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Phosphodiesterase DosP Increases Persistence by Reducing cAMP which Reduces the Signal Indole[†]

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ABSTRACT

Persisters are bacteria that are highly tolerant to antibiotics due to their dormant state and are of clinical significance owing to their role in infections. Given that the population of persisters increases in biofilms and that cyclic diguanylate (c-di-GMP) is an intracellular signal that increases biofilm formation, we sought to determine whether c-di-GMP has a role in bacterial persistence. By examining the effect of 30 genes from *Escherichia coli*, including diguanylate cyclases that synthesize c-di-GMP and phosphodiesterases that breakdown c-di-GMP, we determined that DosP (direct oxygen sensing phosphodiesterase) increases persistence by over a thousand fold. Using both transcriptomic and proteomic approaches, we determined that DosP increases persistence by decreasing tryptophanase activity and thus indole. Corroborating this effect, addition of indole reduced persistence. Despite the role of DosP as a c-di-GMP phosphodiesterase, the decrease in tryptophanase activity was found to be a result of cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP) phosphodiesterase activity. Corroborating this result, the reduction of cAMP via CpdA, a cAMP-specific phosphodiesterase, increased persistence and reduced indole levels similarly to DosP. Therefore, phosphodiesterase DosP increases persistence by reducing the interkingdom signal indole via reduction of the global regulator cAMP.

INTRODUCTION

It has long been established that lethal antibiotic treatments are unable to kill a small fraction of persistent bacteria (Hobby et al. 1942). This insensitivity to antibiotic treatment is not due to any inherent or developed resistance as cultures grown from these persister cells show the same sensitivity to the antibiotic as the parent culture (Bigger 1944; Lewis 2010). The persister phenotype has been exhibited in all bacteria tested (Lewis 2008), but the mechanisms underlying persistence have yet to be fully elucidated. However, it is clear that persisters are metabolically dormant (Kwan et al. 2013; Wood et al. 2013), and that toxins of toxin/antitoxin pairs increase persistence by inhibiting metabolic activity (Dörr et al. 2010; Kim and Wood 2010).

Biofilm formation provides protection to bacteria against environmental stress, and greater numbers of persister cells are found in biofilms and stationary-phase cultures in comparison to exponential-phase cultures (Lewis 2008). Though the majority of biofilm cells are sensitive to antibiotics, persisters account for the resilience of biofilms, as the high proportion of persister cells in a biofilm allows survival of the population (Lewis 2010).

Environmental signaling plays a role in persistence as demonstrated by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, in which the quorum sensing-linked molecules *N*-(3-oxo-dodecanoyl)-*L*-homoserine lactone and pyocyanin increase persistence in exponential-phase cultures (Möker et al. 2010). Since quorum sensing and biofilm formation invoke high levels of persistence, we reasoned that cyclic diguanylate (c-di-GMP), which increases biofilm formation (Römling et al. 2013), may play a role in modulating persistence. Two molecules of GTP are converted to c-di-GMP by diguanylate cyclases (DGCs), which contain GGDEF domains, and c-di-GMP is degraded into linear di-GMP (pGpG) by phosphodiesterases (PDEs), which contain EAL or HD-GYP domains. The importance of c-di-GMP in bacterial physiology and its tight regulation is evident by the presence of numerous DGCs and PDEs in a given strain; for example, in *E. coli* K-12 there are 12 proteins with a GGDEF domain, 10 proteins with an EAL domain, and 7 proteins with both EAL and GGDEF domains in a single polypeptide (Sommerfeldt et al. 2009; Weber et al. 2006). Additionally, our lab recently discovered a biofilm dispersal protein (BdcA) that binds c-di-GMP but does not act as a phosphodiesterase (Ma et al. 2011).

DosP, named as the <u>direct oxygen sensing phosphodiesterase</u> (Tuckerman et al. 2009), is a 90 kDa protein with an NH₂-terminal heme sensor-PAS-PAS-containing domain and a COOH-terminal GGDEF-EAL catalytic phosphodiesterase domain in which the GGDEF domain is inactive (Méndez-Ortiz et al. 2006). DosP cleaves both c-di-GMP (Schmidt et al. 2005) and

cAMP (Sasakura et al. 2002), although c-di-GMP is proposed as the physiological substrate due to higher activity towards c-di-GMP than cAMP (Schmidt et al. 2005). Nevertheless, DosP is important for maintaining cAMP levels (Yoshimura-Suzuki et al. 2005), which are tightly regulated at low intracellular concentrations (Hantke et al. 2011). DosP is active as a tetramer and is strongly inhibited by CO, NO, and etazolate, a selective cAMP PDE inhibitor (Sasakura et al. 2002). The heme binding domain of DosP is 60% homologous to the PAS oxygen sensing domain of FixL, an oxygen responsive biological sensor in rhizobia (Delgado-Nixon et al. 2000). The catalytic activity of DosP is therefore oxygen dependent (Kobayashi et al. 2010) and is enhanced 17 fold when saturated with O₂ (Tuckerman et al. 2009). DosP is also activated during entry into stationary phase and is positively regulated by RpoS, the stationary phase sigma factor (Sommerfeldt et al. 2009).

Environmental signaling is also conveyed by the cell signal indole. In *E. coli*, indole regulates several cellular processes including conferring multi-drug resistance (Hirakawa et al. 2005), increasing plasmid stability (Chant and Summers 2007; Field and Summers 2012), decreasing motility (Bansal et al. 2007; Lee et al. 2007c), and decreasing biofilm formation (Domka et al. 2006; Lee et al. 2007a; Lee et al. 2007b; Lee et al. 2009b). Indole is also an interspecies signal for bacterial biofilm formation and virulence (Chu et al. 2012; Lee et al. 2009a; Lee et al. 2007a; Lee et al. 2007b) and an interkingdom signal between bacteria and epithelial cells in the gastrointestinal tract (Bansal et al. 2010). In *E. coli*, indole is produced by tryptophanase (TnaA), which degrades tryptophan into indole, pyruvate, and ammonia (Newton and Snell 1964). Indole is primarily imported by Mtr (Yanofsky et al. 1991) and exported by the AcrEF-TolC multi-drug efflux system (Kawamura-Sato et al. 1999), although it is possible for small amounts of indole to cross the *E. coli* membrane independently of both transporters (Kamaraju et al. 2011; Piñero-Fernandez et al. 2011).

One positive regulator of indole is cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP), a regulatory molecule used by species across multiple kingdoms. In bacteria, cAMP controls protein synthesis primarily through catabolite mediated repression of transcription (Rickenberg 1974). In *E. coli*, cellular cAMP levels correspond inversely to the carbon source, resulting in low concentrations in the presence of a readily metabolizable carbon source (e.g., glucose) (Rickenberg 1974). cAMP binds to CRP, the catabolite receptor protein in *E. coli*, to form the cAMP-CRP transcriptional regulator (Rickenberg 1974), which controls a large regulon and acts as a positive regulator for the *tna* operon, responsible for indole synthesis (Stewart and Yanofsky 1985).

In this work, we found that the phosphodiesterase DosP increases persistence via decreased activity of tryptophanase which results in reduced levels of the signal indole. This regulation of tryptophanase is mediated by cleavage of the cellular

signal cAMP by DosP. The involvement of regulatory signals cAMP and indole lends credence to the involvement of numerous pathways in persister cell formation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains and growth conditions. The bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study are described in **Table I**. Cultures were grown in lysogeny broth (LB) (Sambrook et al. 1989) at 37°C with shaking unless indicated otherwise. Kanamycin (50 μ g/mL) and chloramphenicol (30 μ g/mL) were utilized to maintain the pCA24N- and pBS(Kan)-based plasmids. The pCA24N-*dosP* plasmid was sequenced to confirm the presence of *dosP*⁺.

Persister cell formation assay. Persistence was determined by comparing cell viability before and after lethal antibiotic treatment. Overnight cultures were inoculated into LB medium with appropriate antibiotics to maintain plasmids and grown to a turbidity of 1.0 at 600 nm. For strains containing plasmids, gene expression was induced with IPTG (1 mM) for 2 h and cultures were adjusted to a turbidity of 1.0 at 600 nm in fresh LB medium. Cells were then exposed to 100 μg/mL ampicillin or 5 μg/mL ciprofloxacin for 2 to 4 h. The antibiotic concentrations used were at least 10-fold greater that the minimum inhibitory concentration for the wild-type host strain (Kwan et al. 2013) to ensure that any altered resistance of the strains used was not a contributing factor in the persister results. To measure cell viability, samples were taken before and after antibiotic treatment, washed and serially diluted in 0.85% (w/v) NaCl solution, plated on LB agar, and grown overnight at 37°C to determine CFU/mL (Donegan et al. 1991). Experiments were performed with at least two independent cultures.

DNA microarrays. Overnight cultures of BW25113/pCA24N-dosP and BW25113/pCA24N were inoculated into LB medium with appropriate antibiotics to maintain plasmids, grown to a turbidity of 1.0 at 600 nm, and induced with IPTG (1 mM) for 90 min to produce DosP. Cell pellets were isolated and flash-frozen in ethanol/dry ice. RNALater buffer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) was added to stabilize RNA during preparation. Total RNA was isolated from cells as described previously (Ren et al. 2004a) using a bead beater (Biospec, Bartlesville, OK, USA). cDNA synthesis, fragmentation, and hybridization to *E. coli* GeneChip Genome 2.0 arrays (Affymetrix, Santa Clara, CA, USA; P/N 900551) were performed as described previously (González Barrios et al. 2006). Genes were identified as differentially expressed if the expression signal ratio was higher than the standard deviation (1.72) and the P-value for comparing two chips was less than 0.05 (Ren et al. 2004b). The whole-transcriptome dataset is available in the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/) through accession number GSE47427.

Proteomics. Overnight cultures of BW25113/pCA24N-dosP and BW25113/pCA24N were inoculated into LB medium with

appropriate antibiotics to maintain plasmids, grown to a turbidity of 1.0 at 600 nm, and induced with IPTG (1 mM) for 2 h to produce DosP. Cell pellets were isolated and flash frozen in ethanol/dry ice. Total soluble protein was extracted using B-PER (Bacterial Protein Extraction Reagents; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). In summary, 1 g of cell pellet was lysed by suspending in 4 mL of B-PER containing 100 µg/mL lysozyme (Thermo Fisher Scientific), 5 Kunitz units/mL DNase I (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany), and 12.5% (v/v) EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA). The lysate was centrifuged and the supernatant, containing the soluble fraction, was collected. Samples were normalized using IR spectroscopy and 100 µg of protein was labeled with a Tandem Mass Tag Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Proteins were digested with 2 μg of sequencing grade trypsin (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) overnight at 37°C. The digestion mixtures were filtered with 50 kDa MWCO centrifugal filters (EMD Millipore, Billerica MA, USA). Samples were dried using a Speedvac. The digestion mixtures were reconstituted in 100 μL of 4% (v/v) aqueous acetonitrile with 0.1% (v/v) formic acid. The mixture (2 μL) was loaded onto an Acclaim PepMap100 trapping column (100 μm x 2 cm, C18, 5μm, 100 Å, Thermo Fisher Scientific) at a flow rate of 20 μL/min using 4% (v/v) aqueous acetonitrile as a mobile phase. Peptides were separated on an Acclaim PepMap RSLC column (75 µm x 15 cm, C18, 2 µm, 100 Å, Thermo Fisher Scientific) with a 90 minute 4%-50% (v/v) linear gradient of acetonitrile in water containing 0.1% (v/v) formic acid. A Dionex Ultimate 3000 nano-LC system (Thermo Fisher Scientific) was used to deliver the gradient solution at 300 nL/min. Data was acquired over a 40 to 2000 m/z range with an LTQ Orbitrap Velos mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific) using the following datadependent parameters: full FT MS scan at a resolution of 60,000 followed by 10x ion trap MS² scans on the most intense precursor ions with CID activation. Charge states of +2 or higher were used to select precursors for MS²; monoisotopic precursor selection was enabled, and the isolation window was 2 m/z.

Proteome Discoverer 1.3 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) was used to process the mass spectra using the following search parameters: precursor tolerance 10 ppm, fragment tolerance 0.8 Da (ion trap), dynamic modifications including oxidation (+15.995 Da, M) and deamidation (+0.984 Da, N, Q), and a static modification with carbamidomethyl (+57.021 Da, C). The absolute XCorr threshold and the peptide without protein threshold were set to zero in the peptide scoring option. Proteins were identified from the Uniprot *E. coli* K-12 database (March, 2013). The generated msf file was loaded into Scaffold 4.0 (Proteome Software, Inc., Portland, OR, USA) and searched with X!Tandem (Global Proteome Machine) against the *E. coli* K-12 database.

Indole assays. Overnight cultures were inoculated into LB medium with appropriate antibiotics to maintain plasmids, and

grown to a turbidity of 1.0 at 600 nm. Strains containing plasmids were induced with IPTG (1 mM) for 2 h. Cells were pelleted and the supernatant was collected (i.e., extracellular sample). Cells were resuspended in fresh LB medium and sonicated to lyse cells using a 60 Sonic Dismembrator (Fisher Scientific, Hampton, NH, USA). Samples were pelleted to remove debris and the supernatant was collected (i.e., intracellular sample). Extracellular and intracellular indole concentrations were measured spectrophotometrically based on absorbance at 540 nm using Kovac's reagent and HCl-amyl alcohol as described previously (Domka et al. 2006). Experiments were performed with at least two independent cultures.

Biofilm formation. Overnight cultures were diluted to a turbidity of 0.05 at 600 nm in LB medium with or without 1 mM IPTG and with appropriate antibiotics to maintain plasmids. Cultures were grown for 24 h at 37°C in 96-well plates (300 μL/well). Biofilm formation was assayed using crystal violet staining as described previously (Lee et al. 2009b). Cell growth (turbidity at 620 nm) was used to normalize the total biofilm formation (absorbance at 540 nm). Data points were averaged from at least 12 replicate wells using at least two independent cultures.

Intracellular cAMP levels. Overnight cultures were inoculated into LB medium with appropriate antibiotics to maintain plasmids, grown to a turbidity of 1.0 at 600 nm, and induced with IPTG (1 mM) for 2 h. Cells were pelleted, resuspended in fresh LB medium, sonicated to lyse cells using a 60 Sonic Dismembrator (Fisher Scientific), and centrifuged to remove debris. cAMP was acetylated and quantified using a competitive enzyme immunoassay kit (Cayman Chemical Company, Ann Arbor, MI, USA).

RESULTS

DosP increases persistence. To determine if proteins associated with c-di-GMP play a role in persistence, we quantified the number of persister cells surviving ampicillin treatment for 29 isogenic deletion mutants lacking genes encoding diguanylate cyclases and phosphodiesterases. We identified 12 proteins potentially related to persistence (DosC, YdeH, YeaP, YedQ, DosP, Gmr, CsrD, YhjK, BluF (YcgF), YdiV, YjcC, and YliE) based on changes in persistence of 3-fold or greater. We further tested these proteins by producing the 12 proteins via IPTG-inducible plasmids from the ASKA Collection and determining persistence upon production of the DGCs and PDEs. We found that producing DosP caused the most significant difference, increasing persistence to both ampicillin (4200 \pm 400 fold) and ciprofloxacin (62 \pm 3 fold) (**Fig. 1A**) without affecting overall cell growth (specific growth rate of BW25113/pCA24N-*dosP* of 0.66 \pm 0.09 h⁻¹ vs. 0.74 \pm 0.06 h⁻¹for BW25113/pCA24N). The consistent trend across multiple antibiotic classes demonstrates the multidrug tolerance that is the trait of persister cells (Wiuff et al. 2005); hence, DosP increases persistence dramatically.

DosP reduces biofilm formation. DosP is an active phosphodiesterase which degrades c-di-GMP to linear pGpG (Schmidt et al. 2005; Tuckerman et al. 2009). We reasoned that if DosP is active *in vivo* as a phosphodiesterase, production of DosP should reduce biofilm formation since c-di-GMP increases biofilm formation in many bacteria (Hengge 2009). Corroborating this hypothesis, the production of DosP reduced mature biofilm formation by -25 ± 12 fold with low levels of DosP (from the uninduced leaky P_{T5-lac} promoter) and eradicated biofilm formation with high levels of DosP (1 mM IPTG induction) (**Fig. 1B**). This confirms that DosP is an active phosphodiesterase that reduces c-di-GMP *in vivo*.

BdcA also increases persistence. Since DosP reduces c-di-GMP and increases persistence, we tested persistence from production of BdcA, which sequesters c-di-GMP and causes biofilm dispersal (Ma et al. 2011). We found that producing BdcA from pCA24N-bdcA to reduce c-di-GMP increased persistence by 430 \pm 80 fold relative to the empty plasmid. However, production of other c-di-GMP-related proteins did not affect persistence as expected based on DosP and BdcA; i.e., other PDEs did not necessarily increase persistence and DGCs did not necessarily reduce persistence. For example, GGDEF protein YeaP unexpectedly increased persistence by 9 \pm 4 fold. Furthermore, unlike phosphodiesterase DosP, EAL protein YahA reduced persistence by -261 \pm 30 fold. Therefore, these results suggested that c-di-GMP levels may not be the mechanism by which DosP increases persistence.

DosP inhibits tryptophanase. To investigate further the relationship between DosP and persistence, we performed a microarray study to determine the effect of DosP production on the transcriptome. We found differential expression (\geq 4-fold) of 72 transcripts (**Table II**), including repression of genes involved in tryptophan synthesis (the precursor for indole (Newton and Snell 1964)), indole synthesis, and indole import: trpE (-8.0 fold), trpL (-7.5 fold), trpD (-6.5 fold), trpD (-6.5 fold), trpD (-6.1 fold), and trpD (-4.9 fold).

Additionally, we performed a proteomic study with DosP using the same conditions and found that one of the most significantly reduced proteins was tryptophanase (TnaA, -33.1 fold, **Table III**), the enzyme responsible for indole synthesis. Hence, both the microarray and proteomic studies indicated that DosP either directly or indirectly reduces cellular tryptophanase.

In addition to regulation of tryptophanase-related genes, the transcriptomic and proteomic results both suggest down-regulation of genes encoding several major components of or related to the tricarboxylic acid cycle and glyoxylate cycle: aceE, acs, yjcH, actP, sdhC, sdhD, sdhA, sucB, sucC, sucD, aceA, and aceB. The results also indicate down-regulation of genes encoding several stress-related proteins involved in starvation (dps, sspA, and ndk), oxidative (katE and katG), acid

(hdeA and hdeB), and UV (uspE) stress responses. Therefore, DosP causes a general reduction in cellular metabolism and stress responses, which may contribute to persistence through dormancy.

DosP and BdcA decrease indole. Based on the inhibition of tryptophanase by DosP, we measured indole concentrations and found that producing DosP reduced extracellular indole by -3.9 ± 1.4 fold and intracellular indole by -2.9 ± 0.8 fold (**Fig. 1C**). Corroborating this result, inactivating DosP increased extracellular indole by 2.0 ± 0.3 fold and intracellular indole by 2.0 ± 0.02 fold. We also tested whether the decreased tryptophanase activity observed with DosP was unique by producing other c-di-GMP-related proteins and found that there was no significant difference in extracellular indole concentrations for DGCs AdrA (1.3 ± 0.2 fold) and DosC (1.1 ± 0.2 fold) or for PDEs Gmr (-1.3 ± 0.04 fold) and YjcC (1.4 ± 0.2 fold). The DGC AdrA substantially increases c-di-GMP levels (Antoniani et al. 2010; Tagliabue et al. 2010), while DosC serves as the DGC component of the DosP-DosC c-di-GMP module and also increases c-di-GMP (Méndez-Ortiz et al. 2006; Tagliabue et al. 2010). Conversely, both PDEs Gmr (YciR) (Weber et al. 2006) and YjcC reduce c-di-GMP via cleavage. Unlike the DGCs and PDEs, we found that c-di-GMP binding protein BdcA reduced extracellular indole (-2.0 ± 0.1 fold), although less significantly than DosP. The trends in both indole and persistence are not consistent among the DGCs and PDEs, again demonstrating that c-di-GMP is not correlated with persistence.

DosP increases persistence via reduced indole. Since DosP reduced indole, we sought to test whether the signal indole was mediating persistence. We recently found that addition of indole to a ΔmaA strain decreased persister formation with multiple antibiotics in a dose-dependent manner by up to -52 ± 1 fold with 2 mM indole (Fig. 2A and B) (Hu et al. 2014). The indole concentrations tested were consistent with previous studies regarding the role of indole signaling in biofilm formation (Lee et al. 2007b), multidrug export (Hirakawa et al. 2005), and stress responses (Hirakawa et al. 2010) (concentrations of 0.5-2.0 mM). Furthermore, transient intracellular concentrations are reported to reach as high as 60 mM (Gaimster et al. 2014). Additionally supporting the importance of indole signaling in persistence, absence of the indole importer Mtr increased persistence 28 ± 11 fold (Fig. 2C). Corroborating the role of indole in DosP-mediated persistence, when TnaA and DosP were produced concurrently from two IPTG inducible plasmids (i.e., pBS(Kan)-dosP and pCA24N-tnaA) in the same host, DosP no longer induced persistence (Fig. 2D). Together, these three sets of experiments show conclusively that indole inversely regulates persistence and that DosP increases persistence via regulation of TnaA.

cAMP is cleaved by DosP and modulates persistence. Since there was no consistent relationship between c-di-GMP and persistence and since DosP was originally characterized as a cAMP phosphodiesterase (Sasakura et al. 2002), we investigated

the possibility that DosP may modulate tryptophanase activity and persistence through cAMP cleavage. If this is the case, it would suggest that BdcA has the same effects through an uncharacterized binding affinity for cAMP. Based on the microarray conducted for production of DosP (**Table II**), 37 of the 72 significantly affected transcripts showed differential expression consistent with a reduction in the cAMP-CRP transcriptional regulator. Critically, cAMP-CRP is a positive regulator for transcription of the *tna* operon (Stewart and Yanofsky 1985), responsible for indole synthesis.

Initially, we tested the impact of cAMP on persistence through CpdA, a cAMP-specific phosphodiesterase (Imamura et al. 1996). We found that production of CpdA (i.e., reduced cAMP) increased persistence 235 \pm 15 fold (**Fig. 3A**). Furthermore, absence of the single adenylate cyclase ($\Delta cyaA$) producing cAMP in *E. coli* (Tuckerman et al. 2009) increased persistence 19 \pm 4 fold (**Fig. 3B**). Similar to results with DosP and BdcA, production of CpdA reduced extracellular indole (-9 \pm 1.1 fold) and intracellular indole (-8 \pm 0.2 fold) (**Fig. 3C**), suggesting analogous cAMP reduction. Also, a cAMP enzyme immunoassay was performed to verify that DosP reduced intracellular cAMP (-2 \pm 0.1 fold) whereas the positive control CpdA essentially eliminated all cAMP (-323 \pm 81 fold) (**Fig. 3D**). Hence, cAMP inversely controls persistence through direct regulation of indole. CpdA eliminated nearly all cAMP yet did not increase persistence as significantly as DosP, suggesting that cAMP regulation may not be the only mechanism through which DosP increases persistence.

Since glucose inhibits intracellular cAMP accumulation (Buettner et al. 1973), we also tested the effect of glucose supplementation on persistence from DosP production to determine the extent to which DosP persistence is dependent on reducing cAMP. We found that glucose reduced DosP-mediated persistence by -25 ± 6 fold (**Fig. 3E**), a result which clearly demonstrates the cAMP dependence of DosP persistence while also suggesting the existence of additional DosP persistence mechanisms. In addition to cAMP cleavage, DosP may further contribute to persistence through the general down-regulation of metabolism noted in the transcriptomic and proteomic studies (**Tables II and III**). Nonetheless, the distinctly reduced effect of DosP on persistence with low intracellular cAMP (i.e., with glucose) and the consistent results for both CpdA and DosP suggest that DosP increases persistence by cleaving cAMP, to reduce *tma* operon transcription and indole synthesis.

DISCUSSION

Our results show that cAMP inversely regulates persistence by inducing the *tna* operon which increases indole. The phosphodiesterase DosP has activity against both c-di-GMP and cAMP (Sasakura et al. 2002), and here DosP degradation of cAMP leads to reduced indole concentrations and increased persistence. DosP activity is directly dependent on oxygen concentrations, which suggests that DosP mediates persister cell formation with changing oxygen availability. Our proposed

regulatory pathway (Fig. 4) implicates both the internal regulator cAMP and the external signal indole as mediators of persistence.

It was previously proposed that DosP may signal increased oxygen concentrations present when cells exhibit slow metabolism (Tuckerman et al. 2009). Since producing DosP leads to higher persistence, then perhaps DosP contributes to the increased persistence observed in slow growing cultures. Additionally, DosP activity may be regulated in cells located within different layers of biofilms, which contain a gradient of oxygen levels (Tuckerman et al. 2009). Oxygen content is higher in the top layer of biofilms due to air exposure (Rani et al. 2007), so DosP may act as a mechanism to maintain a persister subpopulation among cells in the outer layer of biofilms.

cAMP concentrations fluctuate based on carbon metabolism (Rickenberg 1974) and exogenous addition of cAMP has been purported to increase persistence (Amato et al. 2013). Since cAMP uptake occurs via facilitated diffusion (i.e., energy-independent transport) (Goldenbaum and Hall 1979), exogenous cAMP is likely internalized. Therefore, cAMP was proposed to increase persistence by stimulating RelA expression to produce the stringent response alarmone ppGpp (Amato et al. 2013), which was previously implicated in multiple persister formation pathways (Wood et al. 2013). In contrast, our results show that decreasing cellular cAMP via phosphodiesterases increases persistence via diminished indole. Therefore, the specific role of cAMP in persistence may be complex, likely due to the vast size of the cAMP-CRP regulon (more than 180 genes) (Tan et al. 2001; Zheng et al. 2004). Versatile involvement of cAMP in persistence provides bacterial populations with mechanisms for maintaining persister subpopulations across a number of different growth conditions. Therefore, cAMP adds to the redundancy of persister mechanisms, similarly characterized for toxin/antitoxin systems (Wood et al. 2013), and ensures the presence of a persistent population to prevent sterilization of a bacterial population.

Our results indicating that indole reduces persistence are in contrast to those reported previously (Vega et al. 2012) but are consistent with our recent results involving endoribonuclease toxin YafQ of the *E. coli* Yafq/DinJ toxin/antitoxin system; we found that YafQ increases persistence by decreasing indole concentrations, resulting from a reduction in TnaA (Hu et al. 2014). Since *tnaA* is repressed in *E. coli* biofilm cultures (Ren et al. 2004a), our findings suggest that the total cell population contributes to high persister levels in biofilms by reducing intercellular signaling through indole. This is also reasonable since indole reduces biofilm formation (Domka et al. 2006; Lee et al. 2007a; Lee et al. 2007b; Lee et al. 2009b).

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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Table I. Bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study.

Strain	Genotype	Source
BW25113	rrnB3 Δ lacZ4787 hsdR514 Δ (araBAD)567 Δ (rhaBAD)568 rph-1	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 ΔadrA	BW25113 $\Delta adrA \Omega \text{ Km}^R$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 $\Delta bdcA$	BW25113 $\Delta bdcA \Omega \text{ Km}^{\text{R}}$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 $\Delta dosC$	BW25113 $\Delta dosC \Omega \text{ Km}^R$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 $\Delta dosP$	BW25113 $\triangle dosP \Omega \text{ Km}^R$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 Δgmr	BW25113 $\Delta gmr \Omega \text{ Km}^{R}$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 Δ <i>rtn</i>	BW25113 $\Delta rtn \Omega \text{ Km}^{R}$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 ΔtnaA	BW25113 $\Delta tnaA \Omega \text{ Km}^R$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 ΔyahA	BW25113 $\Delta yahA \Omega \text{ Km}^R$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 $\Delta ycdT$	BW25113 $\Delta y c dT \Omega \text{ Km}^R$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 Δ <i>ycgF</i>	BW25113 $\Delta ycgF \Omega \text{ Km}^R$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 ΔydaM	BW25113 $\Delta y daM \Omega \text{ Km}^R$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 ΔydeH	BW25113 $\Delta y de H \Omega \text{ Km}^{R}$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 ΔydiV	BW25113 $\Delta y diV \Omega \text{ Km}^{R}$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 ΔyeaI	BW25113 $\Delta yeaI \Omega \text{ Km}^R$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 ΔyeaJ	BW25113 $\Delta yeaJ \Omega \text{ Km}^R$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 ΔyeaP	BW25113 $\Delta yeaP \Omega \text{ Km}^R$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 $\Delta yedQ$	BW25113 $\Delta yedQ \Omega \text{ Km}^R$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 $\Delta yegE$	BW25113 $\Delta yegE \Omega \text{ Km}^R$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 ΔyfeA	BW25113 $\Delta y f e A \Omega \text{ Km}^{R}$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 $\Delta yfgF$	BW25113 $\Delta yfgF \Omega \text{ Km}^R$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 ΔyfiN	BW25113 $\Delta y fiN \Omega Km^R$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 ΔyhdA	BW25113 $\Delta yhdA \Omega \text{ Km}^R$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 $\Delta yhjK$	BW25113 $\Delta yhjK \Omega \text{ Km}^R$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 ΔyhjH	BW25113 $\Delta yhjH \Omega \text{ Km}^R$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 Δ <i>yjcC</i>	BW25113 $\Delta yjcC \Omega \text{ Km}^R$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 ΔylaB	BW25113 $\Delta y laB \Omega \text{ Km}^R$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 $\Delta y liE$	BW25113 $\Delta y liE \Omega \text{ Km}^{R}$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 $\Delta y liF$	BW25113 $\Delta y liF \Omega \text{ Km}^R$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 ΔyneF	BW25113 $\Delta yneF \Omega \text{ Km}^R$	(Baba et al. 2006)
BW25113 ΔyoaD	BW25113 $\Delta yoaD \Omega \text{ Km}^R$	(Baba et al. 2006)

Plasmid

pCA24N	Cm ^R ; lacI ^q , pCA24N	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-adrA	Cm^{R} ; $lacI^{q}$, pCA24N P_{T5-lac} :: $adrA$	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-bdcA	Cm^{R} ; $lacI^{q}$, pCA24N P_{T5-lac} :: $bdcA$	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-dosC	Cm^{R} ; $lacI^{q}$, pCA24N P_{T5-lac} :: $dosC$	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-dosP	Cm^{R} ; $lacI^{q}$, pCA24N P_{T5-lac} :: $dosP$	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-gmr	Cm^{R} ; $lacI^{q}$, pCA24N P_{T5-lac} :: gmr	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-yahA	Cm^{R} ; $lacI^{q}$, pCA24N P_{T5-lac} :: $yahA$	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-yaiC	Cm^{R} ; $lacI^{q}$, $pCA24N P_{T5-lac}$:: $yaiC$	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N- <i>ycgF</i>	Cm^{R} ; $lacI^{q}$, pCA24N P_{T5-lac} :: $ycgF$	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-ydaM	Cm^{R} ; $lacI^{q}$, pCA24N P_{T5-lac} :: $ydaM$	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-ydeH	Cm^{R} ; $lacI^{q}$, pCA24N P_{T5-lac} :: $ydeH$	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-ydiV	Cm ^R ; lacI ^q , pCA24N P _{T5-lac} ::ydiV	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-yeaI	Cm ^R ; lacI ^q , pCA24N P _{T5-lac} ::yeaI	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-yeaJ	Cm ^R ; lacI ^q , pCA24N P _{T5-lac} ::yeaJ	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-yeaP	Cm^{R} ; $lacI^{q}$, pCA24N P_{T5-lac} :: $yeaP$	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-yedQ	Cm^{R} ; $lacI^{q}$, pCA24N P_{T5-lac} :: $yedQ$	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-yegE	Cm^{R} ; $lacI^{q}$, pCA24N P_{T5-lac} :: $yegE$	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-yfeA	Cm ^R ; lacI ^q , pCA24N P _{T5-lac} ::yfeA	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-yfgF	Cm^{R} ; $lacI^{q}$, pCA24N P_{T5-lac} :: $yfgF$	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-yfiN	Cm ^R ; lacI ^q , pCA24N P _{T5-lac} ::yfiN	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-yhdA	Cm ^R ; lacI ^q , pCA24N P _{T5-lac} ::yhdA	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-yhjH	Cm^{R} ; $lacI^{q}$, pCA24N P_{T5-lac} :: $yhjH$	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-yjcC	Cm ^R ; lacI ^q , pCA24N P _{T5-lac} ::yjcC	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-ylaB	Cm ^R ; lacI ^q , pCA24N P _{T5-lac} ::ylaB	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-yliE	Cm^{R} ; $lacI^{q}$, pCA24N P_{T5-lac} :: $yliE$	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-yliF	Cm ^R ; lacI ^q , pCA24N P _{T5-lac} ::yliF	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-yneF	Cm ^R ; lacI ^q , pCA24N P _{T5-lac} ::yneF	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-yoaD	Cm ^R ; lacI ^q , pCA24N P _{T5-lac} ::yoaD	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pCA24N-cpdA	Cm^{R} ; $lacI^{q}$, pCA24N P_{T5-lac} :: $cpdA$	(Kitagawa et al. 2005)
pBS(Kan)	Km ^R ; pBS(Kan)	(Canada et al. 2002)
pBS(Kan)-dosP	Km ^R ; pBS(Kan) P _{lac} ::dosP	This study

Table II. Summary of the largest changes in gene expression as a result of producing DosP (i.e., BW25113/pCA24N-*dosP* vs. BW25113/pCA24N). Differentially-expressed genes regulated by reduced cAMP-CRP are in bold.

Gene	b	Fold	fferentially-expressed genes regulated by reduced cAMP-CRP are in bold. Description
	number	Change	The second secon
Amino	Acid Biosy	nthesis, Catal	polism, and Transport
trpE	b1264	-8.0	Anthranilate synthase, trp operon
trpL	b1265	-7.5	trp operon leader peptide
trpD	b1263	-6.5	Anthranilate phosphoribosyl transferase, trp operon
tnaA	b3708	-7.5	Tryptophanase, makes indole, tna operon
tnaL	b3707	-6.1	Tryptophanase leader peptide, tna operon
mtr	b3161	-4.9	Tryptophan and indole permease (import)
astC	b1748	-4.9	Arginine catabolic pathway
dppA	b3544	-4.9	Binding component of dipeptide ABC transporter (import)
dppD	b3541	-4.6	ATP binding component of dipeptide ABC transporter (import)
glnH	b0811	-4.6	Component of glutamine ABC transporter (import)
sdaC	b2796	-4.6	Serine proton-symporter (import)
gcvH	b2904	-4.9	H-protein of glycine cleavage system
gcvT	b2905	-4.9	T-protein of glycine cleavage system
gcvP	b2903	-4.0	P-protein of glycine cleavage system
cstA	b0598	-4.0	Peptide transporter (import), induced by CsrA during carbon starvation
aspA	b4139	-4.0	Aspartate-ammonia lyase
Carbol	hydrate Cat	abolism and '	<u> Fransport</u>
gatC	b2092	-7.5	Galactitol-specific enzyme IIC of phosphotransferase system
gatB	b2093	-7.5	Galactitol-specific enzyme IIB of phosphotransferase system
gatD	b2091	-6.5	Galactitol-1-phosphate dehydrogenase
gatZ	b2095	-6.5	GatYZ subunit
gatA	b2094	-5.7	Galactitol-specific enzyme IIA of phosphotransferase system
gatY	b2096	-4.6	GatYZ subunit
acs	b4069	-8.0	Acetyl-CoA synthetase
yjcH	b4068	-6.1	Cotranscribed with acs
actP	b4067	-5.7	Cotranscribed with acs, acetate/glycolate permease, acs pathway
sdhC	b0721	-5.7	Cytochrome b556 with SdhD, succinate dehydrogenase
sdhD	b0722	-5.7	Cytochrome b556 with SdhC, succinate dehydrogenase
sdhA	b0723	-4.0	Succinate dehydrogenase
sucC	b0728	-5.7	Succinyl CoA synthase subunit, CoA binding site
sucB	b 0727	-4.9	Forms succinyl-CoA, suc operon
gabD	b2661	-5.3	Succinate semialdehyde dehydrogenase, utilizes NADP+
gabT	b2662	-5.3	4-aminobutyrate aminotransferase, GABA degradation pathway
fbaB	b2097	-5.3	Fructose biphosphate aldolase
aldA	b1415	-5.3	Aldehyde dehydrogenase A, repressed anaerobically by ArcA
mglB	b2150	-4.9	Binding component of galactose ABC transporter (import)
rbsB	b3751	-4.9	Component of ribose ABC transporter (import)
csrB	b4408	-4.6	Regulator of CsrA (carbohydrate metabolism and biofilm regulator)
malE	b4034	-4.6	Substrate binding component of maltose ABC transporter (import)

pckA	b3403	-4.3	PEP carboxykinase, gluconeogenesis
rbsD	b3748	-4.3	Ribose pyranase, required for efficient utilization of ribose
ptsH	b2415	-4.0	Sugar-non-specific component of PEP phosphotransferase system
таеВ	b2463	-4.0	Component of malate dehydrogenase, citric acid cycle/gluconeogenesis
eno	b2779	-4.0	Phosphopyruvate hydratase (enolase), glycolysis
Station	nary Phase	Ribosome Inte	<u>eraction</u>
yfiA	b2597	-7.0	Involved in ribosome modulation during stationary phase
yqjD	b3098	-4.0	Associates with 30S subunit of 70S and 100S ribosome during stationary phase
Memb	rane Trans	sport Proteins	
ompC	b2215	-7.0	Outer membrane protein
lamB	b4036	-6.1	Maltose sugar porin
nmpC	b0553	-5.3	General bacterial porin, silent gene in E. coli K-12
Stress	Response		
katE	b1732	-4.6	Catalase hydroperoxidase II, oxidative stress response
ndk	b2518	-4.6	Nucleoside diphosphate kinase, suggested involvement in stringent response
ynaF	b1376	-4.3	Stress induced protein, promotes adhesion over motility
cspC	b1823	-4.3	Cold-shock protein linked to rpoS mRNA stability
hdeB	b3509	-4.0	Acid stress response chaperone
hdeA	b3510	-4.0	Acid stress response
Miscel	laneous Ge	enes Induced by	y Stationary Phase or Starvation
cspD	b0880	-5.7	Toxin related to persister cells, increased in stationary phase
csiD	b2659	-5.7	Starvation induced gene, unknown function
wrbA	b1004	-5.7	Flavodoxin protein family, increased in stationary phase
ftn	b1905	-5.3	Iron storage protein ferritin, increased in stationary phase
ygaF	b2660	-5.3	L-2 hydroxyglutarate oxidase, increased in stationary phase
rpsV	b1480	-5.7	30S ribosomal subunit, increased in stationary phase
yeaG	b1783	-4.0	Unknown function, increased in stationary phase or acid/salt stress
Miscel	laneous Ge	enes or Unknov	vn Function
ryeE	b4438	-4.9	Small regulatory RNA, cAMP activated
msyB	b1051	-4.9	Restores growth and protein export of secY and secA mutants
malM	b4037	-4.3	Unknown function, maltose regulon
mipA	b1782	-4.3	Scaffolding protein for murein synthesis
fabA	b0954	-4.3	Subunit of 3R-3-hydroxydecanoyl-ACP dehydratase
yccJ	b1003	-4.3	Predicted protein, unknown function
IS092	b4434	16.0	Small RNA (isrB), unknown function
ibpB	b3686	7.5	Small heat-shock protein
	1.2074		non-translated protein, affects DNA polymerase I activity, inhibits galK
spf	b3864	6.1	(galactose metabolism)
ybbD	b0500	4.6	Conserved hypothetical protein, unknown function
ydcL	b1431	4.6	Lipoprotein, unknown function

Table III. Summary of the largest changes in protein levels as a result of producing DosP (i.e., BW25113/pCA24N-dosP vs. BW25113/pCA24N).

Protein	Accession	Fold Change	Description					
TnaA	Q5UES8	-33.1	Tryptophanase					
Replication			••					
YiiU	C3SIZ2	-57.2	Cell division, coordinate FtsZ for division					
Phosphate A	llocating Prot	eins						
Upp	E2QPW1	-14.3	Uracil phosphoribosyltransferase					
Ndk	E2QPY4	-4.6	Nucleoside diphosphate kinase, involved in stringent response					
Stress Respo	Stress Response Proteins							
SspA	C3SRY7	-20.2	Induced by stringent starvation, inhibits accumulation of H-NS					
Dps	E2QII0	-9.9	Starvation stress response					
KatG	E2QIX4	-7.7	Catalase, oxidative stress response					
UspE	C3TBD7	-5.3	Resistance to UV irradiation, stress inducible					
Global Regu	latory Protein	ıs						
Hns	C3TCN2	-5.4	Global transcriptional regulator					
IhfA	Q14F23	-3.2	Global transcriptional regulator					
Chaperone/7	Translation/H	ousekeeping Prot	eins					
YhbC	C3SSN2	-14.9	Assists in maturation of 30S ribosomal subunit					
FusA	C3SQS7	-14.1	Elongation factor G, facilitates ribosomal translocation					
ClpB	E2QQ51	-5.9	ATP dependent protease					
GroL	Q548M1	-4.3	Hsp60 chaperone for protein folding					
RhlB	E2QHV7	-3.5	RNA helicase of degradosome					
TufB	E2QFJ4	-3.4	Elongation factor Tu, coordinates charged tRNA					
HslO	E2QFQ1	3.6	Hsp33, expressed under heat shock and activated by oxidative stress					
Tig	E2QGI0	2.3	Chaperone involved in folding nascent cytosolic proteins					
Metabolic Pi								
AceE	E2QF44	-53.6	Component of pyruvate dehydrogenase complex					
AceA	E2QJ37	-37.8	Isocitrate lyase, glyoxylate cycle					
AceB	E2QJ36	-13.4	Malate synthase, glyoxylate cycle					
FabB	E2QPI4	-9.8	Fatty acid biosynthesis					
GapA	C3T6W2	-8.5	G3P dehydrogenase, required for glycolysis					
SucD	C3TIK7	-5.4	Succinyl-CoA synthase					
Pta	E2QPF8	-4.9	Acetate metabolism					
AtpH	C3SL92	-3.3	Component of ATP synthase					
DapD	E2QF93	-2.6	Lysine biosynthetic pathway					
Ribosomal P	roteins							
RpsA	C3TGB2	-7.9	S1 component of 30S ribosomal subunit					
RpsF	C3SFQ7	-5.4	S6 component of 30S ribosomal subunit					
RplD	C3SQU7	-4.8	L4 component of 50S ribosomal subunit					
RpsG	C3SQS2	-3.5	S7 component of 30S ribosomal subunit					
RplA	C3SIC2	2.6	L1 component of 50S ribosomal subunit					
RplF	C3SR17	2.0	L6 component of 50S ribosomal subunit					
	is and Unchar	racterized Proteir	•					
TorC	E2QJN9	-8.5	Inner membrane cytochrome					
ElaB	C3T2J7	-6.3	Unknown function					
YbfN	E2QI69	-3.5	Unknown function					

FIGURE LEGENDS

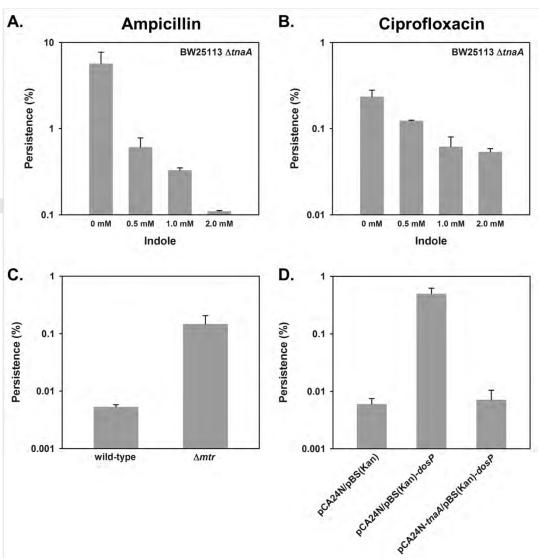
- Fig. 1. DosP is an active phosphodiesterase *in vivo* that reduces indole. (A) Persister cell formation for BW25113/pCA24N-*dosP* and BW25113/pCA24N grown to a turbidity of 1.0 in LB medium, induced with 1 mM IPTG for 2 h, adjusted to a turbidity of 1.0, and exposed to 100 μg/mL ampicillin or 5 μg/mL ciprofloxacin for 3 h. (B) Biofilm formation for BW25113/pCA24N-*dosP* and BW25113/pCA24N after 24 h of static growth at 37°C with and without 1 mM IPTG induction in LB medium. (C) Extracellular and intracellular indole concentrations for BW25113/pCA24N-*dosP* and BW25113/pCA24N after 2 h of DosP production via 1 mM IPTG. All data are averaged from two independent cultures and one standard deviation is shown.
- **Fig. 2. DosP induces persistence via reduced indole.** Persister cell formation for the following strains and conditions: (**A** and **B**) BW25113 Δ*tmaA* grown to a turbidity of 2.0 in LB medium, exposed to 0, 0.5, 1, and 2 mM indole for 2 h, adjusted to a turbidity of 1.0, and exposed to (**A**) 100 μg/mL ampicillin or (**B**) 5 μg/mL ciprofloxacin for 2 h, (**C**) BW25113 Δ*mtr* and wild-type grown to a turbidity of 1.0 in LB medium and exposed to 100 μg/mL ampicillin for 3 h, and (**D**) BW25113/pCA24N/pBS(Kan), BW25113/pCA24N/pBS(Kan)-*dosP*, and BW25113/pCA24N-*tmaA*/pBS(Kan)-*dosP* grown to a turbidity of 1.0 in LB medium supplemented with 2 mM *L*-tryptophan, induced with 1 mM IPTG for 2 h, adjusted to a turbidity of 1.0, and exposed to 100 μg/mL ampicillin for 3 h. All data are averaged from at least two independent cultures and one standard deviation is shown.
- Fig. 3. cAMP is cleaved by DosP and regulates indole and persistence. Persister cell formation for the following strains and conditions: (A) BW25113/pCA24N-cpdA and BW25113/pCA24N grown to a turbidity of 1.0 in LB medium, induced with 1 mM IPTG for 2 h, adjusted to a turbidity of 1.0, and exposed to 100 μg/mL ampicillin for 3 h and (B) BW25113 ΔcyaA and wild-type grown to a turbidity of 1.0 in LB medium and exposed to 100 μg/mL ampicillin for 3 h. (C) Extracellular and intracellular indole concentrations for BW25113/pCA24N-cpdA and BW25113/pCA24N after 2 h of CpdA production via 1 mM IPTG. (D) Cellular cAMP concentrations for BW25113/pCA24N-dosP, BW25113/pCA24N-cpdA, and BW25113/pCA24N after 2 h of induction via 1 mM IPTG. (E) Persister cell formation for BW25113/pCA24N-dosP and BW25113/pCA24N grown to a turbidity of 1.0 in LB medium with and without 1% (w/v) glucose, induced with 1 mM IPTG for 2 h, adjusted to a turbidity of 1.0, and exposed to 100 μg/mL ampicillin for 3 h. All data are averaged from at least two independent cultures and one

standard deviation is shown.

Fig. 4. Schematic for persistence induced by DosP production. DosP is a phosphodiesterase that is activated by oxygen and cleaves both c-di-GMP and cAMP. cAMP and CRP form a transcriptional regulation complex which induces expression of the tna operon. TnaA synthesizes indole from L-tryptophan, and indole reduces persistence. Curved arrows indicate enzymatic reactions, \rightarrow indicates induction, and \bot indicates inhibition.

Figure 1

Figure 2



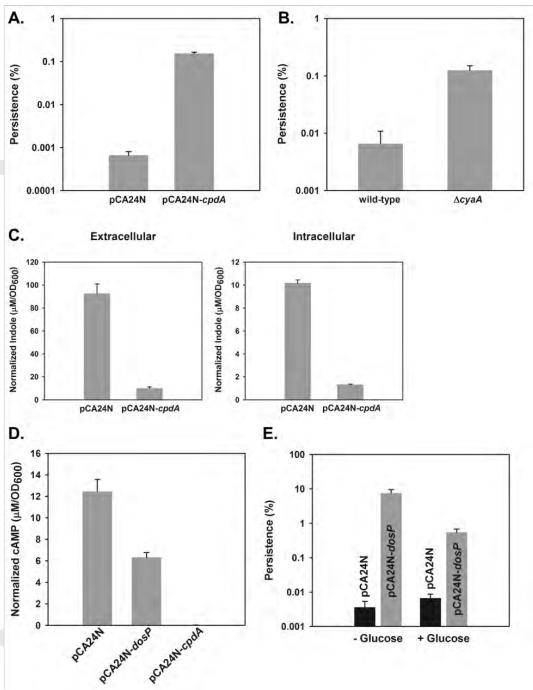


Figure 3



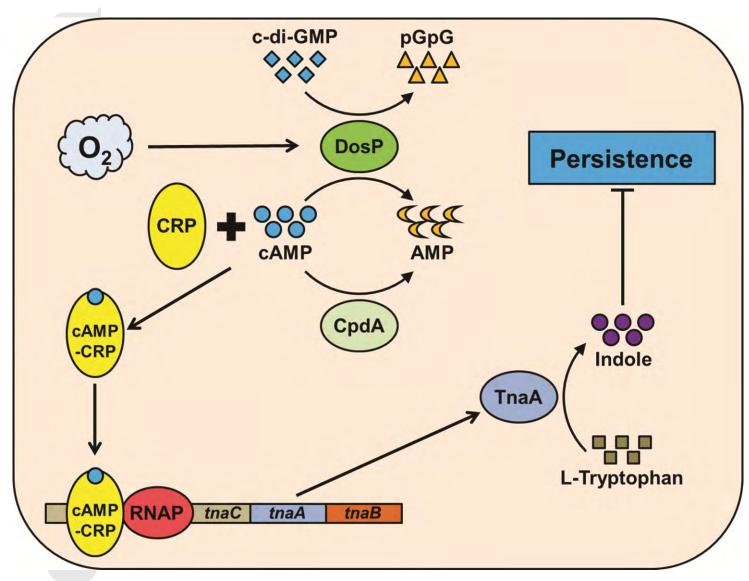


Figure 4