes
across vibrio genomes has been described (25, 53). A custom MATLAB (MathWorks;
2022) algorithm was used to search for *luxT* and *vqmR* genes in the genomes of 134

vibrio strains, each representing a distinct species. The initial search identified 63 vibrio species harboring both *luxT* and *vqmR* genes. We further analyzed these species for sequence conservation within each gene as well as their promoters. Multiple sequence alignments were performed and the output analyzed in MATLAB. A standard scoring matrix NUC44 (see ftp.ncbi.nih.gov/blast/matrices/) was used to compute similarity scores between DNA sequences. The unweighted pair group method with arithmetic mean (UPGMA) was subsequently used to cluster vibrio species with similar sequences.

Protein purification. Genes encoding 6X-His-tagged proteins were cloned into pET15b and transformed into *E. coli* BL21. Strains for protein production were cultured in LB with 100 µg/mL ampicillin and incubated at 37°C with aeration. When cultures reached an OD_{600} of 0.5, 400 µM IPTG was added to induce protein production. The cultures were further incubated at 18°C overnight. Cells were harvested via centrifugation at 4,000 rpm for 10 min. The resulting cell pellets were resuspended in 1/100 volume of lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, 150 mM NaCl, pH 8) containing 5 µM benzonase, 3 µM imidazole, 250 µg/mL lysozyme, and BugBuster Protein Extraction Reagent (Novagen). The lysate was subjected to centrifugation at 13,000 rpm for 20 min, and the clarified supernatant was combined with Ni-NTA Superflow resin (Qiagen) equilibrated with 3 µM imidazole. After allowing the resin and protein to incubate for 1 h at 4°C, the resin was subjected to a series of washes with imidazole at concentrations from 3 µM to 40 µM. Protein was eluted from the resin with buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, 150 mM NaCl, pH 8) containing 300 µM imidazole. Purified protein was dialyzed overnight at 4°C with Slide-A-Lyzer modules (Thermo Fisher) in buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, 150 mM NaCl, pH 8), concentrated, flash-frozen, and stored at -80°C.

Bioluminescence measurements. Strains harboring luciferase reporters were cultured overnight at 37°C in LB and diluted into fresh LB at a final OD_{600} = 0.0025. Where indicated, the medium was supplemented with 640 nM DPO. 150 µL of the cultures were transferred to 96-well plates with transparent bottoms. Where indicated expression of the pBAD promoter was induced with 0.007% to 0.2% arabinose. Plates were incubated at 37°C. Bioluminescence production and OD_{600} were measured using a BioTek Synergy

Neo2 HTS multimode microplate reader. Reporter activity is presented as Relative Light
Units (RLUs), which is bioluminescence divided by OD_{600}.

Transposon mutagenesis screen and identification of insertion sites. Mutagenesis
was performed as previously described using a Tn*5* transposon system carrying
kanamycin resistance (54). Transposons were introduced into the Δ*tdh vqmA*$_{C134A\text{-}FLAG}$
P*vqmR-lux V. cholerae* strain by conjugation from an *E. coli* donor. Conjugation was
limited to 2 h to reduce the likelihood of recovering sibling insertion events. Exconjugants
were selected on LB agar supplemented with kanamycin, polymyxin B, and X-gal (54).
Following overnight growth at 37°C, colonies were examined for changes in color.
Mutants displaying increased blue color relative to the plate average were purified by
restreak on LB agar containing kanamycin and polymyxin B. Transposon insertion sites
were mapped using arbitrary PCR, as described previously (54).

Electromobility gel shift assays (EMSAs). DNA probes were purchased as G-Blocks
from IDT (~200 bp) and were used as templates for PCR amplification. The resulting PCR
products were gel purified using the QIAquick Gel Purification kit (Qiagen), eluted with
sterile water, and stored at 4°C until use. Alternatively, duplex DNA oligomers (~20-30 bp)
were purchased from IDT and used in assays. To initiate EMSA assays, 0.6 to 6 µM of
purified protein in buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, 150 mM NaCl, pH 8) was combined with DNA
probes normalized to 5-15 ng. Mixtures were reacted for 20 min at room temperature and
subsequently subjected to electrophoresis on Novex 6% DNA Retardation Gels (Thermo
Fisher) in 1X Tris-buffered EDTA (TBE) at 4°C (24). DNA probes were visualized with
Sybr Green stain (Thermo Fisher) and imaged with an ImageQuant 800 imaging system
(Cytiva) (24).

Immunoblotting. *V. cholerae* strains were cultured overnight in M9 minimal medium. The
next day, the cultures were diluted 1:1000 into fresh M9 medium containing 0.01%
arabinose and grown to an OD_{600} of 1. Cells were pelleted by centrifugation and
resuspended in 20 µL of ice-cold phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) at an OD_{600} of 3.5.
Cells were lysed, protein extracts were separated on SDS-PAGE gels, and

immunoblotting was performed as described previously (24). Protein levels were
assessed using ImageJ software.

Biofilm assays and image analyses. *V. cholerae* strains were cultured overnight in LB
medium at 37°C with aeration. Cultures were subjected to vortex for 5 min with 4 mm
glass beads added to disrupt cell aggregates. The samples were diluted to OD_{600} = 0.5 in
1X PBS. The cultures were again subjected to vortex for 5 min without beads. 1 µL of
each culture was spotted onto an LB plate containing 50 mg/mL polymyxin B. When
strains carried plasmids, plates contained 40 mg/mL polymyxin B, 25 mg/mL kanamycin,
and, when specified, 0.01% arabinose. The plates were incubated at 37°C and biofilms
were imaged every 24 h with a Leica M125 stereomicroscope. Colony height profiles were
captured using a Keyence VK-X3000 laser microscope (31). Images were analyzed using
the manufacturer provided MultiFileAnalyzer application. Lateral topographic cross
sections were profiled in triplicate. For each cross section, the program identified the
minimum and maximum heights.

qPCR. Overnight cultures of *V. harveyi* were diluted to OD_{600} = 0.0025 and grown to OD_{600}
= 0.1 in LM medium. The cultures were treated with RNAprotect (Qiagen) and RNA was
purified using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen). gDNA was degraded and cDNA was
generated using SuperScript IV VILO Master Mix with ezDNAse (ThermoFisher) using
the manufacturer's recommended procedures. RNA was quantified using PerfeCTa
SYBR Green FastMix with Low ROX (QuantaBio). Relative RNA quantities were
calculated by $\Delta\Delta Ct$ compared to WT and the reference gene, *hfq*.

RNA sequencing. Overnight cultures of *V. cholerae* were diluted to OD_{600} = 0.0025 and
grown to OD_{600} = 0.05 in LB. Cultures were divided in half: 0.1% arabinose was
administered to one half and the other half received LB as a control. The treated cultures
were grown to OD_{600} = 0.25. RNA Protect solution (Qiagen) was added at 2:1 v/v
reagent:culture and RNA was purified using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen) followed by
treatment with DNase (Ambion AM 1907) using the manufacturers' recommended

procedures with minor modifications are described previously (7). RNA samples were
sequenced by SeqCenter (Pittsburgh, PA).
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Author contributions

A.A.M., K.D., J.V., C.F., and B.L.B. designed experiments and analyzed data; A.A.M.,
K.D., and J.V. constructed strains and performed wet-lab experiments; C.F., A.A.M., and
B.L.B. designed bioinformatic experiments and C.F. performed bioinformatic experiments
and analyses; K.D., C.F., and A.A.M., wrote custom scripts for data analyses and
visualization; A.A.M., K.D., and B.L.B. wrote the original draft; A.A.M., K.D., J.V., C.F., and
B.L.B. reviewed and edited subsequent manuscript versions; B.L.B. provided oversight,
resources, and funding.

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Figure 1. Simplified scheme for a double negative feedback loop comprised of the VqmR sRNA and the LuxT transcription factor. This regulatory loop exists in *V. cholerae* and closely related vibrios but not in more distant relatives. In the left panel, the designation 8-AA_N-term on the LuxT protein and the red portion of the *luxT* mRNA show the regions required for the double negative feedback loop. See text for details.

Figure 2. A genetic screen identifies repressors of the DPO-VqmA-VqmR QS circuit. (A) Light production over time from Δ*tdh vqmA_FLAG* P*vqmR-lux* and (B) Δ*tdh vqmA_C134A-FLAG* P*vqmR-lux V. cholerae* strains following administration of the specified concentrations of DPO. (C) As in panel B in the strain containing the additional designated deletions. DPO was added at 10 μM. Maximum fold-changes relative to that in the parent for Δ*vc0122*, Δ*vc2614*, Δ*vca0566*, and Δ*vca0917* were 9-fold at 11 h, 13.5-fold at 11 h 20 min, 2.8-fold at 17 h, and 3.3-fold at 14 h, respectively. RLU denotes relative light units, which are bioluminescence per OD_600. Scale bars represent color:intensity. Also see Supplementary Figure S1.

Figure 3. LuxT represses *vqmR* transcription. (A) Transcriptional output over time from P*vqmR-lux* following introduction of the indicated gene deletions in the Δ*tdh* Δ*vqmA* P$_{BAD}$-*vqmA V. cholerae* strain carrying P*vqmR-lux*. Maximum fold changes relative to the parent of the Δ*crp* and Δ*luxT* strains were 13.2-fold at 10 h and 2.5-fold at 8 h 20 min, respectively. RLU and scale bar as in Figure 2. (B) EMSA showing 6X-His-LuxT$_{Vc}$ (designated LuxT$_{Vc}$) binding to a P*vqmR*$_{Vc}$ probe (-111 to +49 relative to the *vqmR*$_{Vc}$ transcriptional start site) and the same probe with the putative LuxT binding site scrambled (P*vqmR*$_{Vc\ scrambled}$). The 20-nucleotide motif and its scrambled version are shown. All lanes contained 15 ng of promoter DNA. Bound and unbound DNA probes are designated.

A

Sequence similarity among *vqmR* promoters

Low   High

1   2   3

(1) P*vqmR*$_{Vc}$ TTTGTACCGCGTTCGGTAAA
(1) P*vqmR*$_{Vm}$ TTTGTATCCTGTTCGGTAAA
(2) P*vqmR*$_{Vs}$ TAAGCATTCCTAGGAGTAGA
(3) P*vqmR*$_{Vh}$ TATGCTCACAATTCAATACA

C

Similarity among VqmR target sequences in *luxT*

Low   High

Vc   *Vh*

Vc 5'-T<u>TT</u>GACGTTAGAAAAGAGCCTGACCATG-3'
Vh 5'-GATTACAAAGAGAAGAGCTTAAAATATG-3'

B

LuxT$_{Vc}$ (μM)   0 0.5 0.8 1.2 1.7 2.6 4.0   0 0.5 0.8 1.2 1.7 2.6 4.0   0 0.5 0.8 1.2 1.7 2.6 4.0   0 0.5 0.8 1.2 1.7 2.6 4.0

P*vqmR*$_{Vc}$ P*vqmR*$_{Vm}$ P*vqmR*$_{Vs}$ P*vqmR*$_{Vh}$

Bound
Unbound

Figure 4. LuxT binds P*vqmR* in *V. cholerae* and in its close relative *V. metoecus*, but not P*vqmR* in more distantly related vibrios. (A) Pair-wise sequence similarity color-map of *vqmR* promoter regions from one representative genome from sixty-three vibrio species that harbor both *luxT* and *vqmR*. Hierarchical clustering was performed using the UPGMA algorithm (Unweighted Pair Group Methods with Arithmetic Mean). Putative LuxT binding sites for the designated groups are displayed below the heatmap with red indicating differences from the *V. cholerae* sequence. (B) EMSA of 6X-His-LuxT$_{Vc}$ (designated LuxT$_{Vc}$) binding to P*vqmR* DNA probes, similar in length to that in Figure 3B, containing putative LuxT binding sequences from *V. cholerae* (P*vqmR*$_{Vc}$), *V. metoecus* (P*vqmR*$_{Vm}$), *V. splendidus* (P*vqmR*$_{Vs}$), and *V. harveyi* (P*vqmR*$_{Vh}$). (C) Heatmap showing pair-wise sequence similarity of the *vqmR* target sites in the *luxT* transcript across the same

genomes as in panel A. Hierarchical clustering was performed using the UPGMA algorithm. A *V. cholerae*-like group (*Vc*) and a *V. harveyi*-like group (*Vh*) are highlighted, with representative sequences from each group shown below the heatmap. Red indicates differences from the *V. cholerae* sequence. The predicted TTG (*V. cholerae*) and ATG (*V. harveyi*) start codons are underlined.

Figure 5. LuxT_Vc binds distinct motifs in P*vqmR*_Vc and P*swrZ*_Vh and the 8 N-terminal amino acids in LuxT govern which sequence is bound. (A, B) EMSA analyses for 6X-His-LuxT_Vc and 6X-His-LuxT_Vc Δ8-AA N-term (denoted LuxT_Vc and LuxT_Vc Δ8-AA N-term, respectively) binding to the P*vqmR*_Vc probe DNA or to the *V. harveyi* P*swrZ*_Vh -110 to +20 probe. (C) Heatmap showing a multi-sequence alignment of P*swrZ*_Vh sequences across vibrio species. The consensus sequence logo is shown on top, with taller letters indicating higher conservation. The nucleotide-level alignment is provided in Supplementary Figure 9. The two conserved sequences, shown by the black bars underneath, differ by four bps

and are designated Motif 2L (for Left) and Motif 2R (for Right). DNA sequences for Motif 2L and Motif 2R are provided in Supplemental Figure 10. (D) EMSA analyses for LuxT$_{Vc}$ binding to the designated *V. harveyi* P*swrZ*$_{Vh}$ regions. Leftmost panel: the probe spans -110 to +20 and contains Motif 2L and Motif 2R sequences. In the three right panels, the -110 to +20 probe has one or both of Motif 2L and Motif 2R scrambled, as designated. Supplementary Figure S11 shows EMSAs for *V. harveyi* LuxT binding to the same fragments.

Figure 6. LuxT$_{Vc}$ promotes *V. cholerae* colony biofilm formation. Representative images of biofilms formed by the designated *V. cholerae* strains and companion quantitative 3D colony height profiles after 4 d. Height profiles are color mapped according to the scale provided.

Figure 7. Transcriptomic analyses reveal the *V. cholerae* LuxT_Vc-controlled regulon. Volcano plot displaying gene expression patterns in the Δ*tdh* Δ*luxT V. cholerae* strain carrying *luxT_Vc* expressed from an arabinose inducible promoter with 0.1% arabinose (p-P_BAD-*luxT_Vc-FLAG*. Sulfate metabolism genes are highlighted in black, galactose metabolism genes in orange, *vc1088* in red, and *luxT* in green. Data represent fold-changes for the indicated strain grown with 0.1% arabinose compared to the no arabinose condition. Genes repressed and activated by LuxT are denoted. The horizontal dotted line represents a P-value of 0.05. Left and right vertical dotted lines represent log₂ fold-changes of −1 and 1, respectively. Samples are from n = 3 biological replicates. Complete datasets are provided in Dataset S1.