Bile-mediated ToxS homodimerization provides a model for ToxRS periplasmic interactions

Minje Kim[1], Deepak Balasubramanian[2], F. Jon Kull[1], Salvador Almagro-Moreno[2,3]*, Charles R. Midgett[1]*

[1]Department of Chemistry, Dartmouth College, Hanover, NH, USA

[2]Department of Host-Microbe Interactions, St. Jude Children's Research Hospital, Memphis, TN, USA

[3]St. Jude Children's Research Hospital Graduate School of Biomedical Sciences, St. Jude Children's

Research Hospital, Memphis, TN, USA

*For correspondence: Charles R. Midgett; charles.r.midgett@dartmouth.edu (CRM), Salvador Almagro-

Moreno; samoreno@stjude.org (SAM)

Running title: Bile mediates ToxS periplasmic domain homodimerization

ABSTRACT

The ToxRS system belongs to a family of co-component transmembrane transcription regulators that act as sensors of environmental cues and regulate virulence gene expression in several bacterial pathogens. These systems are thought to operate by sensing environmental stimuli and transmitting signals through periplasmic domains to activate DNA-binding transcription factors. In the enteric pathogens *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* and *Vibrio cholerae*, the ToxRS system regulates virulence factors responsible for severe gastrointestinal symptoms in humans. ToxR is a DNA-binding regulator associated in the periplasm with ToxS, a protein of poorly understood function. ToxS modulates the activity of its binding partner ToxR in the presence of bile salts, antimicrobial cholesterol metabolites secreted into the gut. To date, the molecular mechanism underlying this regulation remains unclear. We present crystal structures of the *V. parahaemolyticus* ToxS periplasmic domain (ToxSp) with and without the bile salt glycocholate. ToxSp forms an 8-stranded broken β-barrel with a central α-helix and is structurally homologous to a group of chaperone proteins. ToxSp has a highly conserved hydrophobic core that stabilizes the β-barrel fold, while the binding pocket tolerates substantial variation, consistent with binding hydrophobic ligands. Strikingly, we discovered that Vp-ToxSp binds three molecules of glycocholate and the presence of this bile salt leads to the formation a strand-swapped ToxS homodimer. Finally, modeling two ToxR periplasmic domains in complex with the glycocholate-bound ToxSp homodimer provides a structure-based model for bile salt-mediated heterotetramerization of the ToxRS system. Overall, our study addresses a major longstanding question in the field of Vibrio virulence regulation providing a scenario that could apply to other pathogens that utilize these membrane-bound family transcriptional regulators.

AUTHOR SUMMARY

The ability to sense the environment is essential for bacterial pathogens to successfully colonize the human host. Many pathogenic bacteria utilize members of the family of co-component transmembrane transcription regulators (coTTRs) to regulate pathogenesis in response to host signals. The ToxRS system is a coTTR regulatory pair that is essential for host colonization and virulence regulation of the enteric pathogens *Vibrio cholerae* and *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*. This system encompasses a transcription factor, ToxR, and a binding partner of enigmatic function, ToxS. Here, we solved the structure of the ToxS periplasmic domain <u>V. parahaemolyticus</u> and found that it belongs to a larger family of chaperone-like proteins present in many organisms. Strikingly, we discovered that the presence of the bile salt glycocholate leads to the dimerization of the periplasmic domain of ToxS. We propose that bile salt-induced ToxS dimerization brings two ToxR cognates together forming a heterotetramer activating the regulatory system. Our results and model address a major longstanding question in the fields of Vibrio virulence regulation and could apply to other pathogens that utilize these membrane bound family transcriptional regulators.

INTRODUCTION

Many pathogenic bacteria utilize the family of co-component transmembrane transcription regulators (coTTRs) to regulate pathogenesis in response to host signals [1]. These include VtrAC and ToxRS in *Vibrio* spp., PsaEF from *Yersinia* spp., GrvA-FidL from enterohemorrhagic *Escherichia coli*, and YqeIJ from avian pathogenic *E. coli* [2–8]. CoTTRs consist of a transmembrane transcription factor with an N-terminal winged helix-turn-helix DNA-binding domain, a transmembrane helix and a C-terminal periplasmic domain, together with a periplasmic binding partner that has a short N-terminal tail, a transmembrane helix, and a C-terminal periplasmic domain [1,9]. While the periplasmic domains of these proteins have little sequence homology between family members, many are clearly structural homologs [7,10,11]. These two-protein systems form obligate heterodimers where they modulate gene expression in response to host signals for survival and colonization [1,12]. This is thought to occur by the binding partner sensing a stimulus, such as a small molecule, and then transducing the signal to the transcription factor through their respective periplasmic domains [7,12,13]. To date, the mechanistic link between signal sensing by the periplasmic binding partner and DNA binding by the cognate transcription factor remains unknown.

The ToxRS coTTR system acts as an environmental sensor and is conserved across the Vibrionaceae family, a diverse group of aquatic bacteria [14–16]. Importantly, in several pathogenic *Vibrio* species, ToxRS also acts as a virulence regulator and confers resistance against antimicrobial insults found in the GI tract such as bile salts, cholesterol metabolites produced in the liver and secreted into the intestine [3,15,17,18]. In *Vibrio cholerae,* the etiological agent of cholera, ToxRS helps mediate the stress response to bile salts by modulating the transcription of two outer membrane porins, OmpU and OmpT [19,20]. Furthermore, together with another coTTR pair, TcpPH, ToxRS activates the virulence cascade via the transcription of the master virulence regulator *toxT* [21–23]. ToxT directly promotes the production of two critical virulence factors: the cholera toxin and toxin co-regulated pilus, which are essential for disease symptoms to occur [24–27]. Similarly, in *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*, a source of gastrointestinal illness, ToxRS regulates bile responses and essential virulence genes [3,18]. Together with another coTTR system, VtrAC

and ToxRS promote the expression of *vtrB*, which activates transcription of genes encoding the type III

secretion system [3,28,29].

Numerous studies have demonstrated the role of ToxR in these processes. However, despite its

relevance and ubiquitousness, the specific role of ToxS has remained obscure for decades. Studies using

mouse models of *V. cholerae* and *V. parahaemolyticus* infection show that ToxS is essential for intestinal

colonization, with Δ*toxS* strains exhibiting severe colonization defects [3,30]. Our laboratories and others

have shown that ToxS stabilizes ToxR against premature intramembrane proteolysis by leading to a

conformation that induces the formation of an intra-chain disulfide bond [31–33]. Furthermore, ToxS is

required for full ToxR activity in response to several stimuli including bile salts [13,34,35]. In minimal media,

ToxR requires ToxS to respond to bile salts and the amino acid mixture NRES [36,37]. Overall, these data

suggest that ToxRS exhibits on and off states, with ToxS being central for this switch-like process [36,37].

To date, the molecular mechanisms that mediate ToxRS interactions and the specific role of ToxS in these

processes remain unknown. Here, we solved the structure of the apo and glycocholate-bound ToxS

periplasmic domain (ToxSp) from *V. parahaemolyticus* (Vp-ToxSp). ToxSp is monomeric in the apo state

and dimeric in the bile salt-bound state, suggesting ToxS directly senses environmental stress signals and

dimerizes upon ligand binding. Additionally, a structural analysis of ToxSp suggests it is related to a group

of chaperone proteins. Our results suggest that coTTRs oligomerization is directed by interactions of the

periplasmic binding partner with environmental stimuli, which leads to heterotetramer formation with the

cognate transcription factor.

RESULTS

ToxS periplasmic domain adopts a broken β-barrel fold with a putative ligand-binding pocket. The *V.*

parahaemolyticus ToxS periplasmic domain residues Ser25-Asn171 (Vp-ToxSp) was cloned into an *E. coli*

expression system and purified using chitin-based affinity purification. Diffraction quality apo ToxSp crystals

were obtained using a seeded crystallization method and resolved to 1.9 Å resolution (**Table S1**). The

resulting structure reveals the Vp-ToxSp domain adopts a monomeric eight-stranded broken β-barrel, with

two copies in the asymmetric unit. The domain begins with the N-terminal helix (α1), positioned at the base

of the β-barrel, proximal to the inner membrane, followed by five β-strands (β1-β5), a second α-helix (α2),

and three final β-strands (β6-β8), with several disordered loops connecting the β-strands. Barrel closure is

enabled by hydrogen-bonding interactions between β1 of the N-terminus and the C-terminal β-strands (β6-

β8). (**Figure 1A, 1B**).

The central core consists of alternating hydrophobic and hydrophilic regions and the membrane-distal

face contains a solvent-accessible ~745 Å^3 cavity that likely functions as a small molecule binding region

extending toward the membrane (**Figure 1C right**) [38]. It is characterized by hydrophobic residues forming

the upper rim, a ring of hydrophilic residues in the middle, and a deeper hydrophilic cavity sealed at its base

by α1 (**Figure 1C left**). Interestingly, the pocket architecture resembles those observed in previously

characterized bile-binding proteins, suggesting a similar ligand-recognition role for Vp-ToxSp [7,11,39].

Core conservation and pocket variability in ToxS. To examine the amino acid conservation across the

Vibrionaceae family, 280 ToxR sequences were aligned using Unipro UGENE, and the corresponding ToxS

sequences were arranged in the same order [40]. Both sets of sequences were analyzed using Clustal

Omega (EMBL) to generate percent identity matrices (**Figure S1, S2**) [41]. Comparison of these matrices

revealed two key trends: first the ToxS periplasmic domain (ToxSp) is more conserved than the ToxR

periplasmic domain and second the clustering patterns observed for ToxSp mirror those of ToxRp,

suggesting coordinated evolutionary pressures on both components of the ToxRS pair. To examine residue-

level conservation, the ToxSp alignment was analyzed in ChimeraX using AL2CO [42]. The most strongly

conserved residues localize to the hydrophobic core, with three residues, Trp37, Gly99, and Trp101, showing

100% conservation across all analyzed sequences (**Figure 1D and inset**). The two tryptophan residues are

packed deep within the hydrophobic core, while Gly99 appears to contribute to a kink in β4, influencing the

positioning of Trp101, highlighting the importance of this region in the overall structure. In contrast, residues

surrounding the ligand-binding pocket exhibit low sequence identity across Vibrionaceae (**Figure 1D**).

Despite this variability, many positions within the pocket retain a strong preference for hydrophobic side

chains, with several sites remaining >90% hydrophobic and others maintaining hydrophobicity in ~70% of

sequences (**Table S2**). Together, these observations indicate that ToxS is built upon a highly conserved

hydrophobic core that stabilizes the β-barrel fold, while the pocket tolerates substantial variation, consistent

with binding hydrophobic ligands through largely non-specific interactions. Finally, low conservation at the

ToxS-ToxR binding interface supports the idea that these two proteins have coevolved at their binding

interfaces.

The ToxS periplasmic domain fold is related to a large group of chaperones. Having defined the overall

structure of Vp-ToxSp, we next sought to determine whether this architecture resembles any previously

characterized protein families. Because structural homology can provide functional insights in the absence

of primary sequence conservation, we used DALI to identify proteins with related three-dimensional folds

(**Table S3**) [43]. This search revealed VtrC, its closest known homolog in *V. parahaemolyticus*, as the top hit,

validating the approach. Additional significant matches containing this fold were identified, including

periplasmic chaperones HslJ (PDB ID: 2KTS), first identified in *Escherichia coli* and MxiM from *Shigella*

flexneri [44–46]. Structural similarity was also observed with an AlphaFold-predicted structure of META1,

part of the META family in *Leishmania* spp. (**Figure 2A**), indicating that ToxS-like proteins are distributed in

a wide range of taxa [47]. Despite their evolutionary diversity, these proteins share topological features,

including the C-terminal β-strands (β6-β8) (green) and the central α-helix (orange) (**Figure 2B**).

The structural and topological relatedness between these proteins is mirrored by parallels in function,

as many of the identified hits serve as periplasmic chaperones and/or respond to stress. Consistent with this,

ToxS stabilizes the ToxR periplasmic domain and promotes disulfide bond formation [33,48]. Likewise, VtrC

in *V. parahaemolyticus* stabilizes VtrA to turn on the expression of *vtrB* that activates the type III secretion

system 2 [7]. HslJ functions as a stress-induced periplasmic chaperone in multiple bacterial species [46,49–

52] and MxiM acts as a pilot protein required for type III secretion system-mediated host cell invasion in

Shigella spp. [53]. Although the role of META1 is less clear, its overexpression increases virulence in mice

infected with *Leishmania amazonensis*, and the related META2 protein is upregulated in response to heat

shock and oxidative stress [47,52,54,55]. Despite these structural and functional similarities (**Figure 2A**),

ToxS, HslJ, MxiM, and META1 display very limited sequence homology, suggesting strong evolutionary

pressure to conserve fold and function rather than the primary sequence [47].

Vp-ToxSp bound to bile salts forms a strand-swapped dimer. The 1.9 Å crystal structure of Vp-ToxSp

bound to glycocholate reveals a pronounced ligand-induced conformational change relative to the apo

structure (**Figure 3A; Table S1**). Although each monomer retains the characteristic 8-stranded broken β-

barrel fold with two α-helices, the bile salt-bound form assembles into a strand-swapped dimer in which β8

strands of the two monomers exchange positions (**Figure 3B**), with two dimers in the asymmetric unit.

Notably, the swapped β8 strands align in the same register as in the apo state, preserving the hydrogen-

bonding pattern of the β-barrel. In contrast to the apo structure, all loops at the top of the barrel are fully

resolved, with the loop between β1 and β2 folding over the top of the barrel, capping the ligand-binding

pocket. The orientation of the two N-termini within the dimer is compatible with the insertion of adjacent

transmembrane helices into the membrane (see below).

Three glycocholate molecules stabilize the ToxSp dimer interface. The strand-swapped ToxSp dimer

structure contains three glycocholate molecules bound between the two monomers toward the top of the β-

barrel. In each monomer, glycocholate binds the hydrophobic pocket formed by residues from β1, β2, β3,

and α2 (**Figure S3A**). The third glycocholate occupies a central site created by the juxtaposition of the C-

terminal ends of two α2 helices from the two monomers, effectively bridging the two monomer-bound ligands.

Across these sites, the glycocholates adopt a common orientation: their hydrophobic rings embed into the

upper hydrophobic region of the binding pocket, while the polar hydroxyl and glycine groups remain solvent-

exposed (**Figure 3C**). Although the interaction network is broadly conserved, the monomers contribute

asymmetrically to ligand contacts at the interface. Two additional glycocholate molecules are present at the

crystal-packing interfaces but display weaker electron density and are unlikely to be physiologically relevant

(**Figure S3B**). The presence of an extended binding pocket in the ToxSp dimer that is absent in the apo

structure supports a model in which binding of three glycocholate molecules promotes ToxSp dimerization.

β8 strand swapping further stabilizes this conformation. These observations indicate that ToxS functions as

a ligand-responsive sensor that undergoes a monomer-to-dimer transition upon bile binding.

ToxS and VtrC bind bile salts through distinct mechanisms. Comparison of bile salt-bound structures of

ToxSp and VtrC demonstrates that, despite their shared broken β-barrel architecture, these proteins bind

bile salts in distinct ways. In VtrC, taurodeoxycholate and chenodeoxycholate occupy a pocket formed

directly within the β-barrel [7,39]. In ToxSp, however, helix α2 occupies the position taken up by bile salts in

VtrC, and the β1-β2 loop folds over the top of the barrel, an architectural feature that is absent in VtrC (**Figure**

3D, 3E). As a result, the orientation of glycocholate differs substantially: the side chain of glycocholate

projects outward, rather than upward, as observed in VtrC (**Figure 3F**). This outward orientation exposes the

hydrophilic tail of the glycine moiety to solvent, potentially allowing ToxSp to accommodate bile salts with

diverse side chains. These differences suggest that although ToxS and VtrC share an overall broken β-barrel

fold, the coTTR binding partners have evolved distinct ligand-binding strategies while preserving the

conserved broken β-barrel scaffold.

ToxSp bound to bile adopts a conformation resembling the ToxR-bound state. To determine whether

bile salt binding induces conformational changes relevant to ToxR engagement, we compared the apo and

glycocholate-bound *V. parahaemolyticus* ToxSp structures with the *V. cholerae* ToxSp (Vc-ToxSp) from the

heterodimeric ToxRS complex. This analysis reveals that bile salt binding drives Vp-ToxSp into a

conformation closely resembling the ToxR-bound state (**Figure 3G**) [11]. In the apo structure of Vp-ToxSp,

the β1 strand of the barrel is bent inward, with a single water molecule bridging β1 and β8, resulting in a

more closed conformation consistent with the absence of a ligand or binding partner (**Figure 3H**). In contrast,

the glycocholate-bound Vp-ToxSp structure adopts a more open architecture, with two waters occupying the

space between the β1 and β8 strands. This arrangement parallels the Vc-ToxSp-ToxRp complex, in which

Thr279 of ToxR occupies a position analogous to the two waters observed in glycocholate-bound Vp-ToxSp

(**Figure 3H**). These similarities suggest that bile salt binding primes ToxS for interaction with ToxR by

inducing a more open conformation of the β-barrel. This observation is also consistent with prior biochemical

evidence that bile salts and detergents such as Triton X-100 enhance ToxRp-ToxSp association [18].

Together, these structural and biochemical observations indicate that bile salt binding not only drives ToxS

dimerization but also prepares ToxS for a productive engagement with ToxR, thereby enabling ToxRS

complex formation.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we report the crystal structures of ToxSp in apo and glycocholate-bound forms and propose

that bile-binding induces dimerization of ToxS and formation of a ToxRS heterotetramer. While ToxS is

characterized as a member of the lipocalin protein family, analysis of the ToxSp topology and structure shows

that it closely resembles a group of chaperone proteins including HslJ (PDB ID: 2KTS), META1, and MxiM

[7,44,45,47,56]. Like ToxS, some of these proteins can stabilize their partner complexes and respond to

stress. HslJ is expressed and secreted into the periplasm under stress conditions [46,52]. MxiM acts as a

pilot protein for the type III secretion system in *Shigella* spp*.,* whereas META1 is thought to play a role in

secretion in *Leishmania* spp. [44,45,47]. These proteins share structure, topology, periplasmic localization of

the bacterial proteins, and chaperone-like features, which suggest that ToxS and other coTTRs are

evolutionarily related to a broader class of chaperone-like proteins with distinct cellular roles [12].

In addition to the topological analysis, the sequence conservation analysis of the ToxRS periplasmic

domains shows that ToxS is more conserved across species than ToxR. Nonetheless, our analyses support

the idea that the ToxRS system has co-evolved (**Figure S1, S2**). The most highly conserved ToxS residues

are located in the hydrophobic core, proximal to the membrane, suggesting that maintaining a stable, broken

β-barrel fold is crucial for ToxS function. In contrast, while the specific residues surrounding the ligand-binding

pocket vary, their hydrophobic and hydrophilic natures are preserved across the Vibrionaceae family (**Table**

S2). We contend that this allows the potential binding of various hydrophobic compounds, as demonstrated

by: ToxR being activated by several bile salts, as well as sodium dodecyl sulfate, and the interactions

between ToxRp and ToxSp increasing in the presence of Triton X-100 [18,37].

A key mechanistic question regarding the function of coTTR systems is how environmental signals activate

critical transcriptional responses at the molecular level. To date, it has been proposed that the periplasmic

domain of the ToxRS system senses environmental stimuli and transduces signals through the periplasmic

binding interface to the cytoplasmic DNA-binding domain [7,13]. Specifically, for both ToxRS and VtrAC, it

was thought that the ToxRS heterodimer potentially acted by binding to bile salts [7,11]. The structure of

GCH-bound ToxSp provides the first mechanistic evidence of a physical interaction of ToxS with host-stimuli

and shows ToxRS heterodimerization is not required for bile recognition. Given ligands and swapped strands

are absent in the monomeric apo form, bile salt binding appears to be the driving force for ToxS dimerization.

To investigate how bile-binding could locally cluster ToxR, we modeled the ToxR periplasmic domain

onto the GCH-ToxSp dimer structure. We aligned two copies of ToxRp from the *V. cholerae* heterodimeric

ToxRS periplasmic domain structure onto each chain in our GCH-ToxSp structure [11]. This alignment shows

that all four N-termini of the subunits appear to face the same direction and that both domain pairs are

positioned to be near the membrane. Furthermore, our predicted model indicates that there are minimal steric

clashes between ToxS and ToxR in the heterotetramer (**Figure 4**).

Based on the results presented here and the ToxRS model described above, we propose a

mechanism for which bile salts result in the dimerization of the ToxRS complex. First, monomeric ToxS on

the membrane binds bile salts, inducing dimerization as well as a conformational change in the β-barrel,

opening the space between β1 and β8, making it easier for ToxR to bind ToxS (**Figure 4, path C-D**).

Alternatively, if ToxS and ToxR can form a heterodimer in the absence of bile salts, we propose that bile salt

binding to ToxS will subsequently induce formation of the ToxRS heterotetramer (**Figure 4, path E-D**).

Overall, our model provides a scenario that suggests how bile salts may function as molecular signals that

pair periplasmic sensing to activation of the ToxRS system. More generally, we propose the binding partner

proteins of coTTR systems have evolved as chaperones that stabilize their cognate transcription factors and

serve as binding partners mediating dimerization.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cloning of *V. parahaemolyticus* ToxS periplasmic domain. The DNA sequence of the *V. parahaemolyticus* ToxS periplasmic domain (residues S24-N171) [WP_020840240] was codon-optimized and synthesized to include a SapI site, the coding sequence, and a BamHI site, flanked by primer binding sites. The fragment was amplified with PCR, digested with SapI and BamHI restriction enzymes, and purified using the PCR purification kit (Qiagen). The pTYB21 vector (NEB), containing an N-terminal chitin-binding domain intein (CBD-intein) affinity tag, was digested with the same restriction enzymes (SapI and BamHI), treated with calf intestinal phosphatase (CIP; NEB), and purified using the PCR purification kit (Qiagen) (**Table S6**). The ToxSp insert was ligated into the prepared pTYB21 vector using Quick Ligase (NEB), and the ligation products were transformed into *E. coli* DH5α cells (NEB). The transformants were selected on an LB agar plate containing 100 μg/mL carbenicillin and screened by colony PCR for the correct insert size. The selected colonies were grown in small-scale cultures; a portion was stored at -80 °C, while plasmid DNA from the remaining culture was purified using the Miniprep kit (Qiagen). Plasmid sequences were confirmed by Sanger sequencing with primers complementary to the T7 promoter.

Protein Expression and Purification. The confirmed CBD-ToxSp plasmid was transformed into *E. coli* BL21-CodonPlus (DE3) competent cells (Agilent Technologies). The starter culture was grown overnight at 30 °C in ZYP-0.8G medium supplemented with 200 μg/mL carbenicillin and 25 μg/mL chloramphenicol in a shaking incubator [57]. The culture was used to inoculate Terrific Broth Modified media (Fisher Scientific) at a 1:250 ratio, supplemented with 2 mM $MgSO_4$, 200 μg/mL carbenicillin, and 25 μg/mL chloramphenicol. The cells were grown at 37 °C to an OD_{600} of 2-3, induced with 1 mM IPTG, and incubated at 18 °C for 16-20 hours. The cells were harvested by centrifugation at 4,500 × g for 25 minutes at 4 °C and resuspended in lysis buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 200 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA) containing cOmplete protease inhibitor cocktail tablets (Roche). Lysis was performed by passing the cells through a French press three times, and the lysate was centrifuged at 100,000 × g for 45 minutes at 4 °C. The supernatant was filtered through a 0.45

µm filter before purification. The supernatant was passed over chitin-binding resin (NEB) pre-equilibrated

with Tris wash buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 200 mM NaCl) to capture the CBD-ToxSp fusion protein. The

resin was washed sequentially with 10 column volumes (CV) of high-salt Tris wash buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl

pH 8.0, 1 M NaCl) and 20 CV of Tris wash buffer. The resin was rapidly washed with 3 CV of Tris cleavage

buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 200 mM NaCl, 50 mM DTT, 0.5 mM PMSF, 1 mM EDTA, cOmplete protease

cocktail tablet) to saturate the resin and initiate on-column intein-mediated cleavage of the CBD tag. The

column was incubated at 23 °C for 16-40 hours. Cleaved ToxSp protein was eluted in Tris wash buffer,

concentrated using Amicon Ultra 3 kDa molecular weight cut-off (MWCO) centrifugal filters (Millipore), and

further purified by size-exclusion column (HiLoad 16/600 Superdex 200 pg, Cytiva) pre-equilibrated with gel

filtration buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 200 mM NaCl). The purified ToxSp protein solution was concentrated

to 9-16 mg/mL, flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80 °C until crystallization.

Crystallization and Data Collection. To obtain apo ToxSp crystals, a seeded crystallization method was

used to promote the growth of diffraction-quality crystals. First, purified ToxSp protein was concentrated to

16 mg/mL and used to generate initial crystals. These initial ToxSp crystals were grown by combining protein

and crystallization solution (100 mM succinic acid pH 6.0, 16% (w/v) PEG 3,350) at a 1:1 ratio in a 96-well,

2-drop MRC plate (Swissci) with NT8 Drop Setter (Formulatrix). The resulting crystals were harvested and

stored in 50 µL crystallization solution, then disrupted with a polytetrafluoroethylene seed bead (Hampton

Research) to generate a seed stock. This stock solution was serially diluted (1:10 to 1:10,000) and stored at

room temperature (23 °C). For seeded crystallization, purified ToxSp protein was concentrated to 14 mg/mL

and seeded by adding the diluted seed stock at a 25:2 (v/v) protein-to-seed ratio. The crystallization trials

were set up in the 96-well, 2-drop MRC plates (Swissci) using the NT8 Drop Setter (Formulatrix) with protein-

to-reservoir ratios of 1:1 (drop 1) and 1:2 (drop 2), using 96-well sparse matrix crystal screens. Under these

conditions, the optimal diffraction-quality apo crystals were obtained from Berkeley crystal screen condition

E8 (Rigaku Reagents; 100 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 200 mM sodium malonate dibasic pH 7.0, 20% (w/v) PEG

monomethyl ether 2,000). The crystals were cryoprotected with a solution formulated with 70% crystal

reservoir solution and 30% glycerol. The diffraction data were collected at the NSLS-II AMX beamline

(Brookhaven National Laboratory) and processed to 2.1 Å resolution with XDS, yielding a space group of P

$2_1 2_1 2_1$ with unit cell parameters 53.746 58.230 89.456 90.000 90.000 90.000 (**Table S1**) [58].

To obtain glycocholate-bound ToxSp crystals, the frozen ToxSp protein stock at 16 mg/mL was

thawed and supplemented with 10 mM sodium glycocholate stock prepared in ToxSp buffer (20 mM Tris-

HCl pH 8.0, 200 mM NaCl) to achieve final concentrations of approximately 622 µM ToxSp and 3.13 mM

sodium glycocholate (1:5 protein-to-ligand ratio). The combined glycocholate-ToxSp solution was incubated

overnight at 4 °C with rotation to allow complex formation. The crystallization plates for the glycocholate-

bound complex were set up using the same seeding method as for apo ToxSp. The glycocholate-ToxSp

solution was seeded by adding diluted seed stock prepared from apo ToxSp crystals at a 25:2 (v/v) protein-

to-seed ratio. The crystallization trials were set up in 96-well, 2-drop MRC plates (Swissci) using 96-well

sparse matrix crystal screens. The initial crystal hit was observed from Index crystal screen condition H9

(Hampton Research). The Index H9 condition was optimized to 0.06 M zinc acetate dihydrate and 17% (w/v)

PEG 3,350. The crystals were cryoprotected with a solution formulated with 70% crystal reservoir solution

and 30% glycerol. The diffraction data were processed to 1.9 Å resolution with autoPROC, yielding a space

group of P $2_1 2_1 2_1$ and a unit cell of 69.828 92.503 95.805 90.00 90.00 90.00 (**Table S1**) [59].

Structure Determination. The structure of apo ToxSp was determined by molecular replacement using an

AlphaFold structure prediction model, truncated to exclude regions with pLDDT under 90 [60]. The molecular

replacement was performed using Phaser [61]. The iterative refinement cycles were performed in Refine

from PHENIX, and manual model building was performed in COOT [62]. Structural visualization and analysis

were performed in ChimeraX [63]. The final structure was deposited in the Protein Data Bank (PDB ID: 8U2F).

The strand-swapped dimer structure of GCH-bound ToxSp was solved by molecular replacement using a

RoseTTAFold All-Atom prediction model generated as a monomer [64]. The electron density map clearly

indicated a strand swap in the β8 region, confirmed by a composite omit map in PHENIX [65]. The protein

structure and GCH ligands were built using COOT with ligand restraints from the REFMAC library [62,66].

The final structure visualization and analysis were performed in ChimeraX [63].

Conservation analysis. To analyze the ToxSp sequence conservation, BLAST was used to find sequences

homologous to the *V. cholerae* ToxR periplasmic domain residues 199-294 [67,68]. The resulting BLAST

sequences were then curated by removing entries that were multispecies alignments, partial sequences,

identical sequences, or sequences from the same species that were highly similar, leaving a list of ToxR

periplasmic domains primarily representing a single sequence per species. The curated ToxRp sequences

were aligned using MUSCLE and then used to generate a percent identity matrix with Clustal Omega

[41,69,70]. Based on this ToxRp sequence alignment, the corresponding ToxSp sequences from the same

species were identified in the NCBI and compiled into the same order as the aligned ToxRp sequences to

preserve one-to-one pairing [68]. This procedure resulted in a list of 280 paired ToxR and ToxS sequences.

The ToxS sequences were then aligned, and the sequences of the N-terminal tail and transmembrane

domain were removed so that only periplasmic domains (ToxSp) were retained. Both the ToxRp and ToxSp

sequences were subsequently aligned again, and a percent identity matrix calculated by Clustal Omega

without rearrangement of the sequence order [69]. Once the alignment was complete, the file with the ToxSp

alignment was loaded into ChimeraX to calculate and visualize the protein conservation at the residue level

using the built-in program AL2CO [42].

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

Atomic coordinates and structure factors for the reported structures have been deposited in the Protein Data

Bank (PDB) under accession numbers 8U2F (apo Vp-ToxSp) and 9ZJO (GCH-bound Vp-ToxSp). The data

collection statistics are shown in Table S1 in supplementary information.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Structure and conservation of the *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* ToxS periplasmic domain. (A, B)

Apo ToxSp from *V. parahaemolyticus* contains an 8-stranded broken beta-barrel fold and the central alpha-

helix (β-strands; dark-blue, α-helices; light blue, coils; gray). (C) Left panel: apo ToxSp has a binding pocket

(left panel, pink) enclosed by the β-barrel and the central helix (grey). Right panel: the binding pocket

constitutes a central region of hydrophilic residues (blue) flanked by regions with hydrophobic (gold) residues.

(D) Apo-Vp ToxSp structure colored based on conservation data obtained from sequence alignment across

280 Vibrionaceae family members reveals that only residues Trp37, Gly99, and Trp101 are 100% conserved.

Figure 2. ToxSp is a stress-responsive periplasmic chaperone. (A) Structural comparison of ToxSp with

VtrC (PDB ID: 5KEV), HslJ (PDB ID: 2KTS), MxiM (PDB ID: 1Y9L), and META1 (AlphaFold: A0A088S6F1)

highlights a shared broken β-barrel fold common among chaperone proteins. (B) The structural and

topological similarities are highlighted by the C-terminal β-strands (β6-β8) (green) and the central α-helix

(orange). (C) Under each topology are relevant highlights of the protein localization, function, and relevant

binding partner.

Figure 3. Bile salt binding drives strand swapping and homodimerization of ToxS. (A) The GCH bound

ToxSp dimer crystal structure shows two β8 strand swapped ToxSp monomers (blue and purple β-barrels)

enclosing three glycocholate molecules (blue, orange, and pink). (B) Electron density map of the crystal

structure surrounding the strand-swapped β8 loops (Ser160-Thr166) displayed as green mesh, contoured at

1σ. (C) Electron density map of the three glycocholate molecules bound to the ToxSp dimer displayed as

green mesh, contoured at 1σ. Comparison of (D) Vp-ToxSp-GCH with the protein in gray and the ligand in

blue, and (E) VtrC-taurodeoxycholate (PDB ID: 5KEW) with the protein in blue and the ligand in green,

complexes demonstrates the different binding orientations of the two ligands. (F) Overlay of the crystal

structures of GCH-bound Vp-ToxSp monomer, and taurodeoxycholate bound to VtrC (protein not shown for

clarity) highlights the differences in the ligand orientation. (G) Overlay of the apo Vp-ToxSp, (blue), and a

GCH-Vp-ToxSp monomer (cyan), and the Vc-ToxSp from the heterodimeric ToxRp-ToxSp complex (orange;

PDB: 8ALO). The comparison (inset) shows that apo Vp-ToxSp (blue) adopts a more closed conformation,

whereas both glycocholate-bound Vp-ToxSp (cyan) and Vc-ToxSp (orange) from the heterodimer with ToxR

display a more open conformation. (H) In apo Vp-ToxSp (blue, left), a single water molecule (red) bridges β1

and β8 strands to stabilize the closed conformation. In GCH-bound Vp-ToxSp (cyan, middle), two water

molecules (red) bind the more open interface, whereas in Vc-ToxSp (orange, right), Thr279 from Vc-ToxRp

(grey) plays the role of the water molecules, stabilizing the closed conformation.

Figure 4. Model of the ToxRS heterotetramer in the inner membrane. (A) Three molecules of

glycocholate (GCH, blue) bind to two Vp-ToxSp monomers (blue and purple β-barrels), promoting formation

of a ligand-bound homodimer, anchored in the inner membrane. (B) The ToxRp-ToxSp heterotetramer

model was generated using (ChimeraX) by positioning two chains of *Vibrio cholerae* ToxRp (PDB: 8ALO)

onto the glycocholate-bound Vp-ToxSp dimer. The arrangement places the periplasmic domains of ToxR

and ToxS in a physiologically plausible orientation with all four N-termini facing the inner membrane and

minimal steric interference between ToxR and ToxS (inset). (C-E) Model of the bile-mediated ToxRS

heterotetramer formation. Bile salts activate ToxRS through two possible pathways. In the first, (C) binding

of three GCH molecules to monomeric apo ToxS induces formation of a domain-swapped ToxS homodimer,

stabilizing an open β-barrel conformation that (D) enables ToxR recruitment and assembly of the active

heterotetramer. In the second pathway, (E) bile salts engage a pre-existing apo ToxRS heterodimer,

triggering conformational changes similar to those in ligand-bound ToxS that promote tetramerization of the

complex. Both mechanisms converge on formation of a bile-stabilized ToxRS heterotetramer (D).

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

GCH-ToxSp dimer

ToxRp-ToxSp heterotetramer

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