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

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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.
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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.
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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 (LCD), 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 LCD-gene expression pattern to the high cell
density (HCD) 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 LCD, and at HCD, QS
represses biofilm formation and promotes biofilm dispersal (11, 15, 16).
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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). DPO is bound by the VqmA transcription factor (18). At HCD,

the DPO-VqmA complex activates expression of *vqmR,* encoding the VqmR small RNA

(sRNA) (18, 22). VqmR post-transcriptionally regulates gene expression, including

repressing genes required for biofilm formation (18, 22).

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 (23). 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 (23).

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 work. Reporter

and DNA binding assays demonstrate that LuxT represses *vqmR* transcription. Previous

work showed that *luxT* is repressed post-transcriptionally by VqmR, thus, interactions

between LuxT and VqmR constitute a double negative feedback loop (Figure 1, left) (22).

To repress *luxT* translation, the VqmR sRNA binds a 24 base pair mRNA region encoding

the first 8 amino acids of LuxT (22). The presence of these first 8 amino acids in the *V.*

cholerae LuxT protein has functional consequences. Specifically*, V. cholerae* LuxT can

bind two DNA motifs but binding to only one of these motifs, which is the motif present in

the *vqmR* promoter, requires that LuxT possess these N-terminal 8 amino acids. Thus,

operation of both negative feedback loops, VqmR repression of *luxT* and LuxT repression

of *vqmR*, requires the DNA encoding the first 8 amino acids of LuxT and the 8 amino acids

themselves, respectively. This 8-amino acid N-terminal extension is absent in LuxT

proteins from vibrios that are not closely related to *V. cholerae*. Therefore, non-*V. cholerae*

vibrios do not employ these regulatory loops (Figure 1, right). This finding raises the

possibility that this regulatory arrangement may be important in specific niches inhabited

by *V. cholerae*. Using phenotypic, genetic, and RNA-Seq analyses, we define the *V.*

cholerae LuxT-controlled regulon and show that, in addition to QS genes, LuxT regulates

biofilm formation and the production of metabolic enzymes.

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 (23). Given this

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

signaling. An earlier screen revealed that VqmA activates *vqmR* expression (22). 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 (23). 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. 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. 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. 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 transposon insertions in 14 genes, which 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 (22, 23). 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 and 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). Additional temporal differences occur across strains. For

simplicity, here, we focus on maximal fold changes. The remaining ten genes did not

significantly alter P*vqmR-lux* output (Figure S1). 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. 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 2).
Thus, Acy and WigR apparently modulate VqmA activity by a post-translational
mechanism(s).
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acy and *crp* encode adenylate cyclase (Acy) and the cAMP receptor protein (Crp),
respectively. Acy and Crp typically function together (24–26). 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 (27, 28). Our finding suggests the possibility that cell wall damage feeds
into QS control of gene expression.
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For the remainder of this study, we characterize the role of LuxT in *vqmR* regulation. *V.*

cholerae LuxT (LuxT$_{Vc}$) is a transcription factor, the mRNA of which was previously

identified as a direct target of repression by the VqmR sRNA (22). Our identification of

LuxT$_{Vc}$ as a repressor of *vqmR* suggests that VqmR and LuxT$_{Vc}$ constitute a double-

negative feedback loop.

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 *swrZ* (29). Indeed, inspection of the *V. cholerae vqmR* promoter (P*vqmR*$_{Vc}$)

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 P*vqmR*$_{Vc}$ (-111 to +49) or, as a control, the same probe containing a

scrambled version of the putative LuxT binding sequence (P*vqmR*$_{Vc\ scrambled}$) (Figure 3B).

6X-His-LuxT$_{Vc}$ bound to *PvqmR*$_{Vc}$ but not *PvqmR*$_{Vc\ scrambled}$, 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 site. 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. cholerae* and *V. metoecus* P*vqmR* sequences are in the same cluster

as the site bound by LuxT$_{Vc}$ in P*vqmR$_{Vc}$*, differing by only 3 base pairs (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 *PvqmR$_{Vc}$* by ~40-50%, were not bound by LuxT$_{Vc}$

(Figure 4B). These findings suggest that LuxT repression of P*vqmR* occurs only in *V.*

cholerae and closely related vibrios.

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

sRNA binds to a 24 base pair region encoding the first 8-amino acids of LuxT$_{Vc}$ (22). To

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

proteins, we compared this 24-base pair region in *luxT* DNA sequences across vibrio

genomes. A pair-wise sequence similarity color-map shows that the DNA sequences

across vibrio *luxT* genes roughly separate into two clusters: one resembling *V. cholerae*

and the other resembling *V. harveyi* (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 base pair 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$_{Vc \Delta 8\text{-AA N-term}}$, 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$_{Vc \Delta 8\text{-AA N-term}}$ 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. 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 newly identified *V. cholerae* LuxT-controlled gene, *hapR*, in the Discussion). Both LuxT$_{Vc}$ and LuxT$_{Vc \Delta 8\text{-AA N-term}}$ 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, left). Below, we explore LuxT$_{Vc}$ regulation of *V. cholerae* genes beyond *vqmR*.

Inspection of P*swrZ*$_{Vh}$ for potential LuxT binding sites reveals a sequence located between -30 to -7 upstream of the *swrZ*$_{Vh}$ start codon with some similarity to Motif 1 in P*vqmR*$_{Vc}$ (Figure 5). Indeed, an EMSA probe spanning -110 to +20 (P*swrZ*$_{Vh \text{-110 to +20}}$), that includes the Motif 1-like sequence, is bound by both LuxT$_{Vc}$ and LuxT$_{Vc \Delta 8\text{-AA N-term}}$. Surprisingly, randomizing the Motif 1-like sequence in P*swrZ*$_{Vh}$ (P*swrZ*$_{Vh \text{-110 to +20 Motif 1-like}}$ $_{scrambled}$, Figure 5B, right) did not alter LuxT$_{Vc}$ and LuxT$_{Vc \Delta 8\text{-AA N-term}}$ binding, suggesting that both LuxT isoforms do not bind this Motif 1-like sequence, but rather recognize a sequence in P*swrZ*$_{Vh}$ that is distinct from that present in P*vqmR*$_{Vc}$.

To pinpoint the sequence in the -110 to +20 P*swrZ*$_{Vh}$ probe that is bound by LuxT$_{Vc}$, we assayed seven overlapping fragments that span this region (Supplementary Figure 3). Notably, two fragments containing only the Motif 1-like and immediate flanking sequences

(probes -40 to -6 and -30 to +20, Supplementary Figure S3) were not bound by LuxT$_{Vc}$.

Rather, the binding profiles show that a 25-nucleotide region residing at -75 to -51 relative

to the *swrZ*$_{Vh}$ start codon is bound by LuxT$_{Vc}$. We refer to this sequence as Motif 2

(*PswrZ*$_{Vh\ -75\ to\ -51}$; Figure 5C-D and Supplementary Figure S3). This sequence (5'-

CATAATCAGTACGCTGTATTATCAA-3') does not exist in *PvqmR*$_{Vc}$. The probe with the

Motif 2 sequence is also bound by LuxT$_{Vc\ \Delta8-AA\ N-term}$ (Figure 5C). Importantly, scrambling

this sequence (*PswrZ*$_{Vh\ -75\ to\ -51\ Motif\ 2\ scrambled}$) eliminated binding by both LuxT proteins

(Figure 5C)*.* Thus, LuxT$_{Vc}$ recognizes two different motifs (Figure 5D). Since LuxT$_{Vc\ \Delta8-AA}$

$_{N-term}$ bound *PswrZ*$_{Vh}$, the N-terminal 8 amino acids are dispensable for LuxT$_{Vc}$ to

recognize Motif 2 present in *PswrZ*$_{Vh}$. We conclude that the inclusion of the first 8 N-

terminal amino acids in LuxT expands the possibilities for *V. cholerae* LuxT to control

gene expression by enabling binding to at least two distinct motifs.

LuxT$_{Vc}$ promotes biofilm formation in *V. cholerae* at LCD. 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 (29). In *V. cholerae,* c-di-GMP levels influence

biofilm formation (30, 31). 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 (32–35). Thus, three-dimensional colony height profiles track with biofilm

formation. Both the Δ*tdh* and Δ*tdh* Δ*luxT* strains failed to form biofilms, with colonies only

reaching heights of ~100 μm (Figure 6).

The master HCD QS regulator HapR is a key repressor of *V. cholerae* biofilm formation

(11, 30). 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. Thus, *V. cholerae* forms colony biofilms only in the

absence of HapR and, in this LCD context, LuxT$_{Vc}$ promotes biofilm formation.

Production of the VqmR sRNA at HCD suppresses colony biofilm formation (18, 22). 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 $PvqmR_{Vc}$, thus in its absence, *vqmR* is not expressed (22). 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, 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 HCD. 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_{BAD}-$luxT_{Vc}$). Following growth to HCD 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 (36–38). 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 HCD. Also, as expected, we did not identify *vqmR* because our sample preparation was not optimized for enrichment of small RNAs.

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 focused

on understanding the role of LuxT, a TetR-family transcriptional regulator, in control of the

DPO-VqmA-VqmR QS circuit. TetR-family proteins frequently bind small-molecule ligands

and a target DNA motif (39). 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 small QS regulatory RNA

called Qrr1 at LCD, a function conserved in several vibrio species but not in *V. cholerae*

(40). By contrast, we show that in *V. cholerae*, LuxT represses expression of the gene

encoding the VqmR small RNA, 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) (41).

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 $LuxT_{Vc\ \Delta 8-AA\ N\text{-}term}$

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 (42). Similarly, in *Sinorhizobium meliloti*, a double negative feedback loop between the NtrBC two-component system and the small RNA NfeR1 modulates nitrogen metabolism (43). In *V. cholerae*, the transition from LCD to HCD QS modes involves upregulation of genes encoding energetically costly processes such as motility and the type six secretion system (7, 44, 45). 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 LCD 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 LCD (29, 40). Here, we primarily characterized LuxT functions in *V. cholerae* at HCD. 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 (41, 46–48). 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 (23, 41).

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 (23). 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 (23, 49). 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 (50). 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 (40, 51). 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

418   scores between DNA sequences. The unweighted pair group method with arithmetic
419   mean (UPGMA) was subsequently used to cluster vibrio species with similar sequences.
420

Protein purification. Genes encoding 6X-His-tagged proteins were cloned into pET15b
and transformed into *Escherichia 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.

Electromobility gel shift assays (EMSAs). DNA probes were purchased as G-Blocks
from IDT (~200 base pairs) and were used as templates for PCR amplification. The
resulting PCR products were gel purified using the QIAquick PCR Purification kit
(Qiagen), eluted with sterile water, and stored at 4° C until use. Alternatively, duplex DNA
oligomers (~20-30 base pairs) 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 (23). DNA
probes were visualized with Sybr Green stain (Thermo Fisher) and imaged with an
ImageQuant 800 imaging system (Cytiva) (23).

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 (23). 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 (32). 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.

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

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Figures:

Figure 1. Simplified scheme for a double negative feedback loop comprised of the VqmR small RNA 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. (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*$_{Vc \text{ scrambled}}$). 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'-TTTGACGTTAGAAAAGAGCCTGACCATG-3'
Vh 5'-GATTTACAAAGAGAAGAGCTTAAAATATG-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 DNA motifs and the 8 N-terminal amino acids in LuxT govern which motif will be bound. (A-C) 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 probes for the designated *V. harveyi* P*swrZ*_Vh regions. (D) Motifs identified as bound by LuxT in promoter regions of different genes. While writing this manuscript, a study by Li et. al. reported that the *V. cholerae hapR* promoter contains a Motif 1 site that is bound by LuxT_Vc (41). In Motif 1, cyan represents conserved nucleotides. In panel B, left, the EMSA fragment denoted -110 to +20 contains both the Motif 1-like sequence and Motif 2. In panel B, right, the Motif 1-like sequence is scrambled. The probe in panel C contains only the Motif 2 sequence. Supplementary Figure 3 shows EMSAs with fragments containing only the Motif 1-like or only the Motif 2 sequence.

Figure 6. LuxT$_{Vc}$ promotes *V. cholerae* colony biofilm formation. Representative images of biofilms formed by the designated *V. cholerae* strains and companion 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. 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 $\log_2$ fold-changes of −1 and 1, respectively. Samples are from n = 3 biological replicates. Complete datasets are provided in Dataset S1.

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