Title
Nitric Oxide Mediates Biofilm Formation and Symbiosis in Silicibacter sp. Strain TrichCH4B.

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Nitric oxide (NO) plays an important signaling role in all domains of life. Many bacteria contain a heme-nitric oxide/oxygen binding (H-NOX) protein that selectively binds NO. These H-NOX proteins often act as sensors that regulate histidine kinase (HK) activity, forming part of a bacterial two-component signaling system that also involves one or more response regulators. In several organisms, NO binding to the H-NOX protein governs bacterial biofilm formation; however, the source of NO exposure for these bacteria is unknown. In mammals, NO is generated by the enzyme nitric oxide synthase (NOS) and signals through binding the H-NOX domain of soluble guanylate cyclase. Recently, several bacterial NOS proteins have also been reported, but the corresponding bacteria do not also encode an H-NOX protein. Here, we report the first characterization of a bacterium that encodes both a NOS and H-NOX, thus resembling the mammalian system capable of both synthesizing and sensing NO. We characterized the NO signaling pathway of the marine alphaproteobacterium *Silicibacter* sp. strain TrichCH4B, determining that the NOS is activated by an algal symbiont, *Trichodesmium erythraeum*. NO signaling through a histidine kinase-response regulator two-component signaling pathway results in increased concentrations of cyclic diguanosine monophosphate, a key bacterial second messenger molecule that controls cellular adhesion and biofilm formation. *Silicibacter* sp. TrichCH4B biofilm formation, activated by *T. erythraeum*, may be an important mechanism for symbiosis between the two organisms, revealing that NO plays a previously unknown key role in bacterial communication and symbiosis.

**ABSTRACT** Nitric oxide (NO) plays an important signaling role in all domains of life. Many bacteria contain a heme-nitric oxide/oxygen binding (H-NOX) protein that selectively binds NO. These H-NOX proteins often act as sensors that regulate histidine kinase (HK) activity, forming part of a bacterial two-component signaling system that also involves one or more response regulators. In several organisms, NO binding to the H-NOX protein governs bacterial biofilm formation; however, the source of NO exposure for these bacteria is unknown. In mammals, NO is generated by the enzyme nitric oxide synthase (NOS) and signals through binding the H-NOX domain of soluble guanylate cyclase. Recently, several bacterial NOS proteins have also been reported, but the corresponding bacteria do not also encode an H-NOX protein. Here, we report the first characterization of a bacterium that encodes both a NOS and H-NOX, thus resembling the mammalian system capable of both synthesizing and sensing NO. We characterized the NO signaling pathway of the marine alphaproteobacterium *Silicibacter* sp. strain TrichCH4B, determining that the NOS is activated by an algal symbiont, *Trichodesmium erythraeum*. NO signaling through a histidine kinase-response regulator two-component signaling pathway results in increased concentrations of cyclic diguanosine monophosphate, a key bacterial second messenger molecule that controls cellular adhesion and biofilm formation. *Silicibacter* sp. TrichCH4B biofilm formation, activated by *T. erythraeum*, may be an important mechanism for symbiosis between the two organisms, revealing that NO plays a previously unknown key role in bacterial communication and symbiosis.

**IMPORTANCE** Bacterial nitric oxide (NO) signaling via heme-nitric oxide/oxygen binding (H-NOX) proteins regulates biofilm formation, playing an important role in protecting bacteria from oxidative stress and other environmental stresses. Biofilms are also an important part of symbiosis, allowing the organism to remain in a nutrient-rich environment. In this study, we show that in *Silicibacter* sp. strain TrichCH4B, NO mediates symbiosis with the alga *Trichodesmium erythraeum*, a major marine diazotroph. In addition, *Silicibacter* sp. TrichCH4B is the first characterized bacteria to harbor both the NOS and H-NOX proteins, making it uniquely capable of both synthesizing and sensing NO, analogous to mammalian NO signaling. Our study expands current understanding of the role of NO in bacterial signaling, providing a novel role for NO in bacterial communication and symbiosis.

Nitric oxide (NO) serves dual biological roles as both a signaling molecule and a cytotoxin (1–3). NO is synthesized by nitric oxide synthase (NOS), which has been characterized extensively in mammals. As a gaseous signaling molecule, NO can diffuse freely across cellular membranes to neighboring cells. For instance, in mammalian signaling, nanomolar concentrations of NO are generated by nitric oxide synthase (NOS) in endothelial cells. This NO diffuses to neighboring smooth muscle cells, where NO activates soluble guanylate cyclase (sGC), leading to formation of the second messenger, cyclic GMP (cGMP), which increases vasodilation (4, 5). sGC senses NO via a heme cofactor that selectively binds NO, but not O2. The sGC heme domain is a member of the heme-nitric oxide/oxygen binding (H-NOX) protein family, which is also present in many bacteria, including a number of pathogens (6–8).

Besides its role in signaling, NO is also an important component in the host response to infection, acting as a cytotoxic antimicrobial agent when generated at localized micromolar concentrations (9, 10). H-NOX proteins are one of several bacterial NO sensors that mediate response to the gas, through conserved signaling mechanisms that regulate histidine kinases (HKs) or diguanylate cyclases (DGCs) contained within the same operon (8). H-NOX proteins in *Legionella pneumophila* and *Shewanella oneidensis* inhibit biofilm formation by regulating the activity of a diguanylate cyclase/phosphodiesterase fusion protein that decreases levels of the bacterial second messenger cyclic diguanosine monophosphate (c-di-GMP) (11, 12). In *Shewanella oneidensis*, the H-NOX protein functions as a sensor protein for an HK, forming part of a bacterial two-component signaling pathway (13, 14). *S. oneidensis* contains a particularly complex NO-controlled mul-
ticomponent regulatory network, in which the HK activity is inhibited by the NO-bound H-NOX, and the HK has three cognate response regulators (RRs). Two of these RRs regulate biofilm formation by controlling c-di-GMP concentrations, while the third RR acts as a transcriptional regulator that controls the signaling network in a positive-feedback loop (14, 15). A similar signaling network is found in *Vibrio cholerae*, suggesting a broader role for H-NOX proteins as part of the bacterial defense mechanism to form a biofilm as protection against NO toxicity (14). In *V. cholerae*, the NO sensed by the H-NOX is likely produced by mammalian NOS (mNOS) activity from the host, but for the rest of these bacteria, the physiologically relevant source of NO for bacterial H-NOX signaling is unclear.

NOS catalyzes the conversion of arginine into NO and citruline, consuming O2 and NADPH as cosubstrates (9, 16, 17). mNOS contains an oxygenase domain responsible for catalysis, and a reductase domain involved in electron transfer. mNOS forms a complex with Ca2+/calmodulin (CaM) that promotes electron transfer between the oxygenase and reductase domains. Electrons are transferred from NADPH via flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD) and flavin mononucleotide (FMN) bound within the reductase domain to the P450-type heme in the oxygenase domain. Through sequence searching of genome data banks, bacterial open reading frames coding for proteins with high sequence similarity to the oxygenase domain of mNOS have been discovered. These isolated bacterial oxygenase domains were initially characterized from *Deinococcus radiodurans* and *Bacillus subtilis* (18, 19) and subsequently from pathogens such as *Bacillus anthracis* and *Staphylococcus aureus* (20, 21). In the presence of a separate flavin-containing reductase protein, these bacterial NOS homologs were shown to have NO activity. This bacterially derived NO has been proposed to protect against oxidative stress and antibiotics (18–20, 22). A full-length bacterial NOS containing a fused oxygenase and reductase domain in one polypeptide sequence was later discovered in *Sorangium cellulosum* (23). In contrast to mNOS, the reductase domain cofactors of *S. cellulosum* NOS (scNOS) are FAD and an iron-sulfur cluster (see Fig. S1 in the supplemental material). The function of NO generated from scNOS remains unclear, and the physiological inputs that stimulate NOS activity in these bacteria are unknown. H-NOX proteins are well-characterized NO sensors; however, to date, a bacterium carrying genes known to encode both the NOS and H-NOX proteins for a full NO signaling pathway had not been characterized.

Here, we report a novel NO signaling pathway in the alphaproteobacterium *Silicibacter* sp. strain TrichCH4B, which contains both a full-length NOS and an H-NOX NO sensor protein, resembling the mammalian NOS/eNOS signaling system with NO-derived NO binding to the H-NOX to activate downstream signaling. Additionally, the H-NOX of *Silicibacter* sp. TrichCH4B is encoded by a gene adjacent to a histidine kinase gene, suggesting involvement in a two-component signaling pathway. While bacterial NOS and H-NOX proteins have separately been shown to sense and defend against NO, in *Silicibacter* sp. TrichCH4B, NO acts as a signaling molecule that controls biofilm formation through a two-component phosphorelay system. Furthermore, the NO signaling pathway in *Silicibacter* sp. TrichCH4B is activated through interaction with its algal symbiont *Trichodesmium erythraeum*, indicating that NO plays a previously unknown role in bacterial communication.

**RESULTS**

**SiliNOSox forms NO under single-turnover conditions.** The NOS of *Silicibacter* sp. strain TrichCH4B (SiliNOS) was identified as a putative nitric oxide synthase through sequence homology to the mammalian NOS oxygenase domain and to the full-length NOS in *Sorangium cellulosum* (scNOS) (23). The domain architecture of SiliNOS is similar to that of scNOS: SiliNOS contains an N-terminal reductase domain with NAD(P)H and FAD binding sites and a predicted 2Fe-2S cluster. Attempts to express full-length SiliNOS in an active form were unsuccessful, most likely due to improper assembly or instability of the 2Fe-2S cluster or heme cofactor. Therefore, a SiliNOS oxygenase domain (SiliNOSox) construct, designed based on alignment with both the mammalian and *S. cellulosum* NOS proteins, was expressed and purified from *Escherichia coli*.

The activity of SiliNOSox in the presence of oxygen, substrate, and other cofactors was investigated under single-turnover conditions using N-hydroxyarginine (NHA), the product of the first catalytic step of the NOS reaction, as a substrate. Following a protocol similar to one previously described for scNOSox (oxygenase domain of scNOS) (23), the heme cofactor of SiliNOSox was reduced from the ferric state to the ferrous state with a molar equivalent of dithionite, and the reduced SiliNOSox was incubated with NHA and cofactor tetrahydrobiopterin (H4B) or tetrahydrofolate (H4F) under anaerobic conditions. Aerobic buffer was introduced to provide the O2 required to initiate the reaction, and NO in the headspace was determined using a nitric oxide analyzer. NO was detected only in samples containing NHA, oxygen, and either H4B or H4F (Fig. 1), demonstrating that SiliNOSox is capable of synthesizing NO.

**SiliH-NOX binds nitric oxide but not oxygen.** NO generated from SiliNOS could interact with the *Silicibacter* sp. TrichCH4B H-NOX protein (SiliH-NOX). SiliH-NOX was expressed and purified from *E. coli*. Purified SiliH-NOX contains a ferrous heme that forms stable NO and CO complexes, displaying spectra nearly identical to those of H-NOX from *S. oneidensis* (SoH-NOX) (13) (see Fig. S2 in the supplemental material). Like SoH-NOX, SiliH-NOX has no measurable affinity to O2, indicating that SiliH-NOX likely functions as a selective NO sensor.
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**FIG 2** SiliHK autophosphorylation and regulation by SiliH-NOX. (A) Autophosphorylation of SiliHK. Kinase autophosphorylation assays were carried out with γ-S-labeled ATP (ATPγS), and aliquots were taken at 5, 30, and 60 min and analyzed by Western blotting as described in Materials and Methods. α-PNBM, anti-PNBM antibody. (B) Effect of SiliH-NOX on the kinase activity of SiliHK. Kinase assays containing 5 μM SiliHK were incubated for 30 min with 1 mM ATPγS in the presence of 30 μM SiliH-NOX in the ligation states indicated. Samples were analyzed by Western blotting as described in Materials and Methods.

**FIG 3** Phosphotransfer from SiliHK to its cognate partners. (A) Phosphotransfer between SiliHK and SiliHpt. SiliHK (5 μM) was mixed with SiliHpt (10 μM) in the presence of ATPγS (1 mM) for a 30-min time course as described in Materials and Methods. SiliHPT phosphorylation was observed within 1 min. Empty lanes were removed from the gel image, as indicated by the line. All lanes are part of the same gel, with the same exposure settings. (B) SiliH-NOX inhibits SiliHK histidine kinase activity. The gene encoding SiliH-NOX is located adjacent to a gene encoding a histidine kinase in the *Silicibacter* sp. TrichCH4B genome (SiliHK), suggesting that SiliH-NOX could function as a sensor for SiliHK. SiliHK is a hybrid histidine kinase, containing both a kinase domain and a receiver domain with an aspartic acid predicted to be the phosphoryl acceptor from the kinase domain (see Fig. S3 in the supplemental material). To test SiliHK autophosphorylation activity, SiliHK was incubated with γ-S-labeled ATP (ATPγS) as a substrate. After the ATPγS reaction was quenched by EDTA, the alkylating agent para-nitrobenzylmesylate (PNBM) was added, which alkylates thiophosphates and cysteines, and an antibody specific for the alkylated thiophosphate was then used to detect the resulting thiophosphate esters (24). SiliHK autophosphorylation activity was observed by immunoblotting (Fig. 2A).

Next, the effect of the SiliH-NOX ligation state on SiliHK autophosphorylation was investigated. Unliganded (Fe2⁺) and ferrous-carbonyl (Fe2⁺-CO) SiliH-NOX did not affect kinase activity. However, the SiliH-NOX ferrous-nitrosyl (Fe2⁺-NO) complex inhibited SiliHK autophosphorylation. At a fivefold excess of Fe2⁺-NO-labeled SiliH-NOX, SiliHK autophosphorylation was nearly completely inhibited (Fig. 2B), indicating that SiliHK is regulated by SiliH-NOX in an NO-dependent manner.

**Phosphotransfer from SiliHK to SiliHpt and SiliDGC.** SiliHK is a hybrid histidine kinase; therefore, a histidine phosphorylation protein (Hpt) is required to mediate phosphotransfer to its cognate response regulator (25). Using the SMART (simple modular architecture research tool) domain database (26, 27), searching the *Silicibacter* sp. TrichCH4B genome for stand-alone Hpt proteins resulted in only one gene, hereafter referred to as SiliHpt. Therefore, SiliHpt was cloned and then expressed and purified from *E. coli*.

Physiological cognate phosphotransfer partners are predicted to display fast (typically within 1 min) phosphotransfer kinetics in vitro (28, 29). In phosphotransfer assays with both SiliHpt and SiliHK, SiliHpt phosphorylation was monitored by immunoblotting for PNBM adducts as previously described (24). SiliHpt phosphorylation was observed within 1 min after assay initiation (Fig. 3A), consistent with the rapid transfer expected for an in vivo cognate pair (30).

Having determined that SiliHpt can serve as an intermediary between SiliHK and its cognate response regulator, we next searched for orphan response regulators within the *Silicibacter* sp. TrichCH4B genome using the SMART domain database. Orphan response regulators contain a receiver domain, but no histidine kinase in the same or nearby operons. Each of the 12 orphan response regulators discovered using this method was cloned, expressed, and purified from *E. coli* and then tested for phosphotransfer from SiliHK and SiliHpt (14, 31). SiliHK and SiliHpt were phosphorylated with [γ-32P]ATP prior to the addition of a response regulator. Rapid (within 1 min) loss of phosphorylation from both SiliHK and SiliHpt was observed for only one of the response regulators, SCH4B_1503 (Fig. 3B), whereas for the other response regulators, slow loss of phosphorylation from SiliHK/SiliHpt occurred over 15 to 30 min (see Fig. S4 in the supplemental material). Likely due to the instability of phosphoaspartate esters (32), a phosphorylation signal for SCH4B_1503 was not observed. The SCH4B_1503 protein is annotated to contain a GGDEF domain found in diguanylate cyclases (33), and hereafter will be referred to as SiliDGC.

**Phosphorylation inhibits SiliDGC activity.** Diguanylate cyclases catalyze the formation of c-di-GMP from two molecules of GTP. Sequence alignment with characterized diguanylate cyclases
fluoride (BeFx), a known phosphorylation mimic (34) that is not significantly inhibit SiliDGC activity (Fig. 4A). A similar trend was observed when SiliDGC was incubated with beryllium-fluoride for 15 min before the reaction was initiated, and c-di-GMP formation was monitored by HPLC as described in Materials and Methods. A receiver domain mutant of the histidine kinase, SiliHK D386A, which is incapable of phosphorylation to SiliHPT, was used as an additional control. Loss of SiliDGC activity was observed only with the addition of all of the necessary phosphotransfer components: SiliHK, SiliHpt, and ATP, WT, wild type. (B) SiliDGC is inhibited by a phosphorylation mimic. An assay mixture containing 5 μM SiliDGC was incubated with the phosphorylation mimic, beryllium-fluoride (BeFx) for 15 min before the reaction was initiated, and c-di-GMP formation was monitored by HPLC as described in Materials and Methods. Loss of SiliDGC activity was observed with increasing BeFx concentrations. Values that are significantly different are indicated by bars and asterisks as follows: *, P < 0.05; **, P < 0.01.

Phosphorylation of response regulator domains generally modulates the activity of the connected enzymatic or binding domains within the protein, so we then investigated the effect of response regulator phosphorylation on SiliDGC activity. When SiliDGC was incubated with SiliHK, SiliHpt, and ATP, the diguanylate cyclase activity decreased by ~40% (Fig. 4A). When either one of the phosphotransfer components (i.e., SiliHpt or ATP) was omitted, the activity was similar to that of SiliDGC alone. The addition of the SiliHK D386A receiver domain mutant, which is incapable of phosphotransfer, in place of wild-type SiliHK also did not significantly inhibit SiliDGC activity (Fig. 4A). A similar trend was observed when SiliDGC was incubated with beryllium-fluoride (BeFx), a known phosphorylation mimic (34) that is not subject to hydrolysis and thus more stable than phosphorylation. Titration of increasing BeFx concentrations resulted in decreasing levels of c-di-GMP activity, as SiliDGC activity decreased by ~80% in the presence of 0.5 mM BeFx (Fig. 4B). Taken together, these results indicate that phosphorylation of SiliDGC by SiliHK/SiliHpt decreases SiliDGC activity and therefore should decrease cellular c-di-GMP levels.

**Silicibacter** sp. TrichCH4B biofilm formation is induced by exogenous NO. Cyclic di-GMP controls bacterial processes, such as motility, cellular aggregation, and biofilm formation (35). In particular, NO-mediated control of c-di-GMP levels has been shown to regulate bacterial biofilm formation (11, 12, 14). We tested whether NO induces a similar effect in **Silicibacter** sp. TrichCH4B, as SiliH-NOX inhibits SiliHK, thereby relieving the inhibitory effects of phosphorylation on SiliDGC. Thus, NO is expected to lead to an overall increase in c-di-GMP levels and biofilm formation (see Fig. 6). Static biofilm assays with **Silicibacter** sp. TrichCH4B were performed in an anaerobic chamber, with NO introduced via (Z)-1-[[N-(2-aminoethyl)-N-(2-ammonioethyl)amino]diazene-1,1-diolate (DETA-NONOate) added to the growth medium at 0 to 200 μM concentrations. DETA-NONOate is a slow-release NO donor, with a half-life ($t_{1/2}$) of 56 h at 25°C and pH 7 (36). Before biofilm formation was measured, cell density was measured by optical density at 600 nm (OD$_{600}$), and the cells grew to similar densities under all conditions tested. NO addition resulted in a twofold increase in biofilm formation with 200 μM DETA-NONOate compared with no NO added, as measured by crystal violet staining (Fig. 5A).

**Silicibacter** sp. TrichCH4B NO formation. To determine the factors that lead to NO synthesis and initiation of this novel bacterial signaling pathway, NO formation by **Silicibacter** sp. TrichCH4B was directly measured using a nitric oxide analyzer (Fig. 5B. None bar). The bacteria were grown anaerobically in sealed Hungate tubes, and before assaying the headspace for NO, a small volume of aerobic media was supplemented to provide sufficient oxygen for the O$_2$-dependent NOS reaction. Under anaerobic growth conditions in seawater complete medium, **Silicibacter** sp. TrichCH4B produces NO. To confirm that the NO observed is produced by NOs, NO formation by two organisms that are closely related to **Silicibacter** sp. strain TrichCH4B, **Silicibacter** sp. strain TM1040 and Dinoroseobacter shibae FL-12 were also tested under the same conditions. These species do not contain a predicted NOs gene or contain genes that encode components of the NO-associated signaling pathway present in **Silicibacter** sp. TrichCH4B, and NO formation was not observed from either **Silicibacter** sp. TM1040 or D. shibae FL-12 (see Fig. S6 in the supplemental material).

**T. erythraeum** induces **Silicibacter** sp. TrichCH4B NO formation. Having established that NO regulates **Silicibacter** sp.
TrichCH4B aggregation and biofilm formation, we next focused on the signal(s) that induce NO synthesis in Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B. To determine the factors regulating SiliNOS activity, we turned to the natural habitat of the organism. Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B was originally isolated from colonies of the *T. erythraeum* alga as a symbiont (37). Therefore, we hypothesized that *T. erythraeum* regulates SiliNOS activity, and the effect of *T. erythraeum* on NO production by Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B was tested. Cultures of *T. erythraeum* IMS101 were grown, and the cells were filtered through a 0.2-μm membrane to remove the *T. erythraeum* cells from the spent medium, which was subsequently concentrated using a 5-kDa molecular-weight-cutoff (MWCO) membrane. The concentrated *T. erythraeum* spent medium (TSM) was added to Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B cultures to test for stimulation of NO activity.

**FIG 5** Silicibacter sp. strain TrichCH4B biological response to NO and *Trichodesmium erythraeum*. (A) Exogenous NO increases Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B biofilm formation. Static biofilm assays were performed as described in Materials and Methods. With increasing amounts of NO, Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B formed more biofilm, as quantified by crystal violet staining (OD$_{570}$). Biofilm formation was normalized against growth (OD$_{600}$). (B) Addition of *T. erythraeum* spent medium (TSM) increases Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B NO formation. Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B was grown anaerobically with TSM as described in Materials and Methods. To fully digest any proteins, TSM was also treated with proteinase K before the addition to Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B. Only the TSM (high-molecular-weight [MW] fraction, or retentate, from a 5-kDa-MWCO membrane filter) showed stimulation of NO formation by Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B. (C) TSM addition increases SiliNOS gene expression. Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B was grown aerobically with various amounts of TSM, and cDNA from Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B mRNA was prepared as described in Materials and Methods. Expression of the SiliNOS gene (AC(t)) was calculated using Bio-Rad CFX Manager software with *rpoD* as a reference gene. SiliNOS gene expression increased with the amount of TSM added. (D) TSM addition increases Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B biofilm formation. Static biofilm assays were performed as described in Materials and Methods. Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B biofilm formation increased with the amount of TSM added, as quantified by crystal violet staining. Values that are significantly different are indicated by bars and asterisks as follows: *, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$. 

Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B was originally isolated from colonies of the *T. erythraeum* alga as a symbiont (37). Therefore, we hypothesized that *T. erythraeum* regulates SiliNOS activity, and the effect of *T. erythraeum* on NO production by Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B was tested. Cultures of *T. erythraeum* IMS101 were grown, and the cells were filtered through a 0.2-μm membrane to remove the *T. erythraeum* cells from the spent medium, which was subsequently concentrated using a 5-kDa molecular-weight-cutoff (MWCO) membrane. The concentrated *T. erythraeum* spent medium (TSM) was added to Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B cultures to test for stimulation of NO activity. The high- and low-molecular-weight fractions of the concentrated medium (TSM, or retentate, and flowthrough of the 5-kDa-MWCO membrane, respectively) were added separately to Silicibacter sp.
TrichCH4B cultures, and NO formation was measured using a nitric oxide analyzer. Cultures with the TSM, or high-molecular-weight fraction, exhibited an ~7-fold increase in NO formation over the samples with the flowthrough (low-molecular-weight fraction), or without any additions (Fig. 5B). None bar versus TSM bar). This demonstrates that T. erythraeum secretes a signaling agent captured in the TSM that induces NO production by SiliNOS.

To further characterize the stimulating factor of NO formation, TSM was treated with heat (95°C for 5 min) (data not shown) or protease (proteinase K). Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B cultures with TSM under both treatments did not show any stimulated NO formation (Fig. 5B). Thus, the stimulant of Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B NO formation appears to be a secreted protein from the T. erythraeum culture that needs to be properly folded to stimulate NO formation. We cannot rule out the possibility that the stimulant could be a small molecule that requires a protein carrier to deliver the molecule to Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B. In this case, however, the protein carrier would mostly likely require a specific receptor on Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B, since destroying the protein carrier by proteolysis abolishes stimulation of NO formation.

**T. erythraeum induces SiliNOS gene expression.** To determine whether the stimulation of Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B NO formation by T. erythraeum was regulated by gene expression or by direct activation of the SiliNOS enzyme, reverse transcription-quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) was performed to examine the effect of TSM on SiliNOS gene expression. The addition of increasing amounts of TSM correlated with increasing levels of SiliNOS mRNA (Fig. 5C). The levels of expression of a control gene, rpoD encoding RNA polymerase, were unchanged under all conditions. The observed increase in SiliNOS gene expression correlated with the increase in NO formation by Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B when grown with TSM (Fig. 5B), indicating that the stimulation of Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B NO production occurs by inducing SiliNOS gene expression.

**T. erythraeum spent medium induces Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B biofilm formation.** Since TSM increases NO formation by Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B and NO induces biofilm formation, we tested whether TSM addition also increases Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B biofilm formation. Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B biofilm formation was quantified using the crystal violet staining assay as described below. Addition of TSM leads to increased Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B biofilm formation in a concentration-dependent manner, confirming that T. erythraeum secreted protein(s) activates the NO signaling pathway and increases biofilm formation in Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B (Fig. 5D).

**DISCUSSION**

**Silicibacter sp. strain TrichCH4B H-NOX signals through a conserved two-component signaling network.** H-NOX signaling has been shown to regulate bacterial motility through control of cellular c-di-GMP levels, either by direct regulation of a diguanylate cyclase (11) or through a two-component signaling network (12, 14). In Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B, NO-bound SiliH-NOX inhibits SiliHK autophosphorylation (Fig. 2B), as is the case with all other characterized H-NOX-associated histidine kinases (8, 13). To identify the cognate response regulator for SiliHK, we relied on the principle that in vivo cognate interaction partners are expected to exhibit fast phosphotransfer kinetics in vitro, and only one orphan response regulator caused a rapid decrease in SiliHK/SiliHpt phosphorylation (see Fig. S4 in the supplemental material). This response regulator contains a GGDEF domain with diguanylate cyclase activity (SiliDGC) (Fig. S5), and phosphorylation of the SiliDGC receiver domain inhibits SiliDGC diguanylate cyclase activity (Fig. 4). However, inhibition of SiliHK by NO-bound SiliH-NOX relieves the SiliDGC inhibition, resulting in higher c-di-GMP levels than when SiliHK is fully active (Fig. 6).

In *Shewanella oneidensis*, NO-bound H-NOX inhibits the activity of its associated histidine kinase (13). In *S. oneidensis*, there are three cognate response regulators for the H-NOX-associated histidine kinase. One of the response regulators is an EAL-containing phosphodiesterase (PDE) that hydrolyzes c-di-GMP, and phosphorylation was shown to stimulate PDE activity. Kinase inhibition by NO-bound H-NOX results in lower PDE phosphorylation and activity and, therefore, higher c-di-GMP levels (14). A similar signaling network was confirmed in *Vibrio cholerae* (14). In the current study, the *Silicibacter* sp. TrichCH4B H-NOX/his-tidine kinase signaling network leads to the same overall response: NO signaling results in increased cellular c-di-GMP levels through relief of diguanylate cyclase inhibition (SiliDGC).

Cyclic di-GMP is an important bacterial second messenger, controlling various processes such as motility and biofilm forma-
tion (35). Typically, higher c-di-GMP levels result in increased biofilm formation, consistent with the phenotype exhibited by *Silicibacter* sp. TrichCH4B (Fig. 5A and D), as well as *S. oneidensis* and *V. cholerae* (14). In addition to controlling a two-component signaling circuit, NO-bound H-NOX has been shown in *Legionella pneumophila* and *Shewanella woodyi* to directly control activity of an adjacent GGDEF and/or EAL–containing protein (11, 12). Thus, NO/H-NOX control of bacterial biofilm through c-di-GMP regulation may be a universal mechanism governing bacterial communal behavior.

**Silicibacter** sp. TrichCH4B: first characterized bacterium with NO-dependent H-NOX pathway. *Silicibacter* sp. TrichCH4B is unique among the aforementioned bacteria in that, in addition to the NO-sensing H-NOX, the *Silicibacter* sp. TrichCH4B genome also encodes a full-length nitric oxide synthase (SiliNOS). SiliNOS shares the same domain architecture as the previously characterized NOS from *S. cellulatus* (42% sequence identity) (23) (see Fig. S1 in the supplemental material). SiliNOS has a putative N-terminal reductase domain that contains a 2Fe-2S cluster as well as FAD and NAD(P)H binding sites and a predicted NOxygenase domain at the C terminus. In contrast, mammalian NOS reductase domains are encoded C terminally to the oxygenase domain and resemble cytochrome c reductase and other cytochrome P450 reductases, with FAD, FMN, and NADPH binding subdomains. Many bacterial NOS proteins (e.g., from *Bacillus, Staphylococcus*, and *Geobacillus* species) contain only the oxygenase domain without a fused reductase domain. In those organisms, an independent reductase protein is required for NO synthesis (18, 22). Thus, the oxygenase domain appears to be the common ancestor for bacterial and mammalian NOS, and variants have evolved to include different reductase domains or remain without a fused reductase.

To date, NO signaling in NOS-containing bacteria is not well understood. Proposed functions for bacterial NOS proteins include protection against oxidative stress and antibiotics (20, 38–40), but in most bacteria, the biological role of NO synthesized by bacterial NOS is unknown. As mentioned above, bacterial H-NOX proteins regulate bacterial biofilm formation. For these H-NOX–containing bacteria, the source of NO is likely from the host immune system or from nitrate reduction in the environment, with additional organisms with similar NO signaling pathways. Previous studies have shown that the bacteria, including *Silicibacter* sp. TrichCH4B, provide *Trichodesmium* with essential minerals and metals (such as iron), indicating a symbiotic relationship (44, 45). However, the specific signaling mechanisms between *Trichodesmium* and associated bacteria have not been explored. Here, we found that SiliNOS gene expression and NO production by *Silicibacter* sp. TrichCH4B is stimulated by the presence of concentrated spent medium from a growing *T. erythraeum* culture (TSM) (Fig. 5B). Accordingly, *Silicibacter* sp. TrichCH4B biofilm also increases with the addition of TSM (Fig. 5D). Protease and heat treatments of TSM removed any stimulation of *Silicibacter* sp. TrichCH4B NO production, suggesting that activation of *Silicibacter* sp. TrichCH4B NO production requires a secreted protein (Fig. 5B). Current efforts are directed at identification of this *T. erythraeum* signaling protein.

Other bacteria in the *Roseobacter* clade, which includes *Silicibacter* sp. TrichCH4B, are symbiotic with dinoflagellates and practice a “swim or stick” lifestyle, in which they switch from sessile to motile phases depending upon the presence of their algal symbiont (46, 47). *Silicibacter* sp. TrichCH4B and *T. erythraeum* appear to have a similar mechanism for symbiosis—when *Silicibacter* sp. TrichCH4B is in the vicinity of *T. erythraeum*, it senses a *T. erythraeum* secreted signaling protein. This protein could bind to an extracellular receptor in *Silicibacter* sp. TrichCH4B, or be translocated into the cytosal, which then induces SiliNOS gene expression and thus, increased NO formation. NO activates the H-NOX signaling pathway, leading to higher levels of cellular c-di-GMP and biofilm formation, most likely on the *T. erythraeum* colonies, poising the two species for nutrient exchange and improved symbiotic growth and production processes (Fig. 6). The *Silicibacter* sp. TrichCH4B NO signaling pathway may be key to the symbiosis between the two organisms, revealing a new role for NO in bacterial signaling and communication.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

SiliNOSx, SiliH-NOX, SiliHK, and SiliHpt expression and purification. Plasmids containing the desired genes were transformed into *E. coli* BL21(DE3) cells. Expression cultures were grown at 37°C, induced with 1 mM isopropyl-β-D-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) at an OD600 of ~0.6, and grown at 18°C for 20 to 22 h. Cells were pelleted and resuspended in lysis buffer (for SiliNOSx, 50 mM sodium phosphate [pH 8.0], 150 mM NaCl, 10% [vol/vol] glycerol, 10 mM imidazole; for all others, 50 mM diethanolamine [DEA] [pH 8.0], 300 mM NaCl, 10% [vol/vol] glycerol, 10 mM imidazole, 1 mM Pefabloc, 1 mM benzamidine; for all others, 50 mM DEA [pH 8.0], 300 mM NaCl, 10% [vol/vol] glycerol, 10 mM imidazole and 1 mM benzamidine) and lysed by passage through a high-pressure homogenizer (Avestin). Cell debris was removed by centrifugation at 100,000 × g for 30 min using an Optimax XTL-100K ultracentrifuge with an Ti-45 rotor (Beckman). The supernatant was loaded onto ~5-ml nickel resin (nickel-nitriiotriacetic acid [Ni-NTA] superfowl from Qiagen) pre-equilibrated with wash buffer (for SiliNOSx, 50 mM sodium phosphate [pH 8.0], 150 mM NaCl, 10% [vol/vol] glycerol, 10 mM imidazole; for all others, 50 mM DEA [pH 8.0], 300 mM NaCl, 10% [vol/vol] glycerol, 10 mM imidazole). The resin was washed with 20 column volumes of wash buffer, and protein was eluted with 200 mM imidazole in wash
buffer. Proteins were exchanged into storage buffer (wash buffer without imidazole) by dialysis, flash frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at −80°C.

Glutathione S-transferase (GST)-SiliHpt, SiliDGC, and other response regulators (RRs). For expression, plasmids containing the desired genes were transformed into E. coli BL21 (DE3)/pLysS cells (Life Technologies). Expression cultures were grown at 37°C, induced with 1 mM IPTG at an OD600 of 0.6, and grown at 20°C for 22 to 24 h. Cell pellets were resuspended in lysis buffer (50 mM DEA [pH 8.0], 300 mM NaCl, 10% [vol/vol] glycerol, 1 mM Pefabloc, 1 mM benzamidine). Supernatant was prepared in the same manner as described above and loaded onto −5 ml glutathione resin (GE Healthcare) preequilibrated with wash buffer (50 mM DEA [pH 8.0], 300 mM NaCl, 10% [vol/vol] glycerol). The resin was then washed with 10 column volumes of wash buffer, and protein was eluted with 10 mM reduced glutathione in wash buffer. Proteins were exchanged into storage buffer (wash buffer without glutathione) by dialysis, flash frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at −80°C.

UV-Vis spectroscopy. UV-visible (UV-Vis) spectra were collected on a Varian Cary 300 Bio UV-Vis spectrophotometer. SiliNOSox was reduced to the ferrous (Fe2+) state by the addition of 1 mM Na2S2O5, for 20 min at 25°C and desalted using a PD-10 column (GE Healthcare) and imaged using a Chemidoc MP imager (Bio-Rad).

Diliglylate cyclase assay. Purified SiliDGC protein was incubated in 50 mM DEA (pH 8.0), 150 mM NaCl, and 5% [vol/vol] glycerol with 10 mM MgCl2, and reactions were initiated by the addition of 0.5 mM GTP. An internal HPLC standard, 0.5 mM tryptophan, was also included. Aliquots (10 μl) were quenched at different time points by the addition of 25 μl trifluoroacetic acid (2% [vol/vol] in water). Quenched reaction volumes were adjusted to 100 μl, and the samples were filtered through a 0.2-μm spin filter and analyzed by HPLC on a Nova-Pak C8 column (3.9 by 150 mm) (4 μl) at a flow rate of 1 ml/min using the following gradient at the time indicated: from 0 to 6 min, 100% 20 mM ammonium acetate; from 6 to 7.5 min, 95% 20 mM ammonium acetate and 5% [vol/vol] acetonitrile; from 7.5 to 8.4 min, 85% 20 mM ammonium acetate and 15% [vol/vol] acetonitrile; from 8.4 to 9 min, 5% 20 mM ammonium acetate and 95% [vol/vol] acetonitrile; from 9.1 to 13.5 min, 100% 20 mM ammonium acetate. c-di-GMP concentration was calculated from peak integration and a standard curve of c-di-GMP. The c-di-GMP standard was synthesized enzymatically as previously described (14).

To examine the effects of phosphorylation on SiliDGC activity, phosphotransfer partners were included in the assay, SiliHK (15 μM) and SiliHpt (15 μM) were prephosphorylated with 0.5 mM ATP for 15 min. SiliDGC was then added to the reaction mixture and incubated for 15 min before initiating reactions by the addition of 0.5 mM GTP. SiliDGC activity assays in the presence of beryllium-fluoride were performed as previously described (14, 34). All experiments were performed in triplicate.

Crystal violet biofilm assay. Biofilm assays with DETA-NONOate were performed in an anaerobic glove bag (Cay Laboratory Products) in 12-well polystyrene plates. *Silicibacter* sp. strain *TrichCH4B* was grown aerobically in seawater complete (SWC) medium at 30°C overnight. Anaerobic SWC medium was inoculated with 100-fold-diluted overnight cultures. Freshly prepared DETA-NONOate (Cayman Chemicals) in 10 mM NaOH was added at various concentrations. Cells were grown statically at 25°C, and a 3-mL culture reference was grown for OD measurements and normalization. Biofilm formation was quantified after 20 h and normalized to growth (OD600). Crystal violet staining was performed in the same manner as previously described (14, 48). Measurement from individual wells were averaged and normalized to growth (OD600).

Biofilm assays with concentrated *T. erythraeum* spent medium (TSM) were performed aerobically (to provide the necessary O2 for NOS activity) in the same manner as described above. Reported results are from the averages of three 12-well experiments on separate days.

*Trichodesmium erythraeum* growth and spent medium concentration. A nonaxenic culture of *Trichodesmium erythraeum* IMS101 (obtained from D. Hutchins, University of Southern California) was grown at 25°C with a 12-h light/12-h dark cycle (70 to 100 μE m−2 s−1) in a modified Aquil (medium) (49). The modified medium is composed of synthetic ocean water (SOW) with 10 μM Na2HPO4, 10 μM EDTA, and imaged using a Chemidoc MP imager (Bio-Rad).
1 μM FeCl3, 6H2O, 7.97 nM ZnSO4·7H2O, 121 nM MnCl2·4H2O, 50.3 nM CoCl2·6H2O, 100 nM NaMoO4·2H2O, 297 nM thiamine, 2.25 nM biotin, and 0.37 nM cyancobalamin. Cultures were diluted into fresh medium (volume increased by 2 to 5 times each transfer) every 7 days. Spent medium from 14 to 28 days of T. erythraeum growth culture was collected by filtration through a 0.2-μm filter and then concentrated 1,000 times by tangential-flow filtration with a 5-kDa MWCO membrane (Millipore). Further concentration was performed using a Macrosep Advance centrifugal device (Fäll) to obtain a final protein concentration of ~1 mg/ml.

Heat treatment of the concentrated spent medium was performed by heating the solution for 5 min at 95°C. Protease treatment of the concentrated spent medium was performed by adding protease K (final concentration of 0.5 mg/ml) (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer’s instructions.

Silicibacter sp. strain TrichCH4B NO formation. Overnight cultures of Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B were inoculated into 10 ml aerobic SWC medium in sealed Hungate tubes. When examining the effects of T. erythraeum on NO formation by Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B, TSM was added to the cultures in specified amounts. Cultures were grown with shaking for 20 h at 30°C. Ten minutes before measuring NO, 1 ml of aerobic SWC medium was delivered via syringe into the Hungate tubes to provide sufficient oxygen for the NOS reaction. Headspace (100 μl) was injected into an NO analyzer, and peaks were integrated using the NOAnalysis software for relative quantification. All experiments were performed in triplicate.

Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B RNA preparation and quantitative PCR. Cultures of Silicibacter sp. TrichCH4B (5 ml) were grown in the presence of various amounts of TSM. Cells were harvested after 12 h of growth. Total RNA was extracted using an RNasey purification kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. cDNA was synthesized from RNA with a SuperScript III reverse transcriptase kit according to the manufacturer’s instructions (Life Technologies). Control reaction mixtures were included to confirm the absence of contaminating genomic DNA. Quantitative PCR (qPCR) amplification of the SiliNOS gene was performed using SYBR green (Life Technologies) with SiliNOS qPCR primers (see Table S1 in the supplemental material) on a C1000 thermal cycler with a CFX96 real-time system (Bio-Rad). A two-step amplification procedure was used: 10 min at 95°C, followed by 40 cycles, with 1 cycle consisting of 15 s at 95°C and 30 s at 55°C. Results were analyzed using the Bio-Rad CFX Manager software. Results were normalized relative to the level of expression of the housekeeping gene rpoD (37). The relative expression values represent the means ± standard deviations of triplicate samples from three independent experiments.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

Supplemental material for this article may be found at http://mbio.asm.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1128/mBio.00206-15/-DCSupplemental.

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