

# Deficiency in cytosine DNA methylation leads to high chaperonin expression and tolerance to aminoglycosides in Vibrio cholerae

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1	Deficiency in cytosine DNA methylation leads to high chaperonin expression and
2	tolerance to aminoglycosides in Vibrio cholerae
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24 ABSTRACT

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26 Antibiotic resistance has become a major global issue. Understanding the molecular 27 mechanisms underlying microbial adaptation to antibiotics is of keen importance to fight 28 Antimicrobial Resistance (AMR). Aminoglycosides are a class of antibiotics that target the small subunit of the bacterial ribosome, disrupting translational fidelity and increasing the 29 levels of misfolded proteins in the cell. In this work, we investigated the role of VchM, a 30 31 DNA methyltransferase, in the response of the human pathogen Vibrio cholerae to 32 aminoglycosides. VchM is a V. cholerae specific orphan m5C DNA methyltransferase that generates cytosine methylation at 5'-RCCGGY-3' motifs. We show that deletion of vchM, 33 although causing a growth defect in absence of stress, allows V. cholerae cells to cope with 34 aminoglycoside stress at both sub-lethal and lethal concentrations of these antibiotics. 35 36 Through transcriptomic and genetic approaches, we show that *groESL-2* (a specific set of chaperonin-encoding genes located on the second chromosome of V. cholerae), are 37 38 upregulated in cells lacking vchM and are needed for the tolerance of vchM mutant to lethal aminoglycoside treatment, likely by fighting aminoglycoside-induced misfolded proteins. 39 Interestingly, preventing VchM methylation of the four RCCGGY sites located in groESL-2 40 region, leads to a higher expression of these genes in WT cells, showing that the expression 41 42 of these chaperonins is modulated in *V. cholerae* by DNA methylation.

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### 45 AUTHOR SUMMARY

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Bacteria are organisms with a remarkable ability to adapt to several stress conditions, 47 including to the presence of antibiotics. The molecular mechanisms underlying such 48 49 adaptation lead, very often, to phenomena like antimicrobial tolerance and resistance, 50 responsible for the frequent failure of antibiotic treatment. The study of these molecular mechanisms is thus an important tool to understand development of antimicrobial 51 resistance in bacteria. In this work, we show that abrogating cytosine DNA methylation in 52 Vibrio cholerae increases its tolerance to aminoglycosides, a class of antibiotics that cause 53 protein misfolding. DNA methylation is known to affect gene expression and regulate 54 several cellular processes in bacteria. Here we provide evidence that DNA methylation also 55 has a more direct role in controlling antibiotic susceptibility in bacteria. Consequently, the 56 study of bacterial DNA methyltransferases and DNA methylation should not be overlooked 57 when addressing the problem of antimicrobial tolerance/resistance. 58

59

### 60 **INTRODUCTION**

In the past decades, the over/misuse and large-scale production of antibiotics has created a serious ecological problem with important consequences for the emergence of antimicrobial resistance (AMR). In fact, a large proportion of the antibiotics ingested are released intact in the environment (1, 2) and found at trace levels or as gradients in various environments (3, 4). Hence, in these environments, one can find the presence of very low doses of drugs commonly referred as subMIC, i.e. under the MIC (Minimal Inhibitory
Concentration). Although not enough to kill or prevent the growth of bacterial populations,
subMIC doses of antibiotics are proposed to work as signaling molecules (5) and trigger
important stress mechanisms that often result in development of antibiotic resistance (4,
6–8). We have previously shown that subMIC of antibiotics, such as aminoglycosides, trigger
common and specific stress responses in Gram-negative bacteria (9, 10).

Aminoglycosides (AGs) are positively charged molecules that bind 16S rRNA at the 30S ribosomal subunit and negatively affect translation. Specifically, AGs (e.g. tobramycin, streptomycin, kanamycin, gentamicin and neomycin) are known to disrupt translational fidelity and increase the levels of mistranslation, i.e. the misincorporation of certain amino acids in proteins (11, 12). In turn, high levels of mistranslation result in the production and accumulation of aberrant proteins in the cell, which contribute to the collapse of important cell processes and ultimately lead to cell death (13, 14).

V. cholerae is a water-borne gram-negative bacterium, human pathogen and the 79 80 causative agent of cholera disease. As part of its life cycle, V. cholerae often transits between the human gut and the external environment where it can find low doses of 81 antibiotics. During our studies to better understand adaption of V. cholerae to 82 83 aminoglycosides (15), we observed that a mutant of a V. cholerae's specific DNA methyltransferase (vca0198 - VchM) was less susceptible to aminoglycosides than its 84 isogenic WT strain, suggesting that DNA methylation could play a role in V. cholerae 85 adaptation to AGs. vchM codes for an Orphan m5C DNA methyltransferase that causes DNA 86 methylation at 5'-RCCGGY-3' motifs (16). DNA methylation is catalyzed by enzymes called 87

DNA methyltransferases (DNA MTases) that transfer a methyl group from S-adenosyl-L methionine (SAM) to adenine and cytosine in specific DNA motifs (17, 18). As a result, one can find the existence of small amounts of N6-methyl-adenine (6mA), C5-methyl-cytosine (5mC) and N4-methyl-cytosine (4mC) in the DNA of both eukaryotes and prokaryotes. In bacteria, the existence of such modified DNA bases have been shown to play a critical role in processes such as protection against invasive DNA, DNA replication and repair, cell cycle regulation and control of gene expression (19–23).

While it was previously proposed that VchM plays a role in the cell envelope stress 95 response of V. cholerae (23), no link between this DNA MTase and antibiotic stress has yet 96 been established. Here, we show that deletion of *vchM* (although causing a growth defect 97 in absence of stress) allows V. cholerae cells to better deal with the effect of 98 99 aminoglycosides. In fact, not only the *vchM* mutant is a better competitor during growth in 100 presence of subMIC doses of aminoglycosides, it is also more tolerant to killing by lethal doses of these antibiotics. Transcriptome analysis of a  $\Delta v chM$  strain revealed the 101 102 upregulation of *groESL-2* genes, a specific set of chaperonin-encoding genes located on the 103 second chromosome of V. cholerae. High expression of groESL-2 genes (but not of 104 chromosome one groESL-1 homologues) determines the higher tolerance of  $\Delta v chM$  to lethal AG treatment, suggesting a new and specific role of groESL-2 in managing AG-105 106 mediated proteotoxic stress. Interestingly, we observed the presence of four VchM motifs in groESL-2 region. Preventing methylation of all these sites in the WT strain by disrupting 107 108 such motifs results in increased expression of these genes. Intriguingly, the high expression of groESL-2 does not seem to contribute to the competitive advantage of the  $\Delta v chM$  strain 109

- 110 grown under subMIC AG which suggests the involvement of additional players in the global
- 111 response of  $\Delta v ch M$  to aminoglycosides.

113 **RESULTS** 

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### 115 V. cholerae cells lacking vchM cope better with subMIC doses of AGs

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117 In order to explore a possible role of vchM in the response of V. cholerae O1 El Tor 118 N16961 to aminoglycosides, we constructed an in-frame deletion mutant of vchM by allelic 119 replacement with an antibiotic resistance cassette, and compared its growth to the isogenic 120 wild-type (WT) strain, in rich media, with or without increasing concentrations of subMIC 121 tobramycin (Fig 1). As previously described (23), this mutant exhibits a reduced doubling rate when grown in monoculture in antibiotic free rich media. However, the difference in 122 growth between WT and  $\Delta v chM$  strains observed in absence of antibiotics becomes 123 124 gradually more negligible with increasing concentrations of subMIC TOB. At higher concentrations (90% of the MIC),  $\Delta v chM$  even displays a clear advantage over the WT (Fig 125 1A). Importantly, a  $\Delta v chM$  strain harboring a low-copy number plasmid with vchM gene 126 127 under the control of its own promoter behaves as the WT strain in absence of tobramycin and even slightly worse in presence of higher doses of this drug (Fig 1A), showing that the 128 129 observed growth phenotypes are due to the absence of *vchM*.

130 Next, we asked whether the growth phenotype observed in monocultures was translatable 131 to a higher relative fitness in co-cultures in the presence of subMIC doses of tobramycin and other AGs. For that, we competed both WT and  $\Delta v chM$  strains (both  $lacZ^+$ ) with an isogenic 132  $\Delta lacZ$  mutant (initial ratio of 1:1), in MH or MH supplemented with subMIC concentrations 133 (50% MIC) of the aminoglycosides tobramycin (TOB), gentamicin (GEN) and neomycin 134 135 (NEO). We assessed relative fitness by plating cultures after 20 hours of growth and 136 counting the final proportion of lacZ<sup>+</sup>/lacZ<sup>-</sup> colonies. Competition of WT against the lacZ<sup>-</sup> mutant served as a control to account for any effect of *lacZ* deletion on growth. Supporting 137 the previous results in monocultures,  $\Delta v chM$  is outcompeted by the *lacZ* mutant in MH 138 (≈10-fold difference) (Fig 1B). More importantly, in presence of low concentrations of 139 aminoglycosides,  $\Delta v ch M$  is either equally competitive or even displays a clear growth 140 advantage over the reference strain (Fig 1B). Additionally, in order to test whether these 141 142 results hold for drugs other than aminoglycosides we performed competitions in the presence of chloramphenicol (CAM) and the beta-lactam carbenicillin (CARB). Unlike AGs, 143 144 the presence of low concentrations of these drugs did not increased the relative fitness of the  $\Delta v chM$  mutant. 145

Altogether, these results confirm that lack of *vchM* in *V. cholerae* negatively impacts growth
in antibiotic-free media (23) but confers a selective advantage to *V. cholerae* in presence of
subMIC doses of AGs (Fig 1). In order to test if deleting *vchM* affects the MIC of these drugs,
we measured the MIC of both WT and Δ*vchM* mutant and found no difference (Table 1).

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152	<b>Table 1</b> . MICs (μg/ml) of the different antibiotics tested for <i>V. cholerae</i> N16961 WT and ΔvchM strains							
153		Strain	ТОВ	GEN	NEO	САМ	CARB	
154		WT	1-2	1	4	1	15	
155		Δ <i>vchM</i> TOB, tobramy	1-2 /cin; GEN, gen	1 tamicin; NEO, ne	4 eomycin; CAM, ch	1 Noramphenicol; C/	7.5 ARB, carbenicillin	
156								
157								
158	VchM de	eficiency p	romotes h	igher tolera	nce to lethal	doses of ami	noglycosides	
159								
160	lt	t has beer	n previousl	y shown th	at certain m	utations affe	ct functions co	nferring
161	bacteria	l populatic	ons a toler	ant phenoty	ype towards	a specific dr	ug (24). Such t	oacterial
162	populati	ons can tr	ansiently	withstand le	thal doses o	f that drug w	vithout necessa	arily any
163	impact o	on the MIC	of the pop	ulation (24)				
164	To conti	nue explor	ing the dif	ferent susce	eptibility of t	he ∆ <i>vchM</i> str	ain to aminogly	ycosides
165	we asses	ssed the su	ırvival rate	of V. chole	rae WT and L	\vchM strains	during treatme	ent with
166	lethal do	oses of tob	oramycin a	nd gentami	cin at 20x ar	nd 10x the M	IC, respectively	(Fig 2).
167	Given th	e inherent	growth de	fect of VchN	1 deficiency, v	we performed	time-depender	nt killing
168	curves o	n stationai	ry phase ce	ells, where b	oth WT and	∆vchM strain	s are no longer	actively
169	growing,	excluding	g a possible	e link betwe	een growth r	ate and amir	noglycoside leth	nality as
170	previous	ly shown (	25). Strikin	igly, survival	to both antil	biotics was in	creased 10-100	0 fold in
171	the Δ <i>vch</i>	M mutant	, suggestir	ig that the a	bsence of Vc	hM allows V.	<i>cholerae</i> to tra	insiently
172	withstan	id lethal d	doses of t	hese amino	oglycosides (	Fig 2). We a	dditionally tes	ted the

tolerance of exponential phase cells of WT and  $\Delta vchM$  mutant strains to lethal concentrations of tobramycin and observed similar results (S1 Fig).

One crucial aspect that determines the efficacy of aminoglycoside treatment is the uptake of these drugs by the bacterial cell. This process is energy dependent and requires a threshold membrane potential (26). We used a previously reported assay that measures cell fluorescence after incubation with fluorescent-marked neomycin (neo-cy5) (27) as a proxy for aminoglycoside uptake. We did not observe any difference in fluorescence between WT and  $\Delta vchM$  mutant strains (S2 Fig). Thus, differential uptake of aminoglycosides is unlikely the reason for the increased tolerance to these drugs in  $\Delta vchM$ .

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### 184 A specific set of chaperonins is upregulated in $\Delta vchM$ cells

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To understand the high tolerance to aminoglycosides observed in  $\Delta v chM$ , we 186 187 performed RNA-seq on stationary phase cells of WT and Δ*vchM* strains grown in rich, stressfree media. The analysis of the transcriptome of  $\Delta v chM V$ . cholerae O1 El Tor N16961 strain 188 189 reveals the significant upregulation (fold change  $\geq$  2, p<0.01) and downregulation (fold change  $\leq$  -2, p<0.01) of 68 and 53 genes, respectively (S1 Table). Among the differentially 190 expressed, we found four genes directly involved in protein folding to be upregulated in 191 ΔvchM strain. Those are the molecular chaperones GroEL and co-chaperonins GroES (Table 192 2). In many bacterial species, GroEL and its co-chaperonin GroES form a molecular machine 193 essential for folding of large newly synthesized proteins also helping re-folding of proteins 194

195	damaged by proteotoxic stress (28). Interestingly, overexpression of GroES and GroEL
196	proteins was found to promote short-term tolerance to aminoglycoside-induced protein
197	misfolding in <i>E. coli</i> (29).

<b>Table 2.</b> Protein folding and stabilization genes upregulated in $\Delta v cn W$ (fold change > 2, p-value < 0.01	Table 2.	Protein folding an	d stabilization ge	enes upregula	ted in ∆ <i>vchM</i> (	fold change > 2	2, p-value < 0.0	1)
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Locus	Name	Fold change (Δ <i>vchM</i> /WT)	Annotation
vc2665	groEL-1	2.24	Chaperonin, 60-kDa subunit
vca0820	groEL-2	3.54	Chaperonin, 60-kDa subunit
vc2664	groES -1	2.60	Chaperonin, 10-kDa subunit
vca0819	groES-2	6.78	Chaperonin, 10-kDa subunit

199 V. cholerae is one of, at least, seven Vibrio species harboring two copies of groES -200 groEL (groESL) bicistronic operons (30). Whereas groESL-1 is encoded in chromosome 1 201 (vc2664-vc2665), groESL-2 is located in chromosome 2 (vca0819-0820) (Fig 3A) (30). Based on our RNA-seq data, the latter manifested a larger fold change (Table 2). In order to 202 203 confirm differential expression of these genes in ΔvchM, we measured groES-1 and groES-204 2 relative gene expression in exponential and stationary phase cells of WT and mutant 205 strains, using digital qRT-PCR with the housekeeping gyrA gene as reference (31). The results confirm a higher induction of groES-2 genes in both exponential and stationary 206 207 phase  $\Delta v chM$  cells with a fold change (over the WT) of ca. 10X and 5X, respectively (Fig 3B). However, groES-1 fold change was only slightly increased in exponential and unnoticeable 208 209 in stationary phase.

210 Induction of groESL genes is usually associated to perturbations in proteostasis 211 which leads to activation of the heat-shock response (32). Indeed, expression of both 212 *groESL-1* and *groESL-2* is controlled by the heat-shock alternative sigma factor RpoH in V. 213 *cholerae* (33). However, the upregulation of *groESL-2* genes in  $\Delta vchM$  cells is likely 214 independent of heat-shock activation as i) we do not observe any other genes of the heat-215 shock regulon being upregulated in the mutant (for example, *dnaKJ/grpE*, *clpB*, *ibpAB*) and 216 ii) expression of *groESL-1* is not as increased as expression of *groESL-2* (Fig 3B).

217 Altogether, these results confirm that in absence of VchM, expression of *groESL-2* 218 genes is markedly increased in *V. cholerae* and suggest that regulation of *groESL-2* operon 219 in the  $\Delta vchM$  mutant can be independent of heat-shock response.

220

### 221 Deletion of *groESL-2* operon abolishes Δ*vchM* high tolerance to lethal doses of tobramycin

222 In bacteria that harbor a single copy of this operon, GroESL are essential proteins for 223 cell viability (34). However, possible redundancy between groESL-1 and groESL-2 could 224 allow for the deletion of one or the other operon in V. cholerae. Thus, we attempted to 225 delete groESL-1 and groESL-2 from V. cholerae WT and  $\Delta v chM$  strains. While  $\Delta groESL-2$  and 226  $\Delta vchM$  groESL-2 strains were easily obtained, we could not manage to delete groESL-1 in any background despite several attempts. Moreover, deletion of groESL-2 did not affect the 227 growth of V. cholerae in rich medium (Fig 4A). Respectively, GroES-1 and GroEL-1 share 80% 228 229 and 87% amino acid identity with the only and essential GroES and GroEL proteins of E. coli, 230 but lower (66% and 76%) amino acid identity with GroES-2 and GroEL-2 (S3 Fig). These observations suggest that i) GroESL-1 (but not GroESL-2) is essential for V. cholerae viability 231 and ii) GroESL-1 is probably the main housekeeping chaperonin system while the divergent 232

GroESL-2 could act synergistically in response to high levels of misfolding or having specific 233 substrates upon protein damage caused by specific stresses. Surprisingly, competition of 234  $\Delta groESL-2$  with a lacZ<sup>-</sup> strain shows that loss of these proteins is not detrimental for growth 235 236 of V. cholerae in presence of subMIC TOB (S4A Fig). Similarly, survival of the  $\Delta qroESL-2$  strain to lethal doses of TOB does not differ from that of the WT (S4B Fig). However, these genes 237 238 are intrinsically highly expressed in  $\Delta v chM$  strain, where they may confer a selective 239 advantage in presence of AG stress. In this case, deletion of *groESL-2* in Δ*vchM* background would affect the mutant's tolerance. Indeed, when we compared the survival to lethal AG 240 241 treatment of  $\Delta vchM$  to that of a  $\Delta vchM$  groESL-2 double mutant, we found that the absence 242 of groESL-2 abolishes high tolerance to tobramycin and gentamicin in  $\Delta v chM$  (Fig 4B), without affecting growth in absence of stress (Fig 4A). These results show that the higher 243 expression of groESL-2 is required for the high tolerance of the  $\Delta v chM$  mutant to lethal AG 244 treatment. Importantly, we assessed whether groESL-2 locus is part of V. cholerae's intrisinc 245 246 stress response to AGs, and we observed induction of this locus by both subMIC and lethal 247 concentrations of tobramycin (S5 Fig)"

248 We then tested whether the high tolerance of this mutant relies on general higher 249 levels of chaperonins or if it specifically linked to GroESL-2 chaperonins. We thus tried to 250 complement the  $\Delta vchM$  groESL-2 mutant by ectopically expressing groESL-1 or groESL-2 251 and assessed survival to lethal doses of AGs. Strikingly, only overexpression of groESL-2 is 252 able to promote survival levels similar to those observed in  $\Delta vchM$  (Fig 4C), suggesting a 253 specific role for GroESL-2 in managing AG-mediated proteotoxic stress in *V. cholerae* cells 254 lacking VchM. Interestingly, we observed no difference in the relative fitness of  $\Delta vchM$  and 255  $\Delta vchM groESL-2$  mutants in competitions in presence of subMIC doses of tobramycin, which 256 shows that *groESL-2* it is not implicated in  $\Delta vchM$  higher relative fitness during growth in 257 subMIC AGs (Fig 4D).

### 258 VchM controls groESL-2 expression in part through direct DNA methylation

Knowing the role of VchM in regulating gene expression in V. cholerae (23), we asked 259 260 whether VchM controls groESL expression directly through DNA methylation. VchM 261 methylates the first cytosine in 5'-RCCGGY-3' motifs (16). This prompted us to search for such motifs in both groESL operons. While we couldn't detect any of these sites along the 262 263 groESL-1 locus, we found a total of four VchM motifs in groESL-2 region: motif #1 within the 5' UTR of the operon, 47 bp away from the initiation codon; motif #2 is within the coding 264 region of groES-2 while motifs #3 and #4 are located within the coding region of groEL-2 265 266 (Fig 5A). We hypothesized that the methylation state of these motifs could modulate the 267 transcription of *groESL-2* genes. To test this, we generated a mutant by replacing all RCCGGY motifs in *groESL-2* region by non-consensus motifs but maintaining the amino acid 268 sequence of GroESL-2 proteins intact (Fig 5A, mut#1-4). Additionally, we created a mutant 269 270 where only the RCCGGY #1 was altered in order to investigate if this site, for being in the 271 regulatory region of this operon, had a stronger contribution in modulating gene expression 272 (Fig 5A, mut#1). We then measured groES-2 expression in both mutants and observed that 273 disruption of RCCGGY #1 lead to a very weak increase in groES-2 expression relative to the WT, while disruption of all four sites led to a significantly higher expression of this gene (Fig. 274 275 5B), although not as high as in the  $\Delta vchM$  mutant. We additionally tested groEL-2 expression and observed similar results (S6 Fig). Supporting our hypothesis that this 276

277 regulation is methylation-dependent, we did not observe any difference in groES-2 or *groEL-2* expression when we mutated sites #1-4 in the  $\Delta vchM$  background (S6 Fig). It is 278 worth mentioning that, in these experiments, the expression of *groES-2* in the  $\Delta v chM$  strain 279 was consistently higher than in the WT mut#1-4 (Fig 5B) suggesting that an additional factor 280 (e.g. an unknown DNA methylation-sensitive transcription factor), in synergy with the 281 282 methylation of RCCGGY sites, controls expression of groES-2. Nonetheless, overall these 283 results show that a specific set of chaperonin encoding genes is under the control of DNA cytosine methylation in V. cholerae, linking DNA methylation to modulation of chaperonin 284 expression and tolerance to antibiotics. 285

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### 288 DISCUSSION

Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is currently one of the biggest threats to global health (35). It is thus urgent to not only find new and alternative ways to fight bacterial infections but also to understand how bacteria adapt to the presence of antibiotics and study the molecular mechanisms they use to circumvent antibiotic action.

In this study, we establish a previously unknown link between VchM-mediated DNA methylation and aminoglycoside susceptibility in the human pathogen *V. cholerae*. VchM is a relatively understudied orphan DNA methyltransferase only found in *V. cholerae* species, known to methylate the first cytosine at 5'-RCCGGY-3' DNA motifs (16, 23). VchM is necessary for the optimal growth of *V. cholerae*, both *in vitro* and *in vivo*, and it was shown to repress the expression of a gene important for cell envelope stability through direct DNAmethylation (23).

300 Here we show that despite the growth defect in stress-free medium, cells lacking VchM are also less susceptible to aminoglycoside toxicity. Specifically, we show that these 301 cells have a higher relative fitness in presence of low AG concentrations. The reason for this 302 303 can be inferred from the growth curves in presence of subMIC TOB (Fig 1A) where it is clear 304 that small increments in TOB concentration lead to a higher toxicity in the WT strain when 305 compared to the  $\Delta v ch M$ . Moreover, even though the MIC values for the tested AGs are the 306 same in both strains,  $\Delta v ch M$  displays a higher tolerance to lethal aminoglycoside treatment 307 (Fig 2).

Aminoglycosides are a well-known class of antimicrobial drugs that cause disruption 308 of the translation process and consequently protein misfolding (14, 36). The exact 309 310 mechanism underlying the bactericidal activity of aminoglycosides has been subject of debate in the literature (37) but it is generally accepted that killing by AGs involves i) the 311 uptake of the AG into the cytoplasm (11, 38, 39) and ii) membrane disruption mediated by 312 313 insertion of misfolded proteins in the membrane as consequence of AG binding to the 314 ribosomes and disruption of translational fidelity (11–13, 40). Indeed, mechanisms 315 modulating aminoglycoside tolerance/resistance in different bacterial species (in 316 exponential or stationary phase) have been shown to be associated either to AG uptake (41-44) or to translational fidelity and proteostasis (14, 29, 40, 45). Our results revealed a 317 higher relative abundance of groESL-2 transcripts in bacterial cells lacking VchM, which led 318 319 us to hypothesize that such increased expression of these chaperonins could underlie the

320 high tolerance to AGs observed in this mutant, as it had been previously observed in E. coli 321 (29). In fact, we show that stationary phase cells lacking both vchM and groESL-2 genes have 322 similar or even lower tolerance to lethal AG treatment compared to the WT strain. However, we could not observe a significant increase in tolerance upon overexpression of *groESL-2* in 323 the WT strain (S7 Fig), suggesting that high groESL-2 levels alone do not explain the high 324 325 tolerance to lethal AG treatment. Instead, it is possible that high levels of GroESL-2 326 chaperone system counteract AG-mediated misfolding of specific substrates present only in cells devoid of VchM. 327

328 V. cholerae harbors two copies of groESL operon in its genome, thus belonging to the group of 30% of bacterial species that contains multiple copies of these chaperonins 329 330 (46, 47). An interesting question to ask is whether these extra copies of chaperonins are 331 functionally redundant or have a more specialized role in the cell, as it had been observed 332 for *Myxococcus xanthus* (46–48). Supporting the latter hypothesis, we show here that the high tolerance observed in  $\Delta v ch M$  is dependent on the high expression of groESL-2 but not 333 334 on the high expression of *groESL-1* (Fig 4B). Amino acid identity comparison between these 335 proteins suggests that Vc GroESL-1 is likely the orthologue of the housekeeping GroESL of 336 E. coli whereas Vc GroESL-2, thought to have appeared by duplication in V. cholerae (30), differ equally from both (S3 Fig). Thus, we speculate that V. cholerae GroESL-2 constitutes 337 an alternative chaperone system capable of helping the folding of specific substrates 338 important for survival to specific stresses. The existence of an alternative groESL-2 locus in 339 340 V. cholerae that is needed for aminoglycoside tolerance only in certain contexts is a new finding and it paves the way for the study of potential alternative roles of otherwise thought 341

redundant chaperonin systems in bacteria. It would be interesting, in future studies, to
assess in depth how GroESL-2 interacts with specific substrates and which stress conditions
demand one of the chaperonins in preference to the other.

345 Interestingly, even though essential for the higher tolerance to lethal aminoglycoside treatment, groESL-2 is not involved in the increased relative fitness of the 346 347 Δ*vchM* mutant in presence of subMIC doses of aminoglycosides (Fig 4C). This suggests that 348 the mechanisms operating in  $\Delta v chM$  cells that increase their relative fitness during growth in subMIC AGs are not the same that increase their tolerance to lethal doses of these drugs. 349 In fact, it has been recently shown that the type of translation errors occurring at lower 350 streptomycin (another AG) concentrations differ from those found in high concentrations 351 of this aminoglycoside, with the latter being associated to a higher misfolding propensity 352 353 (12). Thus, it seems plausible that, in  $\Delta v chM$  cells, the higher expression of *qroESL-2* is likely 354 to be more important at high concentrations of AGs, when the abundance of misfolded proteins tend to increase. The mechanisms driving  $\Delta v chM$  higher relative fitness at lower 355 356 doses of aminoglycosides remain to be elucidated in future work.

DNA methylation controls gene expression through modulation of protein-DNA interactions (49). In most of the cases, the methylated base interferes with the binding of transcription factors and/or the RNA polymerase at the regulatory region of a gene, affecting transcription (50–52). However, there is also evidence that the presence of methylated DNA bases that occur along the coding region of genes could also directly affect their expression in bacteria, even though the precise mechanism is still unknown (20, 22, 23). In eukaryotes, cytosine methylation tends to repress gene expression. A recent study

shedding light on how cytosine methylation affect DNA mechanical properties shows that 364 cytosine methylation stabilizes the DNA helix and slows transcription in eukaryotic cells 365 (53). Thus, a similar m5C-mediated transcriptional hindrance is likely to happen also in 366 prokaryotes. Here we support this view by showing that abrogation of VchM-dependent 367 methylation of cytosines at the four RCCGGY motifs in groESL-2 region increased its 368 369 expression in WT cells (Fig 5B). However, this in unlikely the sole mechanism responsible for the high expression of *groESL-2* genes in  $\Delta v chM$  cells, as this mutant has even higher 370 expression levels of groESL-2. This suggests that the pleiotropic effects resulting from VchM 371 deficiency also affect, indirectly, the expression of these genes maybe through regulation 372 of a methylation sensitive transcription factor. Thus, VchM controls groESL-2 expression in 373 374 part in a direct and in an indirect way.

Our work shows that a V. cholerae deletion mutant of the orphan DNA methyltransferase 375 376 VchM have a general higher tolerance towards aminoglycosides. It remains to be explored 377 whether V. cholerae WT cells can modulate VchM expression and, consequently, alter the levels of cytosine methylation. Bisulfite sequencing analysis of V. cholerae genome shows 378 that all cytosines within RCCGGY motifs were methylated in V. cholerae, during exponential 379 380 and stationary phases, with the exception of three of these sites which had been previously 381 shown to be constantly undermethylated in this species (54). However, these studies were 382 conducted in cells cultured in LB stress-free media or collected from frozen rabbit cecal 383 fluid, and thus may not reflect the m5C profile of V. cholerae during other stress conditions. Moreover, bisulfite sequencing allows for cytosine methylation analysis of the total 384 population at a specific time and thus it is not suitable to detect potential transient changes 385

386 in small subpopulations of cells. Such changes could be mediated, for example, by altering the levels of VchM through gene expression. Little is known about vchM regulation but it 387 was recently shown that the V. cholerae quorum sensing low density transcriptional 388 regulator AphA is able to bind the vchM region (55) leaving the possibility that vchM may 389 be regulated by quorum sensing. Moreover, *vchM* was previously found to be differentially 390 391 expressed between different stages of human infection (56), suggesting the possibility that 392 modulation of cytosine methylation levels can be adaptative during V. cholerae's life cycle. In line with our work, lowering VchM levels could lead to a trade-off, where low m5C levels 393 394 would be detrimental for fitness in stress-free contexts, but highly advantageous in 395 presence of specific stress conditions, such as antibiotic exposure.

With this study, we show for the first time that in *V. cholerae* (and potentially other clinically relevant species) the high expression of specialized chaperonins are crucial in certain conditions where specific proteins may be affected by AGs. Moreover, we show here that there is a link between chaperonin expression and DNA cytosine methylation, which has not previously been observed, thus linking DNA methylation levels with response to proteotoxic stress.

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### 410 MATERIALS AND METHODS

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### 412 Strains, media and culture conditions

V. cholerae was routinely cultured at 37°C in Mueller-Hinton (MH) medium. Plasmids were 413 414 introduced in V. cholerae by electrotransformation. Strains containing the pSC101 plasmid 415 were grown in presence of 100 µg/mL carbenicilin for plasmid maintenance. All V. cholerae mutant strains are derived from Vibrio cholerae serotype O1 biotype El Tor strain N16961 416 hapR+. Mutants were constructed by homologous recombination after natural 417 transformation or with a conjugative suicide plasmid as previously described (15, 57–59). 418 419 Primers, strains and plasmids used in this study, and their constructions, are listed in Table 420 S2. For routine cloning we used chemically competent *E. coli* One Shot TOP10 (Invitrogen). 421 All strains and plasmids were confirmed by sanger sequencing.

### 422 Mutation of RCCGGY sites #1-4 in groESL-2 region

In order to mutate all four RCCGGY sites present in *groESL-2* (*vca0819-0820*) region we generated a DNA fragment (S2 Table) with these sites containing the following nucleotide changes: #1- ACCGGC changed to ATCGGC; #2- ACCGGC changed to ACGGGC; #3- GCCGGC changed to GCGGGC and #4- ACCGGC changed to ACGGGC. This fragment was then introduced in *V. cholerae* at the endogenous locus by allelic replacement as described in Table S2.

430

### 431 Growth curves

Overnight cultures from single colonies were diluted 1:100 in Mueller-Hinton (MH) rich
media or MH + subMIC antibiotics at different concentrations, in 96-well microplates. OD<sub>600</sub>
was measured in a Tecan Infinite plate reader at 37°C, with shaking for 20 hours.
Measurements were taken every 10 minutes.

436

### 437 MIC determination

438 MICs were determined by microtiter broth dilution method (60) with an initial inoculum 439 size of 10<sup>5</sup> CFUs/mL. The MIC was interpreted as the lowest antibiotic concentration 440 preventing visible growth.

441

### 442 Neo-Cy5 uptake

Quantification of fluorescent neomycin (Neo-cy5) uptake was performed as described (61).
Neo-cy5 is an aminoglycoside coupled to the fluorophore Cy5, and has been shown to be
active against Gram- bacteria (27). Briefly, overnight cultures were diluted 100-fold in rich
MOPS (Teknova EZ rich defined medium). When the bacterial cultures reached an OD<sub>600</sub> of
0.25, they were incubated with 0.4 µM of Cy5 labeled Neomycin for 15 minutes at 37°C. 10
µL of the incubated culture were then used for flow cytometry, diluting them in 250 µL of

PBS before reading fluorescence. Flow cytometry experiments were performed as
described (62). For each experiment, 100000 events were counted on the Miltenyi
MACSquant device.

452

### 453 **Competitions experiments**

454 Overnight cultures from single colonies of lacZ<sup>-</sup> and lacZ<sup>+</sup> strains were washed in PBS (Phosphate Buffer Saline) and mixed 1:1 (500µl + 500µl). At this point 100µl of the mix were 455 serial diluted and plated in MH agar supplemented with X-gal (5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl-456 457  $\beta$ -D-galactopyranoside) at 40  $\mu$ g/mL to assess TO initial 1:1 ratio. At the same time, 10  $\mu$ l from the mix were added to 2 mL of MH or MH supplemented with subMIC tobramycin at 458 0.6µg/mL and incubated with agitation at 37°C for 20 hours. Cultures were then diluted and 459 460 plated in MH agar plates supplemented with X-gal. Plates were incubated overnight at 37°C and the number of blue and white CFUs was assessed. Competitive index was calculated by 461 462 dividing the number of blue CFUs (lacZ<sup>+</sup> strain) by the number of white CFUs (lacZ<sup>-</sup> strain) and normalizing this ratio to the T0 initial ratio. 463

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### 465 Survival assays

Bacterial cultures from single colonies were cultured at 37°C for 16 h with agitation in 10
mL of MH medium. Aliquots from these cultures were removed, serial diluted and plated in
MH agar plates to assess CFUs formation prior antibiotic treatment (T0). In addition, 5 mL
of these aliquots were subjected to antibiotic treatment and incubated with agitation at

470  $37^{\circ}$ C. At the indicated time points, 500uL of these cultures were collected, washed in PBS, 471 serial diluted and plated in MH agar plates. The plates were then incubated overnight at 472  $37^{\circ}$ C. Survival at each time point was determined by dividing the number of CFUs/mL at 473 that time point by the number of CFUs/mL prior treatment. Antibiotics were used at the 474 following final concentrations: 20 µg/mL Tobramycin (TOB) and 10 µg/mL Gentamicin 475 (GEN). Experiments were repeated at least two to three times.

476

### 477 Digital qRT-PCR

For RNA extraction, overnight cultures of three biological replicates of strains of interest 478 were diluted 1:1000 in MH media and grown with agitation at  $37^{\circ}$ C until an OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.3 479 (exponential phase) or an OD<sub>600</sub> of 1.0 or 2.0 (stationary phase). 0.5 mL of these cultures 480 481 were centrifuged and supernatant removed. Pellets were homogenized by resuspension with 1.5 mL of cold TRIzol Reagent. Next, 300 µL chloroform were added to the samples 482 483 following mix by vortexing. Samples were then centrifuged at 4°C for 10 minutes. Upper 484 (aqueous) phase was transferred to a new 2mL tube and mixed with 1 volume of 70% ethanol. From this point, the homogenate was loaded into a RNeasy Mini kit (Quiagen) 485 486 column and RNA purification proceeded according to the manufacturer's instructions. Samples were then subjected to DNase treatment using TURBO DNA-free Kit (Ambion) 487 488 according to the manufacturer's instructions. RNA concentration of the samples was measured with NanoDrop spectrophotometer and diluted to a final concentration of 1-10 489  $ng/\mu L$ . 490

491 qRT-PCR reactions were prepared with 1 µL of diluted RNA samples using the qScript XLT 1-Step RT-gPCR ToughMix (Quanta Biosciences, Gaithersburg, MD, USA) within Sapphire 492 chips. Digital PCR was conducted on a Naica Geode (programmed to perform the sample 493 partitioning step into droplets, followed by the thermal cycling program suggested in the 494 user's manual. Primer and probe sequences used in digital gRT-PCR reaction are listed in 495 496 Table S3. Image acquisition was performed using the Naica Prism3 reader. Images were 497 then analyzed using Crystal Reader software (total droplet enumeration and droplet quality control) and the Crystal Miner software (extracted fluorescence values for each droplet). 498 499 Values were normalized against expression of the housekeeping gene *gyrA* as previously described (31). 500

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503 RNA-seq

504 For RNA extraction, overnight cultures of three biological replicates of WT and Δ*vchM* 505 strains were diluted 1:100 in MH medium and grown with agitation at 37°C until cultures 506 reach an OD<sub>600</sub> of 2.0. Total RNA extraction, library preparation, sequencing and analysis 507 were performed as previously described (63). The data for this RNA-seq study has been 508 submitted in the GenBank Sequence Read Archive (SRA) under project number 509 PRJNA509113.

510

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### 522 FIGURE CAPTIONS

# Fig 1. V. cholerae N16961 ΔvchM is less susceptible to subMIC aminoglycosides A. Growth curves in absence (MH) or presence of subMIC doses of tobramycin. Bars represent SD (n=3) B. *In vitro* competitions of WT and mutant strains against isogenic Δ*lacZ* reference strain in absence or presence of different antibiotics at subMIC concentrations (TOB, 0.6 µg/ml; GEN, 0.5 µg/ml; NEO, 2.0 µg/ml; CAM, 0.4 µg/ml; CARB, 2.5 µg/ml). Box plots indicate the median and the 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentiles; whiskers indicate the min and max values (n=6). Fig 2. ΔvchM strain is more tolerant to lethal aminoglycoside treatment. Survival of

- 530 stationary-phase WT and  $\Delta vchM$  cells exposed to lethal doses of tobramycin (TOB) (A), and
- 531 gentamicin (GEN) (B). Survival represents the number of bacteria (CFU/mL) after treatment

divided by the initial number of bacteria prior treatment. Time in the X-axis represents theduration of the antibiotic treatment in hours. Means and SD are represented, n=3.

Fig 3. *groESL-2* operon is upregulated in  $\Delta vchM$  strain. A. Schematic representation of both *groESL* operons in *V. cholerae*. The four RCCGGY sites present along the *groESL-2* region are represented by the inverted orange triangles. **B.** Fold change ( $\Delta vchM$ /WT) of the relative expression levels of *groES-1* and *groES-2* in cultures at exponential phase (Exp,  $OD_{600} \approx 0.3$ ) or stationary phase (Stat,  $OD_{600} \approx 1.8-2.0$ ). Means and SD are represented, n=3.

### **Fig 4.** *groESL-2* is needed for the increased tolerance of ΔvchM to lethal AG treatment. A.

540 Growth curves in MH medium. Means and SD are represented, n=3. B. Survival of stationary-phase WT and  $\Delta groESL-2$  cells exposed to lethal aminoglycoside treatment for 7 541 hours. Box plots indicate the median and the 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentiles; whiskers indicate the 542 min and max values (n=6 from two independent experiments). C. Survival (after 7 hours AG 543 544 treatment) of  $\Delta vchM$  groESL-2 double mutant harboring an empty plasmid or a plasmid expressing either *groESL-1* or *groESL-2*, relative to survival of the  $\Delta v chM$  with the control 545 plasmid. Box plots indicate the median and the 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentiles; whiskers indicate 546 547 the min and max values (n=6 from two independent experiments). In **B** and **C** statistically significant differences were determined using Friedman's test with Dunn's post-hoc test for 548 549 multiple comparisons. \* P<0.05, \*\* P<0.01, ns = not significant. **D.** In vitro competitions of  $\Delta v chM$  and  $\Delta v chM$  groESL-2 double mutant strains against isogenic  $\Delta lacZ$  reference strain 550 in absence or presence of subMIC TOB, 0.6  $\mu$ g/ml; Error bars indicate SD (n=6). 551

552	Fig 5.	Disrupted VchM sites in groESL-2 region leads to increased gene expression in the							
553	<b>W</b> Τ. /	A. Schematic representation of mutants with abrogated VchM sites. B. Relative							
554	expre	expression of groES-2 in the different strains at $OD_{600}$ of 1.0. Box plots indicate the median							
555	and th	ne $25^{th}$ and $75^{th}$ percentiles; whiskers indicate the min and max values (n= 5). Statistical							
556	signifi	cance was determined by Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's post-hoc test for multiple							
557	comp	arisons. * P<0.05, ** P<0.01, ns=not significant							
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734	validation. BMC Genomics, 19(1), 1-18.
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737	SUPPORTING INFORMATION
738	S1 Table. Differentially regulated genes in $\Delta vchM$ strain
739	S2 Table. Strains, plasmids and primers used in this study
740	S3 Table. Primer and probe sequences used in digital qRT-PCR
741	S1 Fig. $\Delta v chM$ exponential phase cells are more tolerant to lethal aminoglycoside
742	treatment. Survival of exponential phase cells (OD <sub>600</sub> 0.3-0.4) of WT and $\Delta vchM$ strains
743	exposed to lethal doses of tobramycin (TOB) for a period of 3.5 hours. The Y-axis represents
744	the log_10 CFUs/mL after 3.5 hours growth with 0, 3, 5 or 10 $\mu$ g/mL of Tobramycin (3x, 5x or
745	10x higher than the MIC, respectively). Means and SD are represented, n=3.
746	S2 Fig. Neo-cy5 uptake is not decreased in ΔvchM. Percentage of neo-cy5 positive cells
747	analyzed by flow cytometry after incubation with fluorescent marked neomycin. Means and
748	SD are represented, n=3.
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750	S3 Fig. Comparison of GroESL proteins from E. coli and V. cholerae. Amino acid identity
751	between GroES and GroEL proteins of E. coli MG1655 (Eco) and V. cholerae O1 El Tor

N16961 (*Vch*) computed by BLASTP. Values represent percentage identity betweenproteins.

754S4 Fig. Deletion of groESL-2 does not increase susceptibility to tobramycin. A. In vitro755competitions of WT and  $\Delta groESL-2$  strains against isogenic  $\Delta lacZ$  reference strain in absence756or presence of tobramycin (TOB) at 0.6 µg/mL; n=3, error bars indicate SD. B. Survival of757stationary-phase WT and  $\Delta groESL-2$  cells exposed to 20X MIC of tobramycin. n=3, error758bars indicate SD.

Fig. S5 groESL-2 is induced in WT cells by tobramycin at both subMIC and lethal
 concentrations. Relative expression of groES-2 in WT cells growing in MH, MH with subMIC
 tobramycin (≈ 20% MIC) or exponential phase cells following lethal TOB treatment (5X MIC)

for a period of 30 minutes. n=3, error bars indicate SD.

S6 Fig. Mutation of VchM sites in *groESL-2* region fails to affect gene expression of the
 operon in absence of VchM. Relative expression of *groES-2* and *groEL-2* genes in the

indicated strains grown at  $OD_{600}$  1.0. n=3, error bars indicate SD.

### 766 S7 Fig. Overexpression of *groESL-2* in the WT does not increase tolerance to tobramycin.

- 767 Survival (after 7 hours TOB treatment) of WT strain carrying a control plasmid or a plasmid
- 768 overexpressing *groESL-2* genes. n=6, error bars indicate SD.
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776 Figure 2



**Figure 3** 



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805	Figure 4			



# 816 Figure 5

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# 819 Supplementary data

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### 821 Table S1. Differentially regulated genes in ΔvchM strain

Locus	Name	Annotation	Fold change ∆ <i>vchM</i> /WT	p-value				
	UPREGULATED							
vca1028	lamB	maltoporin	52,81	0,0E+00				
vca0707	uhpC	MFS transporter	8,76	8,6E-06				
vc1368		conserved hypothetical protein	8,18	0,0E+00				
<u>vca0819</u>	groES-2	<u>chaperonin</u>	<u>6,78</u>	<u>0,0E+00</u>				
vca0200		putative ATPase	6,10	0,0E+00				
vca0957	glcB	putative Malate synthase	5,97	0,0E+00				
vca0199		conserved hypothetical protein	5,32	5,2E-09				
vca1027	malM	putative Maltose operon periplasmic protein MalM	4,14	0,0E+00				
vca0201		conserved hypothetical protein	3,97	3,4E-11				
vca0946	malK	Maltose/maltodextrin import ATP- binding protein malK	3,91	0,0E+00				

<b>vca0469</b> higA2 р р Н		plasmid stabilization system HigA protein (antitoxin of TA system HigB- HigA)	3,91	0,0E+00
vca0468	higB2	plasmid stabilization system HigB protein (toxin of TA system HigB- HigA)	3,90	2,3E-10
vca0945	malE	maltose ABC transporter periplasmic binding protein	3,90	0,0E+00
vc1819	aldA	Aldehyde dehydrogenase	3,84	1,7E-12
vc1204	hutG	putative Formimidoylglutamase HutG (histidine utilization)	3,80	2,2E-16
vc1203	hutU	Urocanate hydratase (histidine utilization)	3,60	0,0E+00
<u>vca0820</u>	groEL-2	<u>chaperonin</u>	<u>3,54</u>	<u>2,2E-16</u>
vca0692	secF	fragment of putative SecD/SecF/SecDF export membrane protein (part 2)	3,48	3,2E-08
vc1809	alpA	putative Prophage CP4-57 regulatory protein (AlpA)	3,37	1,8E-09
vc1205	hutl	Imidazolonepropionase (histidine utilization)	3,24	1,1E-11
vc1740	fadE	acyl coenzyme A dehydrogenase	3,22	5,6E-15
vca0944	malF	maltose ABC transporter membrane subunit MalF	3,18	0,0E+00
vc1142	cspD	Cold shock-like protein cspD	2,88	0,0E+00
vc2530	hpf	putative ribosome hibernation promoting factor HPF/sigma 54 modulation protein	2,83	0,0E+00
vca0948	yaeO	putative Rho-specific inhibitor of transcription termination (YaeO)	2,78	0,0E+00
vca0998	xenB	Xenobiotic reductase B	2,73	4,4E-06
vc0486	srlR	putative Transcriptional regulator of sugar metabolism; DeoR family transcriptional regulator	2,65	9,9E-14
vc1874		putative SpoVR family protein	2,64	0,0E+00
vc1202	hutH	Histidine ammonia-lyase	2,61	0,0E+00
vc2265	groES-1	chaperonin	2,60	0,0E+00
vc2615		conserved hypothetical protein	2,55	4,6E-10
vc1678	pspA	Phage shock protein A	2,48	4,6E-10
vc1183		putative 2OG-Fe dioxygenase	2,43	0,0E+00
vca0470		putative Acetyltransferase	2,43	2,1E-08
vca0324	relB1	Plasmid stabilization system protein RelB (Anti Toxin of TA system RelB- RelE)	2,43	1,1E-11
vca0886	kbl	glycine C-acetyltransferase	2,40	2,3E-08
vca0185	arfA	putative Stalled ribosome alternative rescue factor ArfA	2,39	3,0E-13
vca0958		putative transcriptional regulator	2,38	3,9E-10

vca0013	malP	maltodextrin phosphorylase	2,37	3,9E-11
vca0881		conserved hypothetical protein	2,36	1,1E-13
vca0551		conserved hypothetical protein	2,35	0,0E+00
vca0391	higB1	Plasmid stabilization system HigB protein (Toxin of TA system HigB- HigA)	2,34	1,5E-10
vca0923	mlp37	chemoreceptor Mlp37	2,34	2,2E-12
vc2361	grcA	Autonomous glycyl radical cofactor	2,30	0,0E+00
vca0392	higA1	Plasmid stabilization system HigA protein ( Antitoxin of TA system HigB- HigA)	2,28	0,0E+00
vc0665	vpsR	Fis family transcriptional regulator (sigma-54 dependent transcriptional regulator)	2,28	0,0E+00
vca0720	hnoX	Heme-Nitric Oxide/Oxygen Binding Protein (H-NOX)	2,27	5,1E-10
vc1433	uspE	universal stress protein UspE	2,26	0,0E+00
vc1248	tar	putative Methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein	2,25	0,0E+00
vc2264	groEL-1	chaperonin	2,24	0,0E+00
vc0734	асеВ	Malate synthase A	2,24	1,4E-06
vc2507		PhoH family protein	2,23	0,0E+00
vc1344	hppD	4-hydroxyphenylpyruvate dioxygenase	2,22	6,9E-15
vca0219	hlyA	Hemolysin	2,20	5,7E-14
vca0159		putative Universal stress protein family 1	2,17	2,9E-15
vca0987	ppsA	phosphoenolpyruvate synthase	2,15	2,6E-09
vca0359	parE2	Plasmid stabilization system ParE protein (toxin of TA system ParD- ParE)	2,14	9,4E-10
vca0004		conserved hypothetical protein	2,14	0,0E+00
vc1222	ihfA	integration host factor subunit $\alpha$	2,13	0,0E+00
vc2758	fadB	fatty acid oxidation complex subunit alpha FadB	2,10	6,1E-10
vc2704		conserved hypothetical protein	2,10	8,9E-09
vc1962	nlpE	copper resistance protein NIpE N- terminal domain-containing protein	2,08	3,9E-09
vca0278	glyA	serine hydroxymethyltransferase	2,04	0,0E+00
vca0280	gcvT	glycine cleavage system 2,04 aminomethyltransferase		4,4E-16
vc0976	qmcA	putative Membrane protease subunits, stomatin/prohibitin homolog qmcA	2,03	6,5E-06
vc1539a		hypothetical protein	2,02	6,9E-10
vc0666		conserved hypothetical protein	2,02	1,8E-09
vc2144	flaF	Polar flagellin F	2,01	3,0E-13

DOWNREGULATED					
Locus	Name	Annotation	Fold change Δ <i>vchM</i> /WT	p-value	
vca0198	vchM	Cytosine-specific DNA methyltransferase	-12,22	1,4E-24	
vca0933	cspE	transcription antiterminator and regulator of RNA stability	-8,41	1,0E-07	
vca0017	hcp	Haemolysin co-regulated protein (putative Type VI secretion system effector, Hcp1)	-3,20	1,3E-10	
vc2383	ilvY	putative Transcriptional regulator, LysR family	-3,14	5,9E-27	
vca0804	deaD	Cold-shock DEAD box protein A	-3,12	6,5E-49	
vca0874		conserved hypothetical protein	-3,10	1,1E-05	
vc1704	metE	5- methyltetrahydropteroyltriglutamate- -homocysteine methyltransferase	-3,02	7,6E-21	
vc0768	guaA	GMP synthetase	-2,91	2,7E-72	
vca0680	парС	Cytochrome c-type protein napC	-2,87	2,4E-07	
vca0679	парВ	Diheme cytochrome c napB	-2,82	2,1E-06	
vca0935		hypothetical protein	-2,76	1,2E-10	
vc1261		putative Sugar efflux transporter B	-2,63	3,9E-07	
vc0069	mdtL	putative FLORFENICOL EXPORTER	-2,53	8,1E-14	
vca1002		AzIC family ABC transporter permease	-2,49	2,0E-08	
vc1415	hcp	type VI secretion system secreted protein Hcp	-2,48	1,0E-06	
vc0433	arcD	Arginine/ornithine antiporter	-2,48	1,9E-06	
vc1393	sugE	Quaternary ammonium compound- resistance protein sugE	-2,43	3,4E-22	
vc1035		conserved hypothetical protein	-2,40	6,3E-06	
vc1608		ABC transporter permease	-2,38	2,8E-11	
vca0250		Alpha-amylase	-2,37	7,2E-08	
vc0767	guaB	inositol-5-monophosphate dehydrogenase	-2,31	3,0E-22	
vc1239	cobU	cobinamide-P guanylyltransferase / cobinamide kinase	-2,28	1,2E-09	
vc0290	fis	DNA-binding protein fis	-2,27	1,4E-04	
vc2227	purN	phosphoribosylglycinamide formyltransferase 1	-2,25	2,6E-10	
vc2384		TSUP family transporter	-2,24	8,1E-16	
vca1003		AzID domain-containing protein	-2,23	1,5E-11	
vca0678	napA	Periplasmic nitrate reductase	-2,22	2,6E-10	
vca1031		Methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein	-2,21	7,0E-11	
vc1843	cydB	Cytochrome d ubiquinol oxidase subunit 2	-2,21	5,9E-13	

vc0191	rhtC	putative Lysine/Homoserine/Threonine exporter protein	-2,20	2,6E-10
vc1609		ABC transporter permease	-2,19	2,2E-10
vc0005	yidD	membrane protein insertion efficiency factor	-2,16	4,9E-10
vc0291	dusB	tRNA-dihydrouridine synthase B	-2,16	3,8E-16
vc1855	<u>dinG</u>	ATP-dependent DNA helicase DinG	-2,15	7,7E-07
vc2382		conserved hypothetical protein	-2,15	3,1E-07
vc1842	cydX	cytochrome bd-I oxidase subunit CydX	-2,14	1,8E-06
vc1629		ABC transporter permease	-2,13	3,0E-06
vc0706	raiA	Ribosome-associated inhibitor A	-2,13	1,1E-08
vc2047		SDR family oxidoreductase	-2,11	3,4E-23
vc1174	trpE	Anthranilate synthase component 1	-2,09	9,9E-18
vc1240		histidine phosphatase family protein	-2,09	1,5E-06
vc0940		conserved hypothetical protein	-2,07	1,3E-07
vc1487		glutaredoxin family protein	-2,06	8,0E-06
vca0214	emrD	multidrug efflux pump EmrD	-2,05	6,0E-12
vca0269		aspartate aminotransferase family protein	-2,04	2,2E-13
vc2647	aphA	Transcriptional regulator PadR family	-2,04	9,6E-56
vc2226	purM	Phosphoribosylformylglycinamidine cyclo-ligase	-2,02	9,3E-10
vc0651		putative Peptidase U32	-2,02	2,4E-13
vc1630		putative SalX, ABC-type antimicrobial peptide transport system, ATPase component	-2,02	2,5E-19
vca0684		MFS transporter	-2,02	9,3E-14
vc0717	yegQ	tRNA 5-hydroxyuridine modification protein YegQ	-2,01	4,2E-09
vc1856		TSUP family transporter	-2,00	7,2E-10
vc0987	hemH	ferrochelatase	-2,00	1,9E-17

# Table S2. Strains, plasmids and primers used in this study

Strain	Lab Strain number	Source/Construction
Vibrio cholerae		

N16961 hapR+ WT	F606	Gift from Melanie Blokesch
Δ <i>vchM</i> (vca0198)	H507	PCR amplification of 500bp up and down genomic regions of VCA0198 using primers ZIP136/137 and ZIP138/139. PCR amplification of aadA7 conferring spectinomycin resistance on pAM34 using ZB47/48. PCR assembly of the VCA0198::spec fragment using ZIP136/139 and allelic exchange by natural transformation in F606.
$\Delta lacZ$	K329	Lab collection
ΔgroESL-2 (vca0819-0820)	M958	allelic exchange by integration and excision of conjugative suicide plasmid pMP7 (pM340) replacing the gene with frt::kan::frt
ΔvchM ΔgroESL-2	N330	PCR amplification of 500bp up and down genomic regions of VCA0198 using primers ZIP136/137 and ZIP138/139. PCR amplification of aadA7 conferring spectinomycin resistance on pAM34 using ZB47/48. PCR assembly of the VCA0198::spec fragment using ZIP136/139 and allelic exchange by natural transformation in M958
WT – VchM site	1900	allelic exchange by integration and excision of conjugative suicide plasmid pMP7 (pL442)
(mut #1)	LJUU	
WT – VchM sites #1-4 mutated (mut #1-4)	Q827	allelic exchange by integration and excision of conjugative suicide plasmid pMP7 containing the <i>groESL-2</i> region with sites #1-4 mutated (pQ824) in M958 strain.
		allelia evolution and evolution of conjugative
4	Q828	suicide plasmid pMP7 containing the <i>groESL-2</i> region with sites #1-4 mutated (pQ824) in N330
Plasmids		
pMP7- Δ <i>vca0819-</i> <i>0820</i> ::kan	M340	gibson assembly using primers MV450/451 for the amplification of pMP7 vector, primers "vca0819-8205" and "vca0819-8206" for up and down regions of the gene, and primers MV268/269 on pKD4 plasmid for the resistance gene (frt::kan::frt).
pMP7- C->T point mutation	L442	Amplification of 500bp upstream of <i>vca0819</i> with primers 5923/5922; Amplification of 500bp downstream of <i>vca0819</i> with 5924/5921; PCR assembly of the two fragments with

of VchM site #1 in 5' UTR region of vca0819- 0820		primers 5923/5924. Note: Primers 5922 and 5921 contain a mismatch to give origin to a C->T point mutation in VchM site #1. The fragment was then cloned in a pTOPO vector and sub cloned into pMP7 using <i>EcoRI</i> restriction sites.
pMP7- sites #1- 4 mutated in vca0819-0820 region	Q824	A groESL-2 fragment with mutations in VchM sites #2-4 was synthesized and cloned in a pTOPO vector. This fragment was then PCR assembled to the 5' UTR region containing site #1 mutated (from strain L900), which originated a final fragment containing the #1-4 mutated sites. This fragment was then cloned in pTOPO and sub cloned into pMP7 using <i>EcoRI</i> restriction sites.
pSC101- groESL-1	O849	Amplification of <i>vc2664-2665</i> from <i>V. cholerae</i> gDNA with primers AFC046/AFC047. Primer AFC046 contains a Ptrc promoter. Fragment cloned in pSC101 low copy plasmid (carbenicillin resistant) using <i>EcoRI</i> restriction sites
pSC101- groESL-2	N752	Amplification of <i>vca0819-0820</i> from <i>V. cholerae</i> gDNA with primers AFC029/AFC030. Primer AFC029 contains a Ptrc promoter. Fragment cloned in pSC101 low copy plasmid (carbenicillin resistant) using <i>EcoRI</i> restriction sites
		Amplification of <i>vca0198 (vchM)</i> with its own promoter from <i>V</i> .
pSC101- <i>vchM</i>	Q826	<i>cholerae</i> gDNA with primers 5990/5911. Cloning in pTOPO vector and sub cloning in pSC101 low copy plasmid (carbenicillin resistant) using <i>BamHI</i> and <i>PstI</i> restriction sites
pSC101-vchM Primers	Q826	cholerae gDNA with primers 5990/5911. Cloning in pTOPO vector and sub cloning in pSC101 low copy plasmid (carbenicillin resistant) using <i>BamHI</i> and <i>PstI</i> restriction sites Sequence 5'-3'
pSC101- <i>vchM</i> Primers ZIP136	Q826	choleraegDNAwith primers5990/5911. Cloning in pTOPOvectorandsubcloning inpSC101lowcopyplasmid(carbenicillin resistant)usingBamHI and PstI restriction sitesSequence 5'-3'GCCGCCGAAGGAAAAACCGTACTATTGC
pSC101-vchM Primers ZIP136 ZIP137	Q826	cholerae gDNA with primers 5990/5911. Cloning in pTOPOvector and sub cloning in pSC101 low copy plasmid(carbenicillin resistant) using BamHI and PstI restriction sitesSequence 5'-3'GCCGCCGAAGGAAAAACCGTACTATTGCGCGAGCATCGTTTGTTCGCCCAGCTTCTGTATGGAACGGGTTAACTGTATCACCATACTACCATGG
pSC101-vchM Primers ZIP136 ZIP137 ZIP138	Q826	choleraegDNAwith primers5990/5911. Cloning in pTOPOvectorandsubcloning in pSC101lowcopyplasmid(carbenicillin resistant)usingBamHI and PstI restriction sitesSequence 5'-3'GCCGCCGAAGGAAAAACCGTACTATTGCGCGAGCATCGTTTGTTCGCCCAGCTTCTGTATGGAACGGGTTAACTGTATCACCATACTACTCATGGCGTGAAAGGCGAGATCACCAAGGTAGTCGGCAAATAATGTCTACATGCTTCACAGCGTAGTCGC
pSC101-vchM Primers ZIP136 ZIP137 ZIP138 ZIP139	Q826	cholerae gDNA with primers 5990/5911. Cloning in pTOPOvector and sub cloning in pSC101 low copy plasmid(carbenicillin resistant) using BamHI and PstI restriction sitesSequence 5'-3'GCCGCCGAAGGAAAAACCGTACTATTGCGCGAGCATCGTTTGTTCGCCCAGCTTCTGTATGGAACGGGTTAACTGTATCACCATACTACTCATGGCGTGAAAGGCGAGATCACCAAGGTAGTCGGCAAATAATGTCTACATGCTTCACAGCGTAGTCGCTTAATTTCTCGAGTTTCAGATGC
pSC101-vchM Primers ZIP136 ZIP137 ZIP138 ZIP139 ZB47	Q826	choleraegDNA with primers5990/5911. Cloning in pTOPOvectorandsubcloning inpSC101lowcopyplasmid(carbenicillin resistant)usingBamHI and PstI restriction sitesSequence 5'-3'GCCGCCGAAGGAAAAACCGTACTATTGCGCGAGCATCGTTTGTTCGCCCAGCTTCTGTATGGAACGGGTTAACTGTATCACCATACTACTCATGGCGTGAAAGGCGAGATCACCAAGGTAGTCGGCAAATAATGTCTACATGCTTCACAGCGTAGTCGCTTAATTTCTCGAGTTTCAGATGCCCCGTTCCATACAGAAGCTGGGCGAACAAACGATGCTCGC
pSC101-vchM Primers ZIP136 ZIP137 ZIP138 ZIP139 ZB47 ZB48	Q826	choleraegDNAwith primers5990/5911. Cloning in pTOPOvectorandsubcloning in pSC101lowcopyplasmid(carbenicillin resistant)usingBamHI and PstI restriction sitesSequence 5'-3'GCCGCCGAAGGAAAAACCGTACTATTGCGCGAGCATCGTTTGTTCGCCCAGCTTCTGTATGGAACGGGTTAACTGTATCACCATACTACTCATGGCGTGAAAGGCGAGATCACCAAGGTAGTCGGCAAATAATGTCTACATGCTTCACAGCGTAGTCGCTTAATTTCTCGAGTTTCAGATGCCCCGTTCCATACAGAAGCTGGGCGAACAAACGATGCTCGCGACATTATTTGCCGACTACCTTGGTGATCTCGCCTTTCACG
pSC101-vchM         Primers         ZIP136         ZIP137         ZIP138         ZIP139         ZB47         ZB48         vca0819-8205	Q826	choleraegDNAwith primers5990/5911. Cloning in pTOPOvectorandsubcloning in pSC101lowcopyplasmid(carbenicillin resistant)usingBamHI and PstI restriction sitesSequence 5'-3'GCCGCCGAAGGAAAAAACCGTACTATTGCGCGAGCATCGTTTGTTCGCCCAGCTTCTGTATGGAACGGGTTAACTGTATCACCATACTACTCACTCATGGCGTGAAAGGCGAGATCACCAAGGTAGTCGGCAAATAATGTCTACATGCTTCACAGCGTAGTCGCTTAATTTCTCGAGTTTCAGATGCCCCGTTCCATACAGAAGCTGGGCGAACAAACGATGCTCGCGACATTATTTGCCGACTACCTTGGTGATCTCGCCTTTCACGCTATTATTTAAACTCTTTCCGTTTTGCCTT
pSC101-vchM         Primers         ZIP136         ZIP137         ZIP138         ZIP139         ZB47         ZB48         vca0819-8205         vca0819-8206	Q826	choleraegDNA with primers5990/5911. Cloning in pTOPOvectorandsubcloning in pSC101lowcopyplasmid(carbenicillin resistant)usingBamHI and PstI restrictionsitesSequence5'-3'GCCGCCGAAGGAAAAACCGTACTATTGCGCGAGCATCGTTTGTTCGCCCAGCTTCTGTATGGAACGGGTTAACTGTATCACCATACTACTTGCCCAGCTTCTGTATGGAACGGGGTTAACTGTATCACCATACTACCTCATGGCGTGAAAGGCGAGATCACCAAGGTAGTCGGCAAATAATGTCTACATGCTTCACAGCGTAGTCGCTTAATTTCTCGAGTTTCAGATGCCCCGTTCCATACAGAAGCTGGGCGAACAAACGATGCTCGCGACATTATTTGCCGACTACCTTGGTGATCTCGCCTTTCACGCTATTATTTAAACTCTTTCCGTTTTGCCTTTACGTAGAATGTATCAGACTCGCCCAAGGA
pSC101-vchM         Primers         ZIP136         ZIP137         ZIP138         ZIP139         ZB47         ZB48         vca0819-8205         vca0819-8206         5921	Q826	choleraegDNA with primers5990/5911. Cloning in pTOPOvectorand subcloning in pSC101lowcopyplasmid(carbenicillin resistant)usingBamHI and PstI restrictionsitesSequence5'-3'GCCGCCGAAGGAAAAACCGTACTATTGCGCGAGCATCGTTTGTTCGCCCAGCTTCTGTATGGAACGGGTTAACTGTATCACCATACTACTCATAGGCGTGAAAGGCGAGATCACCAAGGTAGTCGGCAAATAATGTCTACATGCTTCACAGCGTAGTCGCTTAATTTCTCGAGTTTCAGATGCCCGTTCCATACAGAAGCTGGGCGAACAAACGATGCTCGCGACATTATTTGCCGACTACCTTGGTGATCTCGCCTTTCACGCTATTATTTAAACTCTTTCCGTTTTGCCTTTACGTAGAATGTATCAGACTCGCCCAAGGAAAACAATCCTATCAGGCCTTTTATCAAACAATCCTATCGGCCTTTTATC

5923	ACTTTGATGGTACGCGCGATG
5924	GATTTATTGAGCACAACATGGCG
AFC029	GTAAGTGAATTCTTGACAATTAATCATCCGGCTCGTATAATGTGTG GAATTGTGAGCGGATAACAATTTCACACAGGAAACAGCGCCGCAT GAATATTCGTCCTTTACATG
AFC030	GTAAGTGAATTCATTACGCCGCAGACTCTTTGTC
AFC046	GTAAGTGAATTCTTGACAATTAATCATCCGGCTCGTATAATGTGTG GAATTGTGAGCGGATAACAATTTCACACAGGAAACAGCGCCGCAT GAATATTCGTCCATTACATGAC
AFC047	GTAAGTGAATTCCTGCTAAGGGGGATGATTACA
5990	GTTTTTGCTGCCGTCTGCTA
5911	GTAGTCGACCCTTTTTACAAACTTTCTAGA

# 828Table S3. Primer and probe sequences used in digital qRT-PCR

Target	Primers (5'-3')	Probes (5'-3')	
gyrA	AATGTGCTGGGCAACGACTG	[Cy5]-CACCCTCATGGTGACAGTGCGGTTT-[BHQ2]	
	GAGCCAAAGTTACCTTGGCC		
groES-1	CGTAGCTTTCTGCGAAGATC		
	TGGTGGAATTGTTCTAACTG		
groES-2	GGCGACCAGATCATTTTCAAC	[FAM] - TGGACGGTAAAGAGTATCTGATCCTCTCC-[BHQ1]	
	TCTACAATCGCTAACACATCAG		
aroFL-2	TGCTATCGTTCAGAATCAACC	[HEX] -AAGCTTACCAGCATAGAACTTGCCAGAGAT-[BHO1]	
9.0222	TTTACTTCTCGCTCCCAATCG		

838 S1 Figure









# **S3 Figure**







863 **S5 Figure** 



groEL-2

871

mut #1-4 \(\Delta vchM\)

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870

∆*vchM* mut #1-4

# **S7 Figure**

