Redefining the *Clostridioides difficile* $\sigma^B$ Regulon: $\sigma^B$ Activates Genes Involved in Detoxifying Radicals That Can Result from the Exposure to Antimicrobials and Hydrogen Peroxide

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**ABSTRACT** In many Gram-positive bacteria, the general stress response is regulated at the transcriptional level by the alternative sigma factor sigma B ($\sigma^B$). In *C. difficile*, $\sigma^B$ has been implicated in protection against stressors such as reactive oxygen species (ROS) and antimicrobial compounds. Here, we used an anti-$\sigma^B$ antibody to demonstrate time-limited overproduction of $\sigma^B$ in *C. difficile* despite its toxicity at higher cellular concentrations. This toxicity eventually led to the loss of the plasmid used for anhydrotetracycline-induced $\sigma^B$ gene expression. Inducible $\sigma^B$ overproduction uncouples $\sigma^B$ expression from its native regulatory network and allows for the refinement of the previously proposed $\sigma^B$ regulon. At least 32% of the regulon was found to consist of genes involved in the response to reactive radicals. Direct gene activation by *C. difficile* $\sigma^B$ was demonstrated through *in vitro* runoff transcription of specific target genes (*cd0350*, *cd3614*, *cd3605*, and *cd2963*). Finally, we demonstrated that different antimicrobials and hydrogen peroxide induce these genes in a manner dependent on this sigma factor, using a plate-based luciferase reporter assay. Together, our work suggests that lethal exposure to antimicrobials may result in the formation of toxic radicals that lead to $\sigma^B$-dependent gene activation.

**IMPORTANCE** Sigma B is the alternative sigma factor governing stress response in many Gram-positive bacteria. In *C. difficile*, a sigB mutant shows pleiotropic transcriptional effects. Here, we determine genes that are likely direct targets of $\sigma^B$ by evaluating the transcriptional effects of $\sigma^B$ overproduction, provide biochemical evidence of direct transcriptional activation by $\sigma^B$, and show that $\sigma^B$-dependent genes can be activated by antimicrobials. Together, our data suggest that $\sigma^B$ is a key player in dealing with toxic radicals.

**KEYWORDS** *Clostridium difficile*, antimicrobial agents, *in vitro* transcription, luciferase, regulon, sigma factors

Disruption of the normal gastrointestinal flora as a result of antimicrobial treatment can lead to a *Clostridioides* (*Clostridium*) *difficile* infection (CDI) (1). *Clostridioides difficile* is a Gram-positive, spore-forming obligate anaerobe and the primary cause for nosocomial infectious diarrhea (2). Its highly resistant endospores are usually transmitted via the oral-fecal route and germinate into vegetative cells in the colon upon contact with primary bile acids and other inducing factors (3). In the gut, vegetative *C. difficile* cells face many environmental stressors, including variations in oxygen tension, pH, osmolarity, nutrient availability, and the inflammatory responses of the immune system (4). The bacteria are also faced with antimicrobial compounds that are produced...
by the host, the resident microbiota, or given externally during medical therapy (5). The physiological response of *C. difficile* to these insults and the inflammatory responses triggered by CDI can result in the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), reactive nitrogen species (RNS), and nitric oxide (NO) (2, 6).

Bacteria need to adapt to changing environmental conditions, including stresses, by adapting their physiology in a timely manner. This is achieved by fast transcriptional reprogramming, followed by briefly delayed changes at the translational level (7). The alternative sigma factor sigma B (σB, encoded by the *sigB* gene), which regulates the general stress responses in a variety of Gram-positive organisms, is central to the maintenance of cellular homeostasis during stress adaptation (8, 9).

Sigma factor B activity in *Firmicutes* species is regulated at the protein level by a partner-switching mechanism in which the anti-sigma factor RsbW binds and inhibits σB association with the RNA polymerase under nonstressed conditions. When a σB-activating stress is sensed, the dephosphorylated anti-anti-sigma factor RsbV sequesters RsbW, allowing for the association of free σB with the RNA polymerase core enzyme (8, 10). In *C. difficile*, the phosphatase RsbZ is responsible for RsbV dephosphorylation (11). The tight regulation of σB activity by a partner-switching mechanism is necessary, as the energy burden associated with σB activity was found to be disadvantageous in several different organisms (12, 13).

Despite the burden associated with its expression, σB is essential for survival for several pathogenic bacterial species in response to host-dependent stressors or antimicrobials. For example, in *Listeria monocytogenes*, σB is involved in counteracting the effects of the acidic pH encountered in the stomach and upon invasion of intestinal epithelial cells in the lysosome (14, 15). In *Staphylococcus aureus*, σB overproduction leads to thickening of the cell wall and increased resistance to beta-lactam antimicrobials (16). The *sigB* homologue *sigF* of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* is induced by small amounts of rifamycin (17). Analogously, *Bacillus subtilis* σB is involved in resolving a rifampin-induced growth arrest (18). There is also evidence for the involvement of σB in *C. difficile* in the response to antimicrobial substances. Mutants of *sigB* show increased susceptibility to rifampin and mitomycin C and are also more sensitive to hydrogen peroxide, nitroprusside, and di-ethylamine NONOate (19). However, the underlying molecular mechanisms remain unknown. Finally, indirect activation of σB-dependent genes as the result of a gene dosage shift has been demonstrated for *C. difficile* exposed to DNA polymerase inhibitors such as the phase II drug ibezapolstat/ACX-362E (20).

In this study, we demonstrate that σB overexpression is detectable and is tolerated for short periods of time. This allowed for the experimental identification of a set of genes that is most likely directly regulated by σB by performing transcriptome analyses under conditions of acute σB overexpression. The results obtained show that genes involved in the oxidative and nitrosative stress response form the core of the regulon. Additionally, we show that various antimicrobials and hydrogen peroxide induce the expression of σB-regulated genes in a σB-dependent manner, suggesting a link between the lethal exposure to antimicrobials and oxidative and nitrosative stresses in *C. difficile*.

**RESULTS**

*C. difficile* σB is measurably overproduced upon induction of the *sigB* gene.

Previous investigations of σB in *C. difficile* have used a *sigB* mutant and characterized its gene expression in the stationary growth phase in comparison with that of a wild-type strain (19). Although informative, this method is likely to result in indirect effects of σB due to stationary-phase heterogeneity, prolonged incubation, and possible positive or negative feedback in the σB regulatory circuit. To circumvent these issues and identify genes likely to be regulated by σB directly, we set out to uncouple *sigB* expression from its native regulatory circuit by expressing it from an inducible promoter.

First, in order to confirm overproduction of σB, we measured cellular σB levels using immunoblotting. For this purpose, we heterologously overproduced and purified σB.
containing a C-terminal His tag (Fig. 1A) and used this protein to raise a polyclonal antiserum. Corresponding polyclonal antibodies were affinity purified to prevent unspcific immune reactions.

Next, we set out to validate the overproduction of \( \sigma^B \) in transconjugant \( C.\ difficile \) cells harboring plasmids containing \( \text{sigB} \) under the control of the anhydrotetracycline (ATc)-dependent promoter \( P_{\text{tet}} \) (21). For this purpose, \( \sigma^B \) was produced in a \( \text{sigB} \) mutant background (strain IB58; \( \text{sigB}::\text{CT} P_{\text{tet}} - \text{sigB} \)). As a control, we introduced a nonrelated expression construct in the same background (IB61; \( \text{sigB}::\text{CT} P_{\text{tet}} - \text{sluc}^\text{opt} \)) such that this control strain carries a plasmid with the same replicon, resistance marker, and inducible promoter.

We expected a signal at approximately 30 kDa in Western blot experiments for cells grown in the presence of the inducer ATc for strain IB58, but not for the uninduced cultures of IB58 or the control strain IB61. Additionally, by growing cultures in the presence or absence of thiamphenicol, we investigated whether overproduction of \( \sigma^B \) required selection for the \( P_{\text{tet}} - \text{sigB} \) expression plasmid.

When strains were grown in brain heart infusion (BHI) broth supplemented with 0.5% (wt/vol) yeast-extract (BHIY) supplemented with 20 \( \mu \text{g/ml} \) lincomycin and induced for 1 h with or without 100 ng/ml ATc in the presence or absence of 20 \( \mu \text{g/ml} \) thiamphenicol, we did not detect any signal at the molecular weight expected for \( \sigma^B \) in the ATc-induced control samples (\( \text{sigB}::\text{CT} P_{\text{tet}} - \text{sluc}^\text{opt} \)) or in any of the uninduced samples (Fig. 1B). In contrast, after 1 h of induction, a clear band of the expected molecular weight of \( \sigma^B \) (~30 kDa) was observed only in the IB58 (\( \text{sigB}::\text{CT} P_{\text{tet}} - \text{sigB} \)) samples (Fig. 1B). Plasmid selection by inclusion of thiamphenicol in the growth medium did not influence \( \sigma^B \) overproduction in this time frame, which might have occurred as a tradeoff between \( \sigma^B \) overexpression and cellular toxicity (see further below).

We conclude that the affinity-purified rabbit anti-\( \sigma^B \) antibody is specific for \( \sigma^B \) and can be used for its detection in lysates of \( C.\ difficile \). Furthermore, it is possible to uncouple \( \text{sigB} \) expression from its tight regulatory network by ATc-inducible overexpression for 1 h in trans.

**Prolonged overexpression of \( \sigma^B \) is lethal and leads to a loss of plasmids harboring \( P_{\text{tet}} - \text{sigB} \).** Above, we showed that it is possible to overproduce \( \sigma^B \) in \( C.\ difficile \) and that this is tolerated by the bacterium for 1 h. This observation is somewhat
at odds with the previously reported toxic nature of overproduced $\sigma^B$ (8, 11). To reconcile these two observations, the effect of long-term overexpression of $\sigma^B$ and the stability of the plasmids used for $\sigma^B$ overproduction under such conditions were investigated. First, overnight cultures of 630Δerm (wild-type), AP34 ($P_{\text{tet}}$-sluc$^{\text{car}}$), and JC096 ($P_{\text{tet}}$-$\sigma^B$) strains were adjusted for their optical density at 600 nm (OD$_{600}$) values and 10-fold serially diluted. Subsequently, 2-$\mu$l spots per dilution were made on selective (20 g/ml thiamphenicol) and nonselective BHIY agar plates, some of which contained 200 ng/ml ATc to induce $P_{\text{tet}}$-dependent gene expression. All plates were then incubated anaerobically for 24 h. On plates without thiamphenicol, regardless of the presence of the inducer ATc, comparable growth was observed for all three strains (Fig. 2A). As expected, when selecting for the plasmid using thiamphenicol, no growth was observed for the susceptible 630Δerm strain (which lacks the catP gene contained on the expression vector). In the absence of the inducer, no difference in growth was observed for the vector control strain (AP34; $P_{\text{tet}}$-sluc$^{\text{car}}$) compared to the strain carrying the $P_{\text{tet}}$-$\sigma^B$ plasmid (JC096). However, upon induction of $\sigma^B$ expression on selective plates, a 3- to 4-log growth defect was observed for the strain carrying $P_{\text{tet}}$-$\sigma^B$ compared to the vector control strain. We conclude that prolonged induction of $\sigma^B$ expression is toxic when cells are cultured in the presence of thiamphenicol. Our results thus corroborate the finding that $\sigma^B$ overproduction is toxic to C. difficile cells in liquid culture (11).

The lethality associated with $\sigma^B$ overproduction was not seen when cells were grown without thiamphenicol in our experiment (Fig. 2A). We considered two possible explanations for this observation. As thiamphenicol is used for ensuring plasmid maintenance, its absence might result in plasmid loss due to segregation or negative
selection pressure when a toxic protein such as $\sigma^B$ is overproduced. The remaining cells that no longer express $\sigma^B$ would consequently be susceptible to thiamphenicol (due to the loss of $catP$) but might outgrow those carrying the plasmid. Alternatively, the combination of $\sigma^B$ and thiamphenicol might be toxic to the bacteria. To test whether plasmid loss was the cause of the observed lethality of bacteria overproducing $\sigma^B$ in the presence of thiamphenicol, cells from the plates without thiamphenicol (with and without ATc) were resuspended in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) at 1.0 McFarland turbidity and 10-fold serially diluted in brain heart infusion (BHI) medium. Spots (10 $\mu$l) of these dilutions were plated on plasmid-selective (thiamphenicol) and nonselective (no thiamphenicol) plates. Based on the ratio of CFU/ml of the selective and nonselective plates, the percentage of cells which lost their plasmid was calculated. If $\sigma^B$ overproduction led to the loss of the plasmid under conditions that do not select for its maintenance (no thiamphenicol), we expected significantly reduced growth on plates containing thiamphenicol. Although some plasmid loss was observed under uninduced conditions, as well as for the negative-control strain AP34 ($P_{tet}$-$\text{sluc}\text{opt}$), all cells originally containing the $P_{tet}$-$\sigma^B$ plasmid (strain JC096) completely lost this plasmid upon induction of $\sigma^B$ overproduction with ATc (Fig. 2B). Similar results were obtained for $\sigma^B$ mutant strains IB58 ($sigB$:CT $P_{tet}$-$sigB$) and IB61 ($sigB$:CT $P_{tet}$-$\text{sluc}\text{opt}$), indicating that the observed effects were solely due to in trans $\sigma^B$ overproduction and did not result from an interference of the native $sigB$ regulatory network (Fig. 2C). Together, these results are consistent with a model in which the vector with the low-copy-number pCD6 replicon is rapidly eradicated upon expression of a gene (here $sigB$) that causes lethal defects (22, 23).

$\sigma^B$ primarily activates genes relating to oxidative/nitrosative stress responses.

Above, we have shown that long-term overproduction $\sigma^B$ is detrimental and that this leads to loss of the expression plasmid in the absence of thiamphenicol (Fig. 2), but that $\sigma^B$ overproduction nevertheless could clearly be demonstrated when induction is limited to 1 h (Fig. 1C). Therefore, we used the time-limited induction to refine the previously proposed regulon (19) in both the presence and absence of thiamphenicol to strike a balance between potential secondary effects due to toxicity associated with $\sigma^B$ overproduction (with thiamphenicol), and loss of the expression plasmid from a subpopulation of cells (without thiamphenicol) (Table 1). We compared transcriptome data from strain IB58 ($sigB$:CT $P_{tet}$-$sigB$) to that of strain IB61 ($sigB$:CT $P_{tet}$-$\text{sluc}\text{opt}$). IB61 harbors a vector for the inducible expression of a luciferase gene that does not lead to any toxicity or growth phenotype (24).

We expected no genes or a limited number of genes to be differentially expressed ($\log_2$ fold change $|\log2FC| \leq -1.5$ or $\geq 1.5$ and adjusted $P$ value of $<0.05$) under noninducing conditions. Indeed, we found only five differentially expressed genes in the $P_{tet}$-$\sigma^B$ strain (IB58) compared to the $P_{tet}$-$\text{sluc}\text{opt}$ control (IB61) strain (hybridizations 1 and 3) (see Data Set S1 in the supplemental material). These genes were similarly positively (CD0583 and CD0584, both GGDEF domain-containing proteins [25], and CD2214 and CD2215, both potential transcriptional regulators [26]) and negatively

### Table 1

| Hybridization setup | Control | Target | Conditions | No. of genes$^a$ |
|---------------------|---------|--------|------------|-----------------|
| 1                   | sigB:$\text{CT } P_{tet}$-$\text{sluc}\text{opt}$ (IB61) | sigB:$\text{CT } P_{tet}$-$\sigma^B$ (IB58) | Lincomycin (20 $\mu$g/ml), thiamphenicol (20 $\mu$g/ml), no ATc | DE 5, POS 4, NEG 1 |
| 2                   | sigB:$\text{CT } P_{tet}$-$\text{sluc}\text{opt}$ (IB61) | sigB:$\text{CT } P_{tet}$-$\sigma^B$ (IB58) | Lincomycin (20 $\mu$g/ml), thiamphenicol (20 $\mu$g/ml), ATc (100 ng/ml) | DE 183 (178), POS 167 (163), NEG 16 (15) |
| 3                   | sigB:$\text{CT } P_{tet}$-$\text{sluc}\text{opt}$ (IB61) | sigB:$\text{CT } P_{tet}$-$\sigma^B$ (IB58) | Lincomycin (20 $\mu$g/ml), no thiamphenicol, no ATc | DE 5, POS 4, NEG 1 |
| 4                   | sigB:$\text{CT } P_{tet}$-$\text{sluc}\text{opt}$ (IB61) | sigB:$\text{CT } P_{tet}$-$\sigma^B$ (IB58) | Lincomycin (20 $\mu$g/ml), no thiamphenicol, ATc (100 ng/ml) | DE 150 (145), POS 136 (132), NEG 14 (13) |

$^a$Numbers in brackets correspond to the number of differentially expressed genes after subtracting the differentially expressed genes identified in hybridizations 1 and 3 (that are not dependent on $sigB$ induction). DE, differentially expressed; POS, positively regulated; NEG, negatively regulated.
CD1616, an EAL domain protein [25]) regulated in all hybridizations, including those where sigB expression was not induced. These results suggest that the basis for the observed differential expression of these genes was vector specific but not dependent on σ^B induction. These genes were therefore not investigated further and are excluded from the numbers discussed below.

Upon induction of sigB expression, 145 genes were differentially expressed when strains were cultured without thiamphenicol (hybridization 4), and 178 genes were differentially expressed when thiamphenicol was present during cultivation (hybridization 2) (Fig. 3 and Table 1 and Data Set S1). The majority showed an increase in expression upon induction of sigB expression (132 in the samples without thiamphenicol and 163 in the samples with thiamphenicol), consistent with its function as a sigma factor [27], while a minority revealed a decreased expression (13 in the samples without thiamphenicol and 15 in the samples with thiamphenicol). Of note, we observed only a minor difference in the number of differentially expressed genes between the cells grown in the absence and presence of thiamphenicol (33 genes).

Together, these results demonstrate a high level of consistency in the σ^B regulon despite potential plasmid loss (when grown in the absence of thiamphenicol) or toxic effects (when grown in the presence thiamphenicol). Our results also show that σ^B primarily activates gene expression.

We focused our further analyses on the data obtained from hybridization 2 (with ATc and thiamphenicol), as this condition provided the broadest data set (178 differentially expressed genes) for the redefinition of the σ^B regulon under our experimental conditions (Data Set S1).

Of the 163 genes upregulated by σ^B, the vast majority appeared to be associated with an response to oxidative stress, since they encode various oxidoreductases, peroxidases, and thioredoxin reductases (Table 2). Notably, approximately 51% of the

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**FIG 3** Volcano plot of the transcriptome analysis of the σ^B regulon. Graphical representation of differential gene regulation upon overproduction of σ^B. Dashed lines indicated the following significance threshold: |log2FC| of >1.5 and adjusted P value of <0.05. Genes significantly upregulated by σ^B are indicated in red, and downregulated genes are indicated in blue. The top 10 upregulated genes and 5 selected downregulated genes are annotated in the figure. An interactive version of the graph is available for exploration via the URL provided in Text S1 in the supplemental material.
### TABLE 2

Selected genes differentially expressed upon overexpression of α<sup>8</sup>

| Genes upregulated by aerobic stress and positively regulated by α<sup>8</sup> | Gene name | log 2FC | Adjusted P value | Predicted function |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| mtnC | 1.9 | 3.29E-05 | Ribonuclease III domain |
| mrnC | 8.2 | 1.11E-06 | Oxidoreductase, Fe-S subunit |
| mrnC | 8.0 | 1.52E-06 | Oxidoreductase, NAD/flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD) binding subunit |
| mrnC | 2.6 | 2.35E-04 | Cardiolipin synthetase 1 |
| mrnC | 4.0 | 3.5E-05 | Endonuclease IV |
| mrnC | 4.0 | 5.66E-06 | Endonuclease III |
| mrnC | 6.2 | 1.38E-06 | Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (NADP<sup>+</sup>/H<sub>11001</sub>) (GAPDH) |
| mrnC | 5.5 | 1.15E-05 | Nitroreductase family protein |
| mrnC | 4.0 | 5.16E-06 | Anaerobic nitric oxide reductase flavorubredoxin (FlRd) (FlavoRb) |
| mrnC | 1.8 | 6.76E-05 | Exodeoxyribonuclease |
| mrnC | 4.8 | 1.88E-05 | Putative rubrerythrin |
| mrnC | 4.0 | 3.5E-05 | Endonuclease IV |
| mrnC | 2.0 | 2.39E-05 | Putative aldol-/ketoreductase; putative ferredoxin |
| mrnC | 3.7 | 5.66E-06 | Putative tRNA/rRNA methyltransferase |
| mrnC | 6.2 | 1.38E-06 | Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (NADP<sup>+</sup>/H<sub>11001</sub>) (GAPDH) |
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<sup>a</sup> Genes positively regulated by α<sup>8</sup> and aerobic stress and other genes involved in oxidative/nitrosative stress (7, 19) are highlighted here.

<sup>b</sup> CD numbers corresponding to the published annotation of strain CD630 (52) can be derived by removing “630DERM” and removing the last digit (in case of a 0) or replacing it with an A (in the case of a 1).
98 genes previously found to be upregulated under aerobic stress (7) were also positively regulated by $\sigma^B$ (Table 2). Five additional genes associated with aerobic/nitrosative stress (cooS [cd0174], iscS [cd1279], the cd1280 gene, cysK [cd1594], the cd1823 gene, and msrAB [cd2166]) were also found to be induced by $\sigma^B$, in agreement with previous findings (19).

Our findings are recapitulated in a volcano plot (28), which clearly shows that genes with lower expression upon sigB induction (in blue) cluster close to the significance threshold, whereas those with increased expression (in red) show a larger fold change (Fig. 3). We calculated the Manhattan distance for each data point (see Data Set S2 in the supplemental material), and discuss the proteins encoded by the top 10 differentially expressed genes below.

CD0051A is a small hypothetical protein of unknown function. It does not contain any recognizable domains, and a secondary structure prediction using Phyre2 does not give any clues as to its potential function (29). CD0580 (GapN) is annotated as a glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH), a key glycolytic enzyme, and contains an aldehyde dehydrogenase domain. Interestingly, its activity has been shown to be redox controlled in other bacteria and has been implicated in the response to reactive oxygen and nitrogen species (30–32). CD1623 is a putative oxidoreductase with similarity to FAD flavoproteins and rubredoxins. CD1690 (TrxA) and CD1691 (TrxB) are likely encoded in the same operon (33) and form a thioredoxin/thioredoxin-disulfide reductase couple. CD0174 (CooS; InterPro family IPR010047), CD0175, and CD0176 are likely also encoded in a single operon (33) and function as carbon monoxide dehydrogenase and two putative oxidoreductases. As mentioned above, CD0174 has been implicated in aerobic/nitrosative stress, and it is likely that CD1623, CD1690, and CD1691 also function in this pathway. Finally, CD2115A encodes another small hypothetical protein; as for CD0051A, no function could be assigned on the basis of secondary structure prediction.

As the $\sigma^B$ regulon that we define here is substantially smaller than that previously reported, the major conclusion is that at least 32% of the $\sigma^B$ regulon is involved in positively regulating oxidative/nitrosative stress responses. In the previous investigation of the $\sigma^B$ regulon they were approximately 3.2% (≈32/1,000) (19). Overall, we conclude that the core functions of the $\sigma^B$ regulon lie in the regulation of the detoxification response to oxygen and nitro radicals.

**In vitro runoff transcriptions demonstrate direction activation of $P_{cd0350}$, $P_{cd2963}$, $P_{cd3412}$, and $P_{cd3605}$ by $\sigma^B$.** Gene expression can directly or indirectly be influenced by $\sigma^B$, and to date no attempts have been made to discriminate these possibilities biochemically (11, 19). Despite the short time of induction and the uncoupling of $\sigma^B$ from its normal regulatory network, our analyses could possibly also have picked up indirect effects. To determine if the transcription of selected genes is directly activated by $\sigma^B$, in vitro transcription runoff reactions were performed using purified $\sigma^B_{E. coli}$ and RNA polymerase core enzyme (RNAP$^{\text{core}}$) on the upstream regions of a selection of genes. The genes cd0350 (encoding a putative hydrolase involved in oxidative stress; Table 2), cd2963 (encoding an lO-transpeptidase), cd3412 (encoding UvrB, involved in nucleotide excision repair), cd3605 (encoding a ferredoxin), and cd3614 (encoding a hypothetical protein involved in oxidative stress; Table 2) were selected on the basis of differential expression in our transcriptome analyses (Data Set S1) and those of others (19), availability of reporter constructs that could be used to generate a template for the in vitro transcription reactions (20), and/or the presence of a putative $\sigma^B$ consensus upstream in the upstream region (11). The gene cd0872 (encoding maltose O-acetyltransferase) was not differentially expressed in our transcriptome data and was thus included as a negative control. The promoter of the toxin A gene (tcdA) in combination with purified TcdR was used as a positive control for the assay, as previously described (34).

As expected, no in vitro transcript was observed for a linear DNA fragment containing P$_{cd0872}$ incubated with purified $\sigma^B_{E. coli}$ and RNAP$^{\text{core}}$ under our experimental conditions, whereas a specific product was obtained for the positive control P$_{tcdA}$ in the
presence of TcdR and RNAPcore (Fig. 4). An RNAPcore- and /H9268B6/H11003His-specific signal was observed for fragments containing the putative promoter regions of the genes cd0350, cd2963, cd3412, and cd3605, demonstrating that expression of these genes was directed by /H9268B. For the fragments containing the putative promoter of cd3614, we did not get a consistent product in the in vitro transcription experiments, although some smearing is visible in the lane with RNAPcore and /H9268B6/H11003His. As cd3614 demonstrates clear differential expression in the DNA array experiments and it upstream region harbors the /H9268B consensus sequence WGWTT-N13-17-(G/T)GGTWA (19), we consider it likely that this gene is directly regulated by /H9268B and that our failure to obtain a discrete signal is due to our experimental conditions or to the lack of an auxiliary factor in our in vitro assays.

Overall, we provide the first biochemical evidence for direct /H9268B-dependent activation of several genes identified via transcriptome analyses as part of the /H9268B regulon in C. difficile.

Antimicrobials and hydrogen peroxide activate /H9268B-directed gene transcription.

The redefined /H9268B regulon points toward a substantial role for /H9268B in coordinating the oxidative and nitrosative stress response, which could result from antimicrobial treatment. In order to test for the activation of /H9268B-dependent promoters by antimicrobials, we set up a plate-based luciferase reporter assay. In this assay, cells harboring /H9268B-dependent luciferase reporter constructs were plated on BHIY agar to give confluent growth and exposed to antimicrobials either through an epsilometer test (Etest) or through a filter disc. Subsequently, luciferase activity was imaged (for details, see Materials and Methods). A strain harboring Ptet-slucopt (AP34) served as negative control, as this promoter is not expected to respond in a /H9268B-dependent manner (Fig. 5A).

First, the /H9268B-dependent response to metronidazole was investigated. Metronidazole, formerly used as a first-line treatment for CDI, is believed to cause DNA damage through the formation of nitro radicals, although its exact mode of action remains
To survey a full spectrum of metronidazole concentrations, we evaluated luminescence after 24-h incubation of a metronidazole Etest. If metronidazole treatment results in SigB-dependent activation of gene transcription, we expect to see a luciferase signal in the wild type but not in a SigB knockout background. In agreement with this, activation of P_{cd0350} was observed at the edge of the halo resulting from the metronidazole Etest in the wild-type background but not in the SigB knockout strain (Fig. 5B). No signal was observed for the negative control P_{tet-slu-opt} (Fig. 5A). The observed SigB-dependent activation of gene expression at the edge of the halo but not further into the plate suggests that the metronidazole-induced, SigB-dependent activation of P_{cd0350} occurred close to the MIC. Expression of the luciferase from P_{cd2963} was found to be strictly dependent on SigB, as no luciferase activity was observed in the sigB knockout strain. However, there was limited to no increase in reporter gene expression in the presence of metronidazole. Metronidazole strongly activated transcription from P_{cd3412} at MIC levels of metronidazole, but this appeared to be independent of SigB in this assay since in the sigB mutant a similar induction was observed. Finally, in a manner comparable to that of P_{cd0350}, the activation of P_{CD3614} was strongly induced by...
metronidazole at values close to the MIC in a $\sigma^B$-dependent manner, but residual activity was observed in the $\sigma^B$ knockout strain independent of metronidazole levels. We noted that metronidazole-induced promoter activation appeared to occur on the inside of the Etest halo, which might be attributed to the secretion of the luciferase reporter.

The observed diverse regulatory responses at different tested promoters during the treatment of C. difficile with metronidazole (with respect to basal level, $\sigma B$ dependence, and induction) pointed toward a more complex regulatory network with the participation of $\sigma^B$ but also influenced by other factors. Antimicrobial-driven (and $\sigma^B$-dependent) activation of $\sigma^B$ target genes could be specific to metronidazole or represent a more general response to cellular (toxic) stresses. Therefore, we evaluated the effects of different antimicrobial compounds and the radical producer $H_2O_2$ as a positive control (19), using the $P_{cd0350}$ reporter construct, as this promoter demonstrated the clearest $\sigma^B$-dependent activation in the presence of metronidazole (Fig. 5B).

We tested the cell wall biosynthesis inhibitor vancomycin, the protein synthesis inhibitor lincomycin, and the DNA polymerase inhibitor ibezapolstat (formerly known as ACK-362E) (20). We observed clear activation of $P_{cd0350}$ in the presence of all added stressors but not for a negative control containing water (Fig. 5C).

We conclude that, at least for the $\sigma^B$-dependent promoter of cd0350, activation does not only occur upon exposure to lethal levels of metronidazole but also occurs with unrelated antimicrobials and toxic stressors such as hydrogen peroxide.

**DISCUSSION**

In this work, we have demonstrated by Western blotting using an affinity-purified anti-$\sigma^B$ antibody that $\sigma^B$ can be overproduced for a limited period of time, sufficient for transcriptome analyses. The induced production of $\sigma^B$ in a $\sigma B$ mutant background yielded highly consistent results despite potential toxicity and plasmid loss (Fig. 2), and the results were used to redefine the surprisingly large $\sigma^B$ regulon previously proposed (19). As our approach more accurately measures changes in transcription directly related to $\sigma^B$ production, the refined regulon described here is much smaller (see Data Set S1 in the supplemental material). Its size is fully in line with that of the $\sigma^B$ regulon of other Gram-positive bacteria such as L. monocytogenes ($\approx$130 genes), B. subtilis ($\approx$150 genes), and S. aureus ($\approx$200 genes) (8). The redefined regulon underscores the importance of $\sigma^B$ in responding to oxidative/nitrosative stresses, as genes implicated in such processes are significantly enriched in the smaller regulon.

The majority of the genes in our regulon were found to be induced, rather than repressed, by $\sigma^B$. This is in line with sigma factors acting as specificity determinants for transcription initiation (27). Similar observations have been made for the $\sigma^B$ regulon of L. monocytogenes (36, 37). For the first time, direct evidence of C. difficile $\sigma^B$-dependent gene activation is provided by the results of the in vitro runoff transcriptions (Fig. 4), which demonstrate that RNAP$\text{core}^B$ and $\sigma^B$ are sufficient to generate transcripts from $P_{cd0350}$, $P_{cd2963}$, $P_{cd3412}$, and $P_{cd3360}$. Notably, these experiments pave the way for a further in vitro characterization of this sigma factor in C. difficile, including validation of the $\sigma^B$ binding sequence and the interplay with other regulators.

Although the promoters of cd3412 (uvrB) and cd3614 were reported to have a $\sigma^B$ consensus sequence and are differentially expressed upon $\sigma^B$ overexpression (19, 20), our results clearly demonstrate that they can also be expressed in a $\sigma^B$-independent manner (Fig. 5B). This is most notable for $P_{cd3412}$, which is still activated by metronidazole in the absence of $\sigma^B$, in line with results obtained with ibezapolstat in a different study (20). Both metronidazole and ibezapolstat treatment can cause DNA damage, and DNA-damage dependent induction of cd3412 therefore likely depends on a $\sigma B$-independent pathway.

The observed $\sigma^B$-dependent gene repression is expected to be indirect ($\sigma^B$ induces the transcription of a repressor gene), or the result of competition ($\sigma^B$ competes with other sigma factors for RNAP), as sigma factors by their very nature induce gene expression (27). We consider the second scenario more likely for the following reasons.
First, little overproduction of $\sigma^B$ was detected after 30 min of induction. This leaves only a limited time for indirect effects to occur in our setup. Second, the majority of genes downregulated upon overexpression of $\sigma^B$ fall into a single functional group (flagellar motility). These genes are known to be regulated by the dedicated sigma factor, $\sigma^D$ (38), supporting the model of sigma factor competition. Strikingly, in L. monocytogenes, $\sigma^B$ activity (indirectly) also results in downregulation of flagellar gene expression, but this is mediated by the repressor MogR (39). Protein BLAST analyses revealed that C. difficile does not possess a MogR homologue. Nevertheless, the conserved inverse correlation between the $\sigma^B$-dependent general stress response and bacterial motility could represent a cost-saving strategy for bacterial cells (40). The indirect mechanism underlying the observed $\sigma^B$-dependent downregulation in C. difficile remains to be determined.

There appears to be an intriguing link between $\sigma^B$ and the response to toxic compounds, as a $\sigma^B$ mutant was more susceptible to rifampin and mitomycin C (19), and exposure to antimicrobials (metronidazole, vancomycin, lincomycin, and iberapolum- stat) or hydrogen peroxide leads to $\sigma^B$-dependent promoter activation (Fig. 5C). The mechanism behind the latter is unclear. It has been suggested that antimicrobials at toxic concentrations can influence metabolism and respiration (41, 42), potentially resulting in the formation of bactericidal concentrations of radical species (43–45). A strong connection between $\sigma^B$ and oxidative (and/or nitrosative) stress in C. difficile (Table 2) and other bacteria (7, 18, 19), as well as a recently described radical scavenging strategy that increases tolerance to antimicrobials (46), are consistent with such a model. However, additional research is necessary to determine exactly how these processes occur and are influenced by antimicrobials in anaerobic organisms under anoxic conditions.

In conclusion, we have demonstrated that $\sigma^B$ is directly involved in metabolic and oxidative stress responses and that lethal stresses may influence these processes, resulting in activation of $\sigma^B$-targeted genes.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Construction of $\sigma^B$ expression and luciferase reporter vectors. All oligonucleotides used in this study can be found in Table 3. Plasmids and strains are listed in Table 4. All PCR products used for sequencing or plasmid synthesis were generated with Q5 high-fidelity polymerase (NEB). The P$_{sigB}$-based expression vector pBl14 was created by restriction-ligation using the restriction enzymes NdeI and Xhol. Using primers oBl-1 and oBl-2 on C. difficile 630Δerm chromosomal DNA, the $\sigma^B$ coding sequence (CDS) was amplified by PCR. The resulting DNA fragment was digested and ligated into NdeI-Xhol-digested pET21b(−) vector, generating expression vector pBl14. Plasmids pBl27, pBl68, pBl69, and pBl71 have been described previously (20). The cd0872 promoter area was amplified using primers oBl-14 and oBl-15, and the P$_{cd0872}$ luciferase-reporter plasmid was created by restriction-ligation using restriction enzymes KpnI and SacI in digested pAP24 backbone, generating plasmid pBl21. The P$_{cd0872}$ luciferase reporter plasmid was generated by Gibson assembly as described previously (20) using primers oBl-90 and oBl-99, yielding plasmid pBl73. A plasmid containing P$_{cdi}$-$\sigma^B$ was generated by cloning the 630Δerm CDS amplified with oWKS-1498 and oWKS-1499 in pMiniT (catalog no. E1202; NEB) per the manufacturer’s instructions. Using restriction enzymes SacI and BamHI, this PCR fragment was cloned into pRPF185, yielding pWKS1760. All plasmids were verified by Sanger sequencing.

Bacterial strains and growth conditions. Strains of Escherichia coli were grown aerobically at 37°C in Luria-Bertani broth (Affymetrix) supplemented with ampicillin (50 µg/ml), kanamycin (50 µg/ml), and/or chloramphenicol (20 µg/ml) when required. Plasmids were maintained in E. coli strains DH5α or MD542 (Scarab Genomics) under appropriate antimicrobial selection, and cells were transformed using standard procedures (47). For plasmid conjugation into recipient wild-type C. difficile 630Δerm and the isogenic sigB mutant strains, E. coli strain CA434 was used as a donor strain as previously described (48). C. difficile strains were cultured anaerobically at 37°C in either a Don Whitley VA-1000 or A55 workstation. Cells were cultured in brain heart infusion (BHI; Oxoid) broth supplemented with 0.5% (wt/vol) yeast-extract (BHIY) and 20 µg/ml thiamphenicol when appropriate. Unless additional antimicrobials/stressors were added (metronidazole Etest and sterile pads supplemented with different stressors), medium was supplemented with C. difficile selective supplement (CDSS; Oxoid).

The sigB Clostron mutant described in this study was generated as described previously (49), using pMTL007C-E2-sigB171sintron ermB, synthesized by DNA2.0 (now ATUM). Design of the retargeted intron was performed with the Pertukal algorithm, via the Clostron website (http://clostron.com/). The mutant was verified using primers cd-sigB-F, cd-sigB-R, EBSuniversal, ErMRA-F, and ErMRA-R.

Overproduction, purification and affinity purification of $\sigma^{\Delta_{sintron}}$ for synthesis of a polyclonal anti-$\sigma^B$ antibody. (i) Overproduction and purification of $\sigma^{\Delta_{sintron}}$. Overexpression of $\sigma^{\Delta_{sintron}}$ was performed by using Escherichia coli Rosetta (DE3) pE3S cells (Novagen) harboring the E. coli expression
| Name       | Sequence (5’-3’)* | Description                      | Source or reference |
|------------|-------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------|
| Cdi-sigB-F | GTAGCTAATGCTACACATTAC | Verification of sigB ClosTron mutant | This study          |
| Cdi-sigB-R | CAGTCATCTGGATATATCCCTAG   | Verification of sigB ClosTron mutant | This study          |
| EBuniversal | CGAAAATTTGACCTTGCTTG TGTAACAA   | Verification of sigB ClosTron mutant | 49                  |
| ErmRAM-F   | ACCGGTTATATGAAAAAAATATATGTGGG  | Verification of sigB ClosTron mutant | 49                  |
| ErmRAM-R   | ACCGGTGCGACTGATAGATATATTTCCTCCGG | Verification of sigB ClosTron mutant | 49                  |
| oIB-1      | TAGCCATATGAAAAATTAGCTAATGCTACAC | Forward primer for sigB cloning in pET21b, contains a NdeI restriction site | This study          |
| oIB-2      | ACTGCTCGAGTAAATTTTTTCATTTCTTTTTACAG | Reverse primer for sigB cloning in pET21b, contains an XhoI restriction site | This study          |
| oIB-14     | GTACGGTACCTTTACATATATATATGTTAAGAAAC | Forward primer for P_{cd0872} containing a KpnI restriction site | This study          |
| oIB-15     | GTGGAGGCTCEATAGTTTACTACTCTCTTTGTATAATTG | Reverse primer for P_{cd0872} containing a SacI restriction site | This study          |
| oIB-26     | GGAAGGGCTGATGAAATAAATATTATATTTCCATG | Forward primer for P_{cd3412} containing a KpnI restriction site | 20                  |
| oIB-27     | GTAGAGGCTCAGATACCTCTTTTTTTGAGAC | Reverse primer for P_{cd3412} containing a SacI restriction site | 20                  |
| oIB-80     | ctagcataaaataagaacgccctgtgcATTATCTACGAAAATCTTGCTGC | Forward primer for P_{cd0350} | 20                  |
| oIB-82     | ctagcataaaataagaacgccctgtgcTTGTGTTTAAGGAGTTTTGAAGAG | Forward primer for P_{cd0360} | 20                  |
| oIB-90     | ctagcataaaataagaacgccctgtgcATGTAAAAGCGCAGAAAG | Forward primer for P_{cd2963} | 20                  |
| oIB-92     | ctagcataaaataagaacgccctgtgcGAAATTAAAGGCTGGTGTCC | Forward primer for P_{cd3604} | 20                  |
| oIB-94     | agtttaaatatttttactggtgctaatTTTTACTCTCATGTACAAATTATTG | Reverse primer for P_{cd0350} | 20                  |
| oIB-95     | agtttaaatatttttactggtgctaatTTTTACTCTCATGTGAATTAC | Reverse primer for P_{cd02963} | 20                  |
| oIB-99     | agtttaaatatttttactggtgctaatTTTTACTCTCATGTACATTTG | Reverse primer for P_{cd3605} | 20                  |
| oIB-100    | agtttaaatatttttactggtgctaatTTTTACTCTCATGTACATTTG | Reverse primer for P_{cd3604} | 20                  |
| oWKS-1498  | GAGCTCCCTGCGTAAAAGGAGAAATAATTTATGAAAAATATGTAGCTAATGCTACAC | Forward primer for sigB CDS | This study          |
| oWKS-1499  | GAGCTCCCTGCGTAAAAGGAGAAATAATTTATGAAAAATATGTAGCTAATGCTACAC | Reverse primer for sigB CDS | This study          |
| oWKS-1513  | GAGCTCAATTGGAAATTATTAGGGGAAATTACCATCGATCATCATCACCATACAC | Oligonucleotide used for end labelling | This study          |
| oWKS-1506  | GAGCTCAATTGGAAATTATTAGGGGAAATTACCATCGATCATCATCACCATACAC | Oligonucleotide used for end labelling | This study          |

*Restriction sites are underlined, and 30-bp overlapping regions used in Gibson Assembly are indicated in lowercase letters.
plasmid pIB14. These cells were cultured in Luria-Bertani (LB) broth and induced with 0.5 mM isopropyl-β-D-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) for 1 h starting at an optical density of ∼0.6. Cells were collected by centrifugation at 4°C, and the resulting cell pellets were resuspended in lysis buffer (pH 8.0; 50 mM NaH2PO4, 300 mM NaCl, 5 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 0.1% NP-40, and complete protease inhibitor cocktail [CPIC, Roche Applied Sciences]). Through the addition of 1 mg/ml lysozyme and sonication (6 × 20 s), the cells were lysed. The lysate was drawn through a blunt 1.2-mm needle and was clarified by centrifugation at 4°C, and the resulting cell pellets were resuspended in lysis buffer (pH 8.0; 50 mM NaH2PO4, 300 mM NaCl, 5 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 0.1% NP-40, and complete protease inhibitor cocktail [CPIC, Roche Applied Sciences]). Through the addition of 1 mg/ml lysozyme and sonication (6 × 20 s), the cells were lysed. The lysate was drawn through a blunt 1.2-mm needle and was clarified by centrifugation at 13,000 × g at 4°C for 25 min. Recombinant α6.α19α protein was purified from the supernatant on Talon Superflow resin (GE Healthcare) per the manufacturer’s instructions. Proteins were dialyzed and stored in buffer (pH 8.0) containing 50 mM NaH2PO4, 300 mM NaCl, and 12% glycerol. Protein concentrations were determined using a Bradford assay (Bio-Rad). Two ml of α6.α19α protein solution containing 2 mg/ml protein was sent to BioGenes GmbH (Berlin) for generation of a polyclonal rabbit anti-α6.α19α antibody.

(ii) Affinity purification of the polyclonal anti-α6.α19α antibody. Affinity purification of the antibody was performed to increase specificity of α6.α19α detection. Approximately 350 μg of purified α6.α19α protein was loaded onto an SDS-PAGE gel. After electrophoresis and transfer of proteins to a polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membrane using standard blotting procedures, purified α6.α19α protein was visualized by Ponceau S staining, and the membrane containing the protein was cut as small as possible while retaining the region with the protein. The membrane was destained and washed with Tris-buffered saline with Tween 20 (TBST) buffer (500 mM NaCl, 20 mM Tris base, and 0.05% vol/vol Tween 20 [pH = 7.4]) twice for 5 min at room temperature. The membrane was then preblotted by soaking in acidic glycine solution (100 mM, pH = 2.5) for 5 min prior to washing with TBST twice for 5 min at room temperature. Subsequently, the membrane was blocked in 5% nonfat milk powder solution (Campina Elk, dissolved in TBST buffer) for 1 h at room temperature after again washing twice with TBST for 5 min. Serum containing anti-α6.α19α antibody was incubated on the membrane overnight at 4°C. After three 5-min washes with TBST, the membrane was washed twice for 5 min in PBS. Affinity-purified antibody was eluted from the membrane by adding acidic glycine solution and incubating for 10 min at room temperature. The pH of the eluate was adjusted to 7.0 through the addition of 1 M Tris-HCl (pH = 8.0). This step was repeated twice more, and the eluates were pooled and centrifuged (1 min at maximum speed) to remove precipitated protein and membrane particles. Bovine serum albumin (BSA) and sodium azide were added to the affinity-purified anti-α6.α19α antibody to end concentrations of 1 mg/ml and 5 mM, respectively, and the affinity-purified antibody was stored at −80°C.

Characterization of the α6.α19α regulon. (i) α6.α19α overproduction in C. difficile. Exponentially growing starter cultures of C. difficile strain IB58 and IB61 were diluted to an OD600 of 0.05 in BHY medium
supplemented with 20 μg/ml lincomycin and thiamphenicol (20 μg/ml) where appropriate. Cells were grown until an OD_{600} of ~0.3, after which a 1-ml sample was taken for control by Western blotting, and gene expression was induced with 100 ng/ml ATc for 1 h. Subsequently, 1 ml of sample was taken for control by Western blotting, and 50 ml was collected by centrifugation and stored at −20°C until RNA extraction. Noninduced samples were treated and collected identically, except that no ATc was added at an OD_{600} = 0.3. All samples were corrected for OD_{600} prior to analysis by Western blot.

(ii) RNA extraction. Bacterial RNA was extracted and analyzed as previously described (50). Briefly, cell pellets were lysed for 30 min at room temperature in enzymatic lysis buffer consisting of 15 mg/ml lysozyme and Tris-EDTA (TE) buffer. Further disruption of cells was performed by vigorous mechanical lysis for 3 min in RLT buffer to which one spatula of glass beads was added. After samples were centrifuged (3 min at 10,000 rpm at 4°C) and 100% ethanol was added to the supernatant, RNA was purified using the Qiagen RNeasy kit protocol according to manufacturer’s instructions. DNA contamination was removed by using RNase-free DNase I (Qiagen) twice prior to elution of the RNA samples in H_{2}O. RNA quality and integrity numbers (RINs) were assessed with a Bioanalyzer 2100 (Agilent) and RNA 6000 Nano reagents (Agilent). Only samples with an RIN of ≥7 were used for further analysis.

(iii) DNA microarray and data analysis. A customized whole-genome DNA microarray of the 630Δerm strain was used (8 × 15K format; Agilent) (50). Quadruplicate samples were analyzed for the DNA microarray. Using the ULS fluorescent labeling kit for Agilent arrays (Kreatech), 1 μg of total RNA was used for labeling with either Cy3 (P_{sigB},sigB) or Cy5 (P_{sluc},sluc). After pooling and fragmentation, 300 ng of labeled RNA per sample was hybridized according to the two-color microarray protocol from Agilent. DNA microarrays were scanned with an Agilent C scanner and analyzed as described previously (50). A gene was considered differentially expressed if the log_{2} fold change (log_{2} FC) was ≤ −1.5 or ≥1.5 and the P value was <0.05. Results were visualized in VolcanoPlotR (28) and are available as an interactive graph via the URL contained in Text S1 in the supplemental material.

In vitro transcription. DNA oligonucleotides oWKS-1506 and oWKS-15136 (64 and 82bp, respectively) were end labeled with γ-32P-ATP using T4 polynucleotide kinase (PNK; Invitrogen) and used as a size indicator for the in vitro transcription reactions. For the end labeling reaction, 1 μl γ-32P-ATP was incubated together with 200 pmol oligonucleotide and 1 μl (10 U) PNK in Forward reaction buffer (70 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.6], 10 mM MgCl₂, 100 mM KCl, and 1 mM 2-mercaptoethanol) at 37°C for 30 min. For the in vitro run off transcriptions, sigma factors and RNA polymerase core enzyme were preincubated with PCR-amplified promoter areas (for P_{CD3605}, P_{CD2648}, P_{CD2649}, P_{CD2650} and P_{CD2651}) or XbaI-linearized pCD22 (P_{sigB}) for 30 min at 37°C prior to the start of the reaction. PCR products of the promoter areas as used for the in vitro transcription reactions were loaded on and excised from agarose gels and purified using a NucleoSpin gel and PCR clean-up kit (Macherey-Nagel). In vitro transcription reactions mixtures contained 1 μl (1 U) E. coli RNApolyase (catalog no. M05505; NEB), 16 pmol sigma factor, 0.5 pmol DNA, 10 mM nucleoside triphosphate (NTP) mix, and 0.3 μl α-32P-ATP in reaction buffer (40 mM Tris-HCl, 150 mM KCl, 10 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM dithiothreitol [DTT], and 0.01% Triton X-100 [pH = 7.5]) and were incubated for 15 min at 37°C. Transcripts and labeled oligonucleotides to be used as a size indication were purified using P-30 Bio-Gel spin columns (Bio-Rad) containing 1% ampicillin. Further disruption of cells was performed by vigorous mechanical lysis for 3 min in RLT buffer to which one spatula of glass beads was added. After samples were centrifuged (3 min at 10,000 rpm at 4°C) and 100% ethanol was added to the supernatant, RNA was purified using the Qiagen RNeasy kit protocol according to manufacturer’s instructions. DNA contamination was removed by using RNase-free DNase I (Qiagen) twice prior to elution of the RNA samples in H_{2}O. RNA quality and integrity numbers (RINs) were assessed with a Bioanalyzer 2100 (Agilent) and RNA 6000 Nano reagents (Agilent). Only samples with an RIN of ≥7 were used for further analysis.

Spot assay for viability upon σ^0 overproduction in C. difficile and vector stability assay. C. difficile overnight precultures were corrected for OD_{600} and were subsequently 10-fold serially diluted in BHI medium. Spots (2 μl) of each dilution were plated on selective (20 μg/ml thiamphenicol) and unselective square (90 × 90 × 15 mm; VWR international) BHI plates with or without 200 ng/ml anhydrotracycline (ATc). Growth was evaluated after 24 h, and swabs were subsequently taken from all strains grown on unselective BHI agar plates with and without 200 ng/ml ATc for the vector stability assay. These swabs used for the vector stability assay were resuspended in PBS to a McFarland turbidity of 1.0, adjusted for their OD_{600} values, and 10-fold serially diluted in nonselective BHI medium. Of these serially diluted suspensions, 10-μl spots of each dilution were then plated on selective (20 μg/ml thiamphenicol plus CDS) and nonselective (BHI plus CDS) plates, and CFU/ml was counted after 24 to 48 h of growth. The percentage of cells retaining the plasmid was calculated as [CFU/ml]selective/[CFU/ml]nonselective × 100%. If no growth was detected on selective plates containing thiamphenicol, the percentage of plasmid maintained was set as 0%. To calculate statistical significance between percent plasmid maintained in strains induced or not induced by ATc, an unpaired Student’s t test was used.

Plate-based luciferase assay with metronidazole Etest and disk diffusion. Strains harboring luciferase reporter plasmids were grown on prereduced, selective BHI plates for 24 h. Subsequently, bacterial suspensions corresponding to 1.0 McFarland turbidity were applied on BHI agar supplemented with 0.5% yeast extract, after which a metronidazole Etest or plain disks were applied. Disks were spotted with 10 μl each of sterile H_{2}O, 1 M H_{2}SO_{4}, 3,000 μg/ml lincomycin, 200 μg/ml metronidazole, 400 μg/ml ibrizoplastat, and 200 μg/ml vancomycin. After 24 h of growth, luciferase activity was visualized by spraying 1:100 reconstituted NanoGlo luciferase substrate (catalog no. N1110; Promega) on the agar plate using a disposable spray flask. One spray corresponded to approximately 250 μl reconstituted NanoGlo luciferase substrate. Luminescence was recorded using a Uvitec Alliance Q9 Advanced imager (BioSPX) after a 10-s exposure time per plate. Luciferase was conjugated into a sigB knockout made by allelic coupled exchange (S1), whereas a ClosTron mutant background was used for the DNA arrays. However, no differences between these backgrounds have been ever observed in our assays.
Data availability. The data used in the VolcaNoseR visualization have been deposited at Zenodo for this purpose (https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3945936). Full transcriptome data have been deposited in the GEO database and can be accessed through the identifier GSE152515.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

Supplemental material is available only online.

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