

Characterization of VPI Pathogenicity Island and CTX ϕ Prophage in Environmental Strains of *Vibrio cholerae*

ASISH K. MUKHOPADHYAY,¹ SOUMEN CHAKRABORTY,^{1,2} YOSHIFUMI TAKEDA,³
G. BALAKRISH NAIK,^{2*} AND DOUGLAS E. BERG^{1*}

Departments of Molecular Microbiology and Genetics, Washington University Medical School, St. Louis, Missouri¹;
National Institute of Cholera and Enteric Diseases, Beliaghata, Calcutta 700 010, India²; and
National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Shinjuku, Tokyo 162, Japan³

Received 14 October 1999/Accepted 28 May 2001

Environmental isolates of *Vibrio cholerae* of eight randomly amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) fingerprint types from Calcutta, India, that were unusual in containing toxin-coregulated pilus or cholera toxin genes but not O1 or O139 antigens of epidemic strains were studied by PCR and sequencing to gain insights into *V. cholerae* evolution. We found that each isolate contained a variant form of the VPI pathogenicity island. Distinguishing features included (i) four new alleles of *tcpF* (which encodes secreted virulence protein; its exact function is unknown), 20 to 70% divergent (at the protein level) from each other and canonical *tcpF*; (ii) a new allele of *toxT* (virulence regulatory gene), 36% divergent (at the protein level) in its 5' half and nearly identical in its 3' half to canonical *toxT*; (iii) a new *tcpA* (pilin) gene; and (iv) four variant forms of a regulatory sequence upstream of *toxT*. Also found were transpositions of an IS903-related element and function-unknown genes to sites in VPI. Cholera toxin (*ctx*) genes were found in isolates of two RAPD types, in each case embedded in CTX ϕ -like prophages. Fragments that are inferred to contain only putative repressor, replication, and integration genes were present in two other RAPD types. New possible prophage repressor and replication genes were also identified. Our results show marked genetic diversity in the virulence-associated gene clusters found in some nonepidemic *V. cholerae* strains, suggest that some of these genes contribute to fitness in nature, and emphasize the potential importance of interstrain gene exchange in the evolution of this species.

Vibrio cholerae is a genetically diverse species that lives in warm-water environments, often associated with plankton and other aquatic organisms (9, 15, 31). Strains of just two of the approximately 200 currently known O-antigen serogroups (50; T. Shimada, personal communication), O1 and O139, cause epidemic cholera—the acute, devastating diarrheal disease that afflicts many thousands of people annually, especially in developing countries. Although certain other serogroups cause sporadic diarrheal disease (30, 37), most *V. cholerae* organisms probably do not infect humans. Epidemic strains are also distinguished from most others by their production of cholera toxin and a toxin-coregulated pilus (TCP) (15, 21).

Epidemic strains of *V. cholerae* have a complex natural history in areas of cholera endemicity, involving rapid transmission to humans via contaminated food and water during each year's cholera season and persistence or proliferation in aquatic organisms or abiotic niches at other times. Several recent major changes in patterns of epidemic cholera may stem in large part from a combination of human factors and environmental fluctuation that could affect the distribution of aquatic host species. The bacterial changes include (i) the replacement of classical biotype O1 strains beginning in 1961 by strains of the new El Tor O1 biotype (15), (ii) the reemer-

gence of classical biotype strains in parts of Bangladesh in the early 1980s and their disappearance a dozen years later (40; A. K. Siddiqui, personal communication), (iii) the emergence of the new O139 serogroup in 1992 (38) and its persistence along with El Tor O1 strains in South Asia since then (15, 16), and (iv) the sudden appearance of cholera in Peru in 1991 (46), which coincided with El Niño climate warming and changes in aquatic ecosystems (9, 29, 44).

Genetic recombination between divergent bacterial strains can be advantageous, especially in complex or variable environments, because it generates new genotypes more efficiently than does mutation alone. Its importance in *V. cholerae* evolution is illustrated by comparison of O139 and El Tor O1 strains, which contain quite different O-antigen biosynthetic genes but are closely related in most other genetic loci. This suggests that O139 antigen genes were transferred from an unknown donor into an El Tor-related strain that was well suited to human infection and the South Asian environment. O139 recombinants may have been selected by their ability to infect adults with anti-O1 immunity, in addition to nonimmune children (3, 4, 43, 51). A history of recombination involving other gene loci has also been detected by DNA sequence and multilocus enzyme electrophoresis analyses (3, 6, 22, 45).

Advantageous genes can also spread efficiently via specialized genetic elements whose establishment in new bacterial lineages does not require homology-based recombination. For example, the cholera toxin genes of epidemic *V. cholerae* strains are within the genome of a filamentous M13-related phage designated CTX ϕ (48). Although a CTX ϕ prophage can be carried as a plasmid, it is usually found integrated into the chromosome, often in a multicopy tandem array, and con-

* Corresponding author. Mailing address for G. Balakrish Nair: National Institute of Cholera and Enteric Diseases, P-33, CIT Road Scheme XM, Beliaghata, Calcutta 700 010, India. Phone: 91-33-3532524. Fax: 91-33-3505066. E-mail: gbnair@vsnl.com. Mailing address for Douglas E. Berg: Department of Molecular Microbiology, Campus Box 8230, Washington University Medical School, 4566 Scott Ave., St. Louis, MO 63110. Phone: (314) 362-2772. Fax: (314) 362-1232 or (314) 362-3203. E-mail: BERG@BORCIM.WUSTLE.EDU.

TABLE 1. Characteristics of environmental isolates of *V. cholerae*

RAPD type	SCE isolate(s)	Collection ^a	Serogroup	VPI pathogenicity island ^b					CTX ϕ prophage ^c				
				LJ	<i>tcpA</i>	<i>tcpF</i>	F-T	<i>toxT</i>	<i>igl</i>	<i>rstR</i>	<i>rstA</i>	<i>rstC</i>	<i>ctx</i>
1a	4, 6	1	O8	+ ^L	cla	II	II	epi	-	-	-	-	-
1b	359	7	O8	+ ^L	cla	II	ND	epi	-	-	-	-	-
1a	5	1	O11	+ ^L	cla	II	ND	epi	-	-	-	-	-
2	225, 226, 228	3a	O35	epi	cla	III	III.IS	env	-	-	-	-	-
2	227	3b	O35	epi	cla	III	III.IS	env	-	-	-	-	-
3	258	5	O42	epi	cla	IV	IV	env	-	-	-	-	-
4	256, 257, 259, 260, 261, 265	5	O42	epi	cla	IV	IV	env	-	-	-	-	-
4	264	5	O42	epi	cla	IV	IV	env	+	5	264	+	-
5	263	5	O10	epi	cla	III	III	env	+	4*	+	+	-
6	188, 200, 201	2	O44	epi	env	V	V	epi	+	4*, cal	+	+	+
7	223	4	O27	epi	env	V	V	epi	+	4**	+	+	+
7	354	8	O27	epi	env	V	V	epi	+	4**	+	+	+
8	340, 341	6	O69	epi	elt	IV	IV	env	-	-	-	-	-

^a Collection dates and sources: 1, 7 July 1997, plankton, Lake Subhas Sarobar, Calcutta; 2, 2 December 1997, water from fish pond in village of Polan Heights near Calcutta; 3, 8 January 1998, plankton (a) and water (b) from pond in Mohish Batan region of Calcutta; 4, 8 January 1998, plankton from Polan Heights fish pond; 5, 10 February 1998; water from pond in Mohish Batan region of Calcutta; 6, 5 May 1998, plankton water from pond in Mohish Batan region, Calcutta; 7, 19 May 1998, water from Polan Heights fish pond; and 8, 19 May 1998, plankton water from pond in Mohish Batan region, Calcutta.

^b Abbreviations: LJ, left junction (+^L, yielded a 2.3-kb PCR product instead of the usual 1-kb product due to gene translocation [Fig. 7]); epi, epidemic; cla, classical; elt; El Tor; env, environmental. The amino acid sequences of the encoded TcpA proteins are shown in Fig. 3. The amino acid sequences of TcpF proteins encoded by alleles II, III, IV, and V, each of which is distinct from TcpF of canonical epidemic strains (designated type I here), are diagrammed in Fig. 5, and their relatedness is summarized in Table 3. Five types of sequence in the ~200 to 230 bp between *tcpF* and *toxT* (designated F-T) were identified (type I, canonical, from strain 569B, but also 99 to 100% matched to those of other epidemic [El Tor and classical biotype] strain sequences in the database. Other types are diagrammed in Fig. 6 and described in the text.)

^c +, allele very similar to those in epidemic strains; -, no gene detected; ND, not determined. The *rstR4** and *rstR4*** alleles are diagrammed in Fig. 9. *rstA264* designates a gene that is unrelated to that in canonical CTX ϕ .

trolled by a prophage repressor. This repressor is inactivated in the bacterial response to DNA damage, thereby allowing production of progeny phage that can infect (lysogenize) new bacterial hosts (14). CTX ϕ repressors of three different specificities are known, and strains carrying one prophage can often be infected or lysogenized by CTX ϕ of other repressor specificities (11, 25). In a second example, the genes for TCP form part of a 40-kb segment that is absent from many nonepidemic strains, that has been designated a pathogenicity island (VPI) (23), and that might also correspond to a temperate filamentous phage (24). As remarkable examples of evolutionary coadaptation, the CTX ϕ virion uses TCP as a receptor during infection (48), and the VPI-encoded ToxT regulatory protein helps turn on transcription of both TCP genes (also located in VPI) and cholera toxin genes (in CTX ϕ) in response to particular host or environmental conditions (7, 10, 15, 28).

There have been several reports of unusual nonepidemic strains carrying *tcpA* (pilin) or *ctx* (cholera toxin) genes (8, 32-34). Here we present a more detailed analysis of two dozen such isolates from Calcutta. Our results show that these genes are also contained within VPI- and CTX ϕ -type genetic elements, demonstrate a remarkable pattern of localized diversity in them, and emphasize the potential importance of gene exchange as a force in *V. cholerae* genome evolution.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains. The 24 environmental isolates of *V. cholerae* studied here were obtained from water samples from Calcutta, India, by enrichment culture (8 of 122 tested) and PCR-based screening for *tcpA* (classical or El Tor) or *ctx* genes and O-antigen typing, as described previously (8) (Table 1). Three reference epidemic strains of *V. cholerae* were also used: O139 (SG24); O1 Ogawa, El Tor biotype (VC20); and O1, Ogawa, classical biotype (O395) (2).

DNA fingerprinting. Genomic DNAs prepared by standard cetyltrimethylammonium bromide-phenol extraction from 1.5-ml overnight cultures were used for DNA fingerprinting by the random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD)

method (1). Reactions were carried out in 25 μ l containing 2.5 μ l of 10 \times PCR buffer, 20 ng of *V. cholerae* genomic DNA, 4 μ l of 25 mM MgCl₂, 20 pmol of primers 1281 (5'-AACGCGCAAC) or 1283 (5'-GCGATCCCA), 1 U of AmpliTaq DNA polymerase, and 2.5 μ l of 2.5 mM deoxynucleoside triphosphates under a drop of mineral oil for 45 cycles of 94°C for 1 min, 36°C for 1 min, and 72°C for 2 min in a Perkin-Elmer TC480 thermal cycler. After PCR, 8- μ l aliquots of product were electrophoresed in 1% agarose gels containing 0.5 mg of ethidium bromide/ml and photographed under UV light. A 1-kb DNA ladder (Gibco BRL, Rockville, Md.) was used as a size marker in all gels.

Characterization of CTX ϕ and VPI. PCR tests for VPI pathogenicity island and CTX ϕ prophage genes were carried out using primers listed in Table 2 (the approximate locations of genes in VPI and in CTX ϕ that we studied are shown in Fig. 1). Hybridization was carried out with DNA probes generated by PCR from epidemic-strain DNAs. PCR was performed in volumes of 20 μ l containing 10 ng of genomic DNA, 10 pmol of primer, and 1 U of *Taq* DNA polymerase for 30 cycles of 94°C for 40 s, 55°C (or 60°C when higher specificity was needed) for 40 s, and 72°C for a time chosen based on the size of the expected fragment (1 min/kb). Long-distance PCR was performed using the Advantage genomic PCR kit (Clontech Laboratories Inc., Palo Alto, Calif.) when needed (fragments longer than a few kilobases). Each PCR was carried out in a volume of 100 μ l containing 8 ng of genomic DNA, 40 pmol of each primer, 2 μ l of 50 \times Advantage genomic polymerase mix, 10 μ l of 10 \times genomic PCR buffer, 2 μ l of 50 \times deoxynucleoside triphosphate mix, 10 μ l of MgCl₂ (25 mM), and MilliQ water. The amplification conditions were: preincubation at 94°C for 15 or 30 s and then 35 cycles of 94°C for 30 s and 68°C for 6 or 12 min, with final extensions at 68°C for 6 or 12 min for PCRs using primers *tcpI*-F and *tcpA*-R (classical variant) and primers *tcpA*-F (classical) and *tcpF*-R to generate fragments of 3.9 and 9.2 kb, respectively. All PCRs were carried out in a TC480 thermal cycler (Perkin-Elmer Cetus, Foster City, Calif.).

Amplified products were electrophoresed in ethidium bromide agarose gels (SeaKem; BMA, Rockland, Maine), and visualized and documented using a video documentation system. PCR products were purified using a PCR product purification kit (Qiagen Inc., Chatsworth, Calif.) and used as probes for dot blot hybridization. For hybridization, 10 to 15 ng of genomic DNA from each *V. cholerae* isolate was spotted on Hybond N⁺ membrane (Amersham, Arlington Heights, Ill.) and dried for 30 min. The membrane was then denatured with a solution of 0.5 M NaOH and 1.5 M NaCl for 7 min and neutralized with two washes of 150 ml of 0.5 M Tris-HCl (pH 7.4) and 1.5 M NaCl for 3 min each, after which the membrane was dried for 1 h. DNA was fixed to the membrane by UV cross-linking. Hybridization probes were prepared by PCR from reference strains of *V. cholerae* O139 (SG24), *V. cholerae* O1 Ogawa, El Tor biotype

TABLE 2. Sequences of primers used in this study

Primer ^a	Primer sequence (5'-3')	Coordinate ^b (5' end)	Size (bp) ^c	Use
LJ-F	GTGAATCTTGATGAGACGCTCTG	872910	1,011	PCR
LJ-R	GGTGAGCCAGGCTTATTTGGG	873920		PCR
SCE4.LJ-F2	GGATCATCAACCGAAGAGGTAGA	This study		Sequencing
SCE4.LJ-R2	GCCTGCATCACCACATTCCTCATA	This study		Sequencing
SCE4.LJ-F3	GGTTAGCTCTCCATCGACAACA	This study		Sequencing
SCE4.LJ-R3	GGTCTGGAAATACCACAGCGT	This study		Sequencing
<i>aldA</i> -F	GCATCTGATTATGACCAAAGAATAGG	875610	1,116	PCR
<i>aldA</i> -R	GTCAATGGATGAAGCCACACAGTG	876725		PCR
<i>tagA</i> -F	GGTGTAAAGATATTCACTCTTAATG	877014	351	PCR
<i>tagA</i> -R	GAGACTCTATAGAATACTGGCTG	877364		PCR
<i>tcpI</i> -F	GCCGTCTCCGCATTAAGCTCTGCAC	887200		PCR
<i>tcpI</i> -F2	GCCAACGTAATGATGCACGCAAGTA	888350	1,212	PCR
<i>tcpH</i> -R2	CGTTACACCAAGTGCTACAACGAAT	889561		PCR
<i>tcpA</i> -F(cla)	CACGATAAAGAAAACCGGTCAAGAG	M33514	617	PCR
<i>tcpA</i> -R(cla)	ACCAAATGCAACGCCGAATGGAGC	M33514		PCR
<i>tcpA</i> -F(elt)	GAAGAAGTTTGTAAGAAGAACAAC	890480	471	PCR
<i>tcpA</i> -R(elt)	GAAAGGACCTTCTTTCACGTTG	890951		PCR
<i>tcpQ</i> -R	GAGGACTGTTCTGCAATCTGCTCAT	892609		PCR
<i>tcpF</i> -F	GAGTTCACATGCAGAAACAGGA	899444		PCR
<i>tcpF</i> -R	GCCACGAATGTGGCTGTTATCTTATC	899724		PCR
<i>toxT</i> -F	ACTGTATAGCAAAGCATATTCAGAGA	899658	1,115	PCR
<i>toxT</i> -R	CAGTGATACAATCGAAAATAGGATC	900772		PCR
<i>acfB</i> -R	GAGCGTGCTTTATCATGGTCGAT	902296		PCR
<i>int</i> -F	GAAGTAATGAAACCGATAAGTGG	913253	347	PCR
<i>int</i> -R	TGCTTTGTACCAGTCACAGATAG	912907		PCR
RJ-F	TCGTTAGCGTGTGCGTTTCGAGG	914405	1,499	PCR
RJ-R	TGCTTTGTACCAGTCACAGATAG	912907		PCR
<i>ig-1</i> -F	GAGCCTGTGACACTCACCTTGTAT	1566438	629	PCR
<i>rstA</i> -R	GCATAAGGAACCGACCAAGCAAGAT	1565810		PCR
<i>rstC</i> -R	GCTCAGTCAATGCCTTGAGTTG	1564169		PCR
<i>orfU</i> -F	GGTGTATTTTGATGGCTGCATG	1570758	3,713	PCR
<i>ctxB</i> -R	GCTTCAGTAAGATATGCAATCCTCAG	1567046		PCR
<i>tcpE</i> -F2	GCTCCTGACCAATGGCTGTTTATTCA	898458		PCR
<i>tcpF</i> .n-F2	GCTATTCTACTCCAGACCAACTA	This study		Sequencing
<i>toxT</i> .n-F2	GAGTTTGATTGTGCGATCTCAGTT	This study		Sequencing
<i>toxT</i> -R2	CACAGTTCAGAGGAGCAGAT	This study		Sequencing
<i>tcpJ</i> -R2	GGGCACATGGAGCGATTGAAAT	900876		Sequencing
<i>tcpJ</i> -R	GCTTGGTCCAAGAGGGATAT	901444		PCR
226. <i>tcpF</i> -F	GGATATTCCTACAGCTGAGCAGTT	This study		Sequencing
226. <i>toxT</i> -R	GGTCATATGTGCTCACTATCTCT	This study		Sequencing

^a LJ, left junction; RJ, right junction; *aldA*, *toxT*, and *int*, genes in the *V. cholerae* pathogenicity island; *ig1*, *RS*, *orfU*, *ctxB*, and *rstA*, DNA segments and genes in the CTX ϕ prophage; *tcpI*, *tcpQ*, *tcpF*, and *acfB*, genes in the *V. cholerae* pathogenicity island VPI.

^b Unless stated otherwise, the coordinates used here correspond to positions in the complete genome sequence of *V. cholerae* El Tor N16961 (19), available at <http://www.tigr.org/tdb/CMR/gvc/htmls/SplashPage.html>.

^c Size of diagnostic PCR product generated with pairs of primers (only those important to this analysis are given).

(VC20), and *V. cholerae* O1, Ogawa, classical biotype (O395), using primers listed in Table 1. About 200 ng of each probe DNA was conjugated to horse-radish peroxidase, and hybridization to filters was detected with a chemiluminescent substrate (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech, Piscataway, N.J.) on X-ray film, as previously described (47).

DNA sequencing. DNAs corresponding to parts of the *rstR* region of CTX ϕ were PCR amplified using primers *ig-1*-F and *rstA*-R or *ig-1*-F and *rstR*-R (formerly RS-R) (Table 1); parts of the *tcpA* region were amplified using primers *tcpA*-F of the classical variant and *tcpQ*-R, and PCR products used for sequencing were purified using a Qiagen kit and sequenced directly (without cloning) using a *Taq* dye terminator sequencing kit (Perkin-Elmer), appropriate primers, and an automated DNA sequencer (ABI Prism 377; ABI, Foster City, Calif.). The sequences were aligned using the DNAsis software program and analyzed using the Basic Local Alignment Search Tool program available on the National Center for Biotechnology Information web site or programs in the Genetics Computer Group (Madison, Wis.) package, PHYLIP of J. Felsenstein (<http://evolution.genetics.washington.edu/phylip.html>), and clustal W of T. J. Gibson and colleagues (<http://www.csc.fi/molbio/progs/clustalw>).

Nucleotide sequence accession numbers. The nucleotide sequence data for VPI elements reported here have been deposited in GenBank with the following accession numbers: AF133307 (*rstR*-4** from SCE223), AF133308 (*rstR*-5 from SCE264), AF13309 (*rstR*-4* from SCE263), AF13310 (*rstR*-cal from SCE188),

AF139656 (*rstA* from SCE264), AF208385 (*tcpA*-env from SCE188), AF306795 (*tcpE*-*tcpJ* segment from SCE4), AF306796 (*tcpE*-*tcpJ* segment from SCE226, which contains an IS903-related element), AF378526 (*tcpE*-*tcpJ* segment from SCE263, which lacks an IS903-related element), AF306797 (*tcpE*-*tcpJ* segment from SCE256), AF306798 (*tcpE*-*tcpJ* segment from SCE200), AF319954 (left junction region of VPI from SCE4, including a DNA segment translocated from chromosome 2), AF319652 (*tcpP* from SCE4), AF319653 (*tcpP* from SCE226), AF319654 (*tcpP* from SCE256), and AF319655 (*tcpP* from SCE200). For locations of these segments, see Fig. 1. For a summary of salient features of strains, see Table 1.

RESULTS

RAPD types. The 24 *V. cholerae* isolates studied here (Table 1) had been chosen based on positive PCR with primers specific for *tcpA* genes of classical or El Tor biotype strains (designated *tcpA*-cla and *tcpA*-elt, respectively) or *ctx* genes; they were of eight O antigen types, each of which was distinct from the O1 or O139 epidemic type (8). Our arbitrarily primed PCR (RAPD) fingerprinting identified eight types (Fig. 2), probably

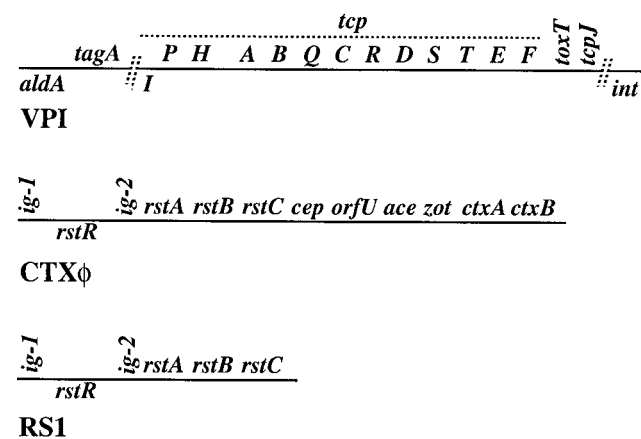


FIG. 1. Abbreviated maps of VPI, CTX ϕ , and RS1, including relative positions of genes that were studied here. These maps are not complete or to scale. Genes indicated above the lines are transcribed left to right; those below the lines are transcribed in the opposite orientation. These maps are based on references 15, 19, and 48.

each corresponding to a different background genotype. Isolates of the same RAPD type were often from the same collection, suggesting that they might be sibs. However, the same RAPD type was obtained in different collections in two cases (types 1 and 7), and isolates with matched RAPD patterns were distinguishable by other traits or DNA markers in two other cases (types 1a and 4) (Table 1). Although isolates of a given RAPD type tended to be of the same serogroup, but two serogroups (O8 and O11) were represented in isolates of RAPD type 1, and conversely, isolates of two RAPD types (3 and 4) were each of the same serogroup (O42). These exceptions can be ascribed to interstrain gene transfer or to mutation affecting O-antigen biosynthetic genes. In addition, one RAPD pattern (type 7) closely matched that of O139 and El Tor O1 epidemic strains (Fig. 2), but the two isolates of this type (which were collected at different times) differed from epidemic strains in O antigens and several other determinants (Table 1).

VPI pathogenicity islands. In initial characterizations (8), 19 of the 24 *V. cholerae* isolates were found to carry *tcpA* alleles closely matched to either *tcpA*-cla or *tcpA*-elt, whereas the other five isolates (two RAPD types) seemed not to contain either of these *tcpA* alleles, even though only they carried *ctx* genes (8). In follow-up experiments we observed strong hybridization of DNAs from each of our 24 isolates (the five anomalous, possibly *tcpA*-deficient isolates included) with probes specific for regions adjacent to *tcpA* (a 3.9-kb *tcpI*-*tcpA* segment on the left and a 9.2-kb *tcpA*-*tcpF* segment on the right) (Fig. 1 and data not shown). Further PCR and hybridization tests showed that each of the 24 isolates also carried *aldA* and *tagA* sequences near the VPI left end and *int* near its right end, and that each also yielded PCR products corresponding to the junctions between the left and right ends of VPI and flanking DNA (primers LJ-F and LJ-R and primers RJ-F and RJ-R) (Table 1). The only unusual result from these PCR tests was obtained with isolates of RAPD type 1 (SCE4, -5, -6, and -359), which yielded a 2.3-kb rather than a 1.0-kb PCR product with left-junction-specific primers. These results suggested that

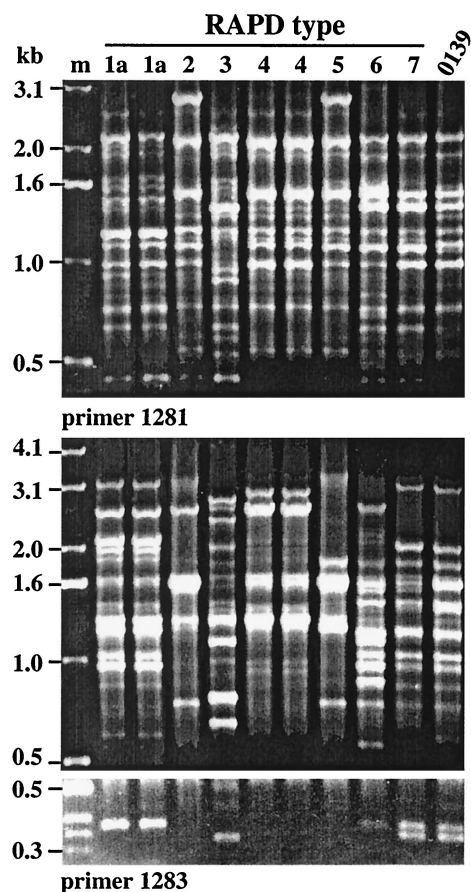


FIG. 2. RAPD profiles of representative *V. cholerae* environmental isolates generated using primers 1281 and 1283. Lane designations correspond to RAPD types discussed in the text and to SCE isolates defined in Table 1, as follows: 1a, SCE4 and SCE5; 2, SCE226; 3, SCE258; 4, SCE260 and SCE264; 5, SCE263; 6, SCE200; and 7, SCE223. The O139 epidemic strain used is SG24. m, 1-kb ladder (size marker).

each isolate contained an intact or nearly intact VPI pathogenicity island.

New alleles in VPI. (i) *tcpA*. The region near *tcpA* of isolates that lacked *tcpA*-cla or *tcpA*-elt alleles (RAPD types 6 and 7) was studied further. PCR with primers flanking *tcpA* (*tcpI*-F and *tcpQ*-R) yielded a product of the size matching that from epidemic strains (~5.4 kb), and equivalent PCR using a primer specific for a conserved sequence near the 5' end of *tcpA* (*tcpA*-F) along with *tcpQ*-R yielded a ~2.1-kb product in each case. DNA sequencing of two such isolates (SCE188 and SCE354; RAPD types 6 and 7) identified a new *tcpA* allele (*tcpA*-env), only ~74% identical at the DNA level (77 to 78% at the protein level) to corresponding 600-bp sequences from *tcpA*-elt (GenBank accession no. U09807) and *tcpA*-cla (accession no. X64098) (36, 39). This new *tcpA*-env allele was also distinct from *tcpA* alleles found recently in other nonepidemic isolates (Fig. 3).

Much of the divergence among these various *tcpA* alleles was in the carboxy-terminal half, which is thought to be exposed on the pilus surface (27; R. Chattopadhyaya and A. C. Ghose, personal communication; R. K. Taylor, personal com-

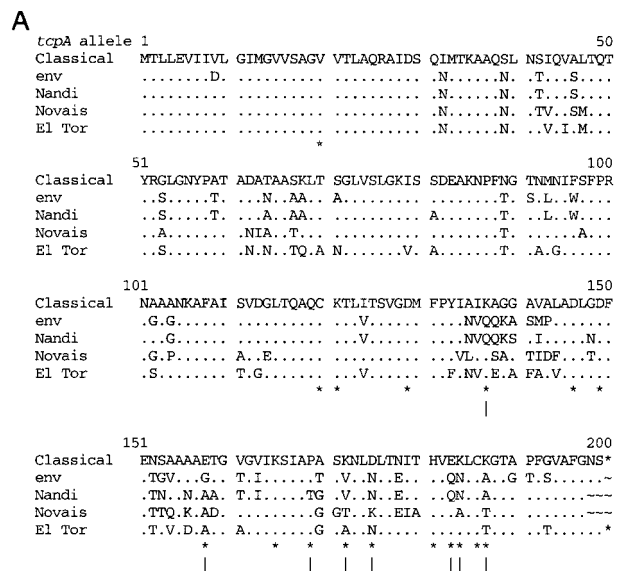


FIG. 3. *TcpA* alignment and phylogenetic tree. (A) Alignment of inferred amino acid sequences of *TcpA*-cla with the *TcpA*-env protein found here (from SCE188) and with other *TcpA* proteins (Nandi, accession no. AF139626 [33]; Novais, accession no. AF030309 [34]; and El Tor, accession no. M33514). Periods indicate residues identical to those found in *TcpA*-cla; only amino acid differences (relative to *TcpA*-cla) are specified. *, position whose functional importance in *TcpA*-cla was tested mutationally (27). (B) Inferred phylogenetic relationships between *tcpA* alleles.

munication) (Protein Database accession no. 1QT2 [http://www.rcsb.org/pdb]); the amino-terminal third, which is buried in the mature pilus structure, is relatively better conserved among isolates. Among the many differences between the present *tcpA*-env allele and the *tcpA*-cla allele (Fig. 3A) is the K187A substitution, which in the *tcpA*-cla context increases pilus-mediated autoagglutination 30-fold (27).

(ii) *toxT* and *tcpF*. Initial PCR tests (8) had also suggested that isolates of five RAPD types either lacked the *toxT* gene or contained an allele that differed significantly from that in epidemic strains (RAPD types 2, 3, 4, 5, and 8 in Table 1). Our additional PCR tests indicated that the adjacent *tcpF* gene was also either missing or divergent. However, *tcpE* and *tcpJ* sequences, which flank the *tcpF*-*toxT* segment, were found in every isolate by PCR with primers *tcpE*-F2 and *tcpJ*-R. In addition, PCR with these primers yielded products from each of the 24 isolates: the expected 3 kb in 20 of 24 cases and a 1-kb-longer product in the other four, which all belonged to one RAPD type (type 2). DNA sequencing showed that the strains that had not yielded PCR products with standard *toxT*

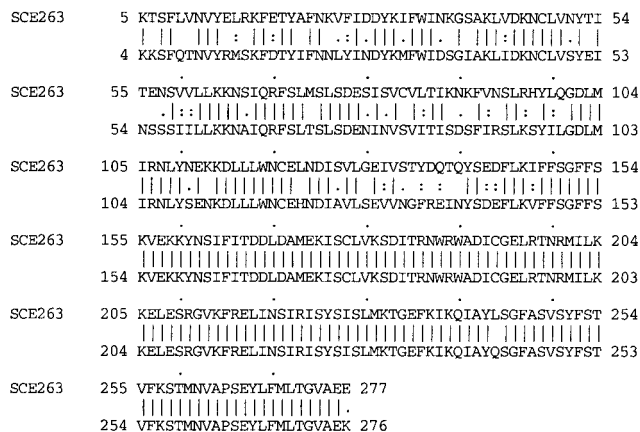


FIG. 4. Alignment of *ToxT* from strains SCE263 and 569B (classical biotype, epidemic strain) (GenBank accession no. B45247). *toxT* alleles nearly identical to that of SCE263 were found by sequencing in isolates SCE226 and SCE256.

primers contained a new mosaic *toxT* allele: 62 to 64% identity (protein level) to that of canonical *toxT* in its first half (5'-most 148 codons), and 99% identity to canonical *toxT* in its second (carboxy-terminal) half (Fig. 4), the region that determines specificity of *ToxT* protein binding to DNA regulatory sites.

Further sequencing revealed four markedly different alleles of *tcpF*, a gene that encodes a secreted protein whose exact role in virulence is not known (Taylor, personal communication). The inferred *TcpF* proteins were 31 to 79% identical to one another and to canonical *TcpF* (Fig. 5; Table 3). Two of the new *tcpF* alleles were associated with the novel *toxT* allele, and the other two were in isolates carrying *toxT* alleles that were nearly identical to those of epidemic strains (Fig. 6).

***tcpF*-*toxT* intergenic sequence.** Between *tcpF* and *toxT* lies a noncoding sequence that in epidemic strains is about 230 bp long and contains binding sites for positive (*TcpP* and *ToxR*) and negative (*H-NS*) regulatory proteins which help link *toxT* expression to environmental conditions, host signals, and general bacterial physiology (18, 35, 52). A *tcpF*-*toxT* intergenic sequence of about 200 to 220 bp was also found in each environmental isolate analyzed, and four types (referred to as F-T types) were distinguished. The sequences F-T II (found in RAPD type 1) and F-T V (in RAPD types 6 and 7) were 88 to 90% identical to one another and to the F-TI segment of epidemic strains. The F-T III (in RAPD type 5) and F-T IV (in RAPD types 3 and 4) sequences were 67% identical to each other in a 169-bp shared segment but did not seem to be related to the corresponding intergenic sequence in epidemic strains. The F-T intergenic sequence in RAPD type 2 isolates contained a transposable element insertion (see below) but otherwise was identical to that in SCE263; therefore, it was designated F-T III:IS.

Conserved sequences in VPI. The F-T intergenic sequence contains binding sites for multiple regulatory factors, including *TcpP* protein (18, 35), which is encoded within VPI. Accordingly, 1.1-kb segments containing the 666-bp *tcpP* gene and upstream sequences were PCR amplified from four isolates representing each of the four different F-T intergenic sequence types (SCE4, -226, -256, and -200). The sequences obtained

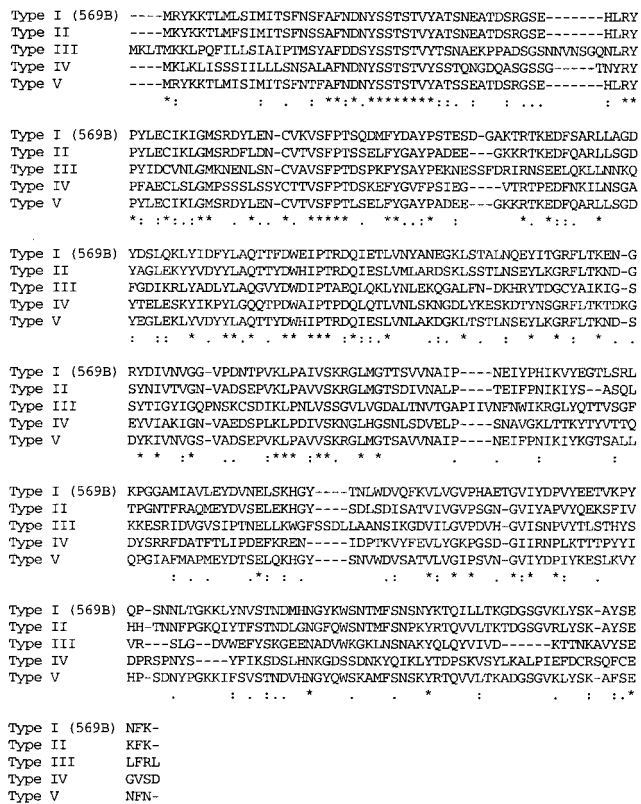


FIG. 5. TcpF alignments generated with clustal W. Types II, III, IV, and V are from environmental isolates as indicated in Table 1 and in Fig. 6. Reference strain 569B (here designated type I) is a classical biotype O1 serogroup epidemic strain (*tcpF* sequence from GenBank accession no. L01623).

from them were $\geq 97\%$ identical to those of canonical epidemic strains in each case. Thus, sequence divergence in the F-T intergenic space in these environmental isolates is probably not associated with major changes in the DNA binding specificity of the TcpP regulatory protein.

Our sequencing of the *tcpE-tcpJ* segment also yielded about 130 to 180 bp in *tcpE*, just upstream of *tcpF*, and another 300 to 400 bp in *tcpJ*, just downstream of *toxT* from each of the four strains analyzed. These flanking sequences were, in each case, $\geq 96\%$ identical to sequences from canonical epidemic strains. This reinforces the view of VPI as a mosaic, containing interspersed regions of conserved and divergent sequence, a feature that is common in temperate phage (20).

TABLE 3. Identities (protein level) among *tcpF* alleles

Type	% Identity with type ^a :				
	II	III	IV	V	I (epidemic)
II	100	33	39	79	66
III		100	33	33	31
IV			100	36	33
V				100	70

^a Identities were inferred from DNA sequences of *tcpF* genes of SCE4 (type II), SCE263 (type III), SCE258 (type IV), and SCE200 (type V). The epidemic (type I) strain used as a reference is 569B.

Insertion in F-T intergenic space. The isolates of RAPD type 2, whose *tcpE-tcpJ* region contained 1 kb of extra DNA, were found to carry an IS903-related element with 98% DNA sequence identity to one that had been found in the *V. cholerae* genome (containing the transposase open reading frame [ORF] VC0501) (19). In our RAPD type 2 isolates, this element was inserted 60 bp downstream of the 3' end of the new *tcpF* allele in an F-T intergenic sequence that was otherwise identical to that in a RAPD type 5 isolate (SCE263). The element was positioned such that if regulatory sites in this segment were arranged as they are in the divergent F-T segment in canonical strains (35), it would separate the binding site for H-NS from those for TcpP and ToxR; its orientation would also allow transcription initiated from upstream genes or the element's transposase promoter to continue into *toxT*. Thus, the inserted element might affect *toxT* expression.

The inserted element found here seems likely to contain a complete transposase gene. The closely related element found outside VPI in the fully sequenced genome of an epidemic strain contained a 10-bp deletion (frameshift) at position 327 in the 921-bp transposase gene (gene VCA0501 in reference 19; coordinates based on our sequence). No inverted repeat structure equivalent to the 18-bp terminal inverted repeats of canonical IS903 (12, 17) was found in either inserted *V. cholerae* element.

Translocation deletion at the left end of VPI. The basis of the unexpectedly large left junction PCR product in isolates of RAPD type 1 noted above (Table 1) was investigated by sequencing this product from isolate SCE4. Inserted in this left-junction DNA was a 1.6-kb segment containing the ORF VCA0577 and much of VCA0578, in place of 300 bp that includes the left junction of VPI with ancestral DNA in canonical *V. cholerae* strains (Fig. 7). Since VPI is in chromosome 1 and these genes lie in chromosome 2 in the fully sequenced *V. cholerae* genome (19), the rearrangement seen in SCE4 probably represents a case of interchromosomal translocation. Comparison of sequences identified a 15-of-17-bp match between chromosomes 1 and 2 at the left end of the translocated segment, but no equivalent match was found at the right end. The VCA0577 and VCA0578 genes are referred to as "function unknown," with no match to other entries in current databases. Thus, this insertion-deletion rearrangement may have resulted from chance recombination in a segment of short homology and/or illegitimate recombination. This translocation might be adaptive (improve the bacterial phenotype) or reflect an evolutionary accident that has not been eliminated by genetic drift or contraselection if deleterious.

CTX ϕ prophage. Cholera toxin genes had been found in five isolates (8) belonging to two RAPD types. Our PCR and hybridization tests indicated that these *ctx* genes were embedded in CTX ϕ -like prophages. DNA segments that may correspond to RS1 prophage fragments, which contains just genes and sites for phage replication, integration, and immunity (Fig. 1), were found in *ctx*-negative isolates of two other RAPD types (Table 1). First, PCR of DNAs from the five *ctx*-positive isolates with primers specific for CTX ϕ prophage genes (*orfU-F* and *ctxB-R*) (Fig. 1) yielded products of about 3.7 kb, which are also obtained using epidemic strains. Second, these five DNAs and also DNAs from two *ctx*-negative isolates (SCE263 and SCE264) were found to hybridize with an RS1 probe, gener-

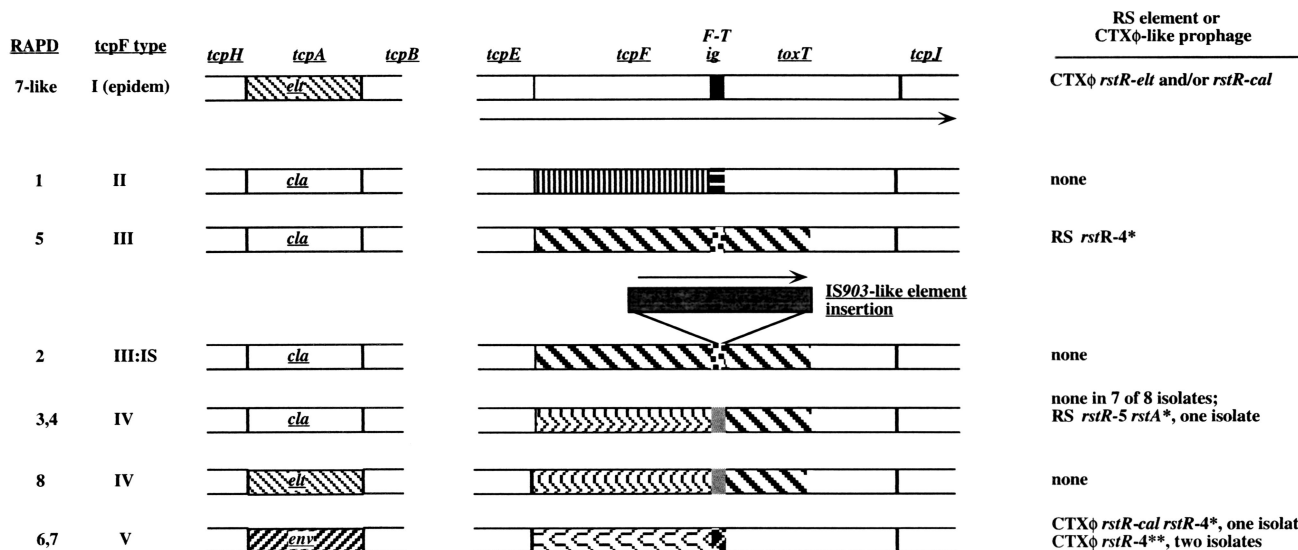


FIG. 6. Allele content of environmental isolates. Each pattern of shading represents a different highly divergent sequence, as shown in Fig. 3, 4, and 5, and described in the text for *tcpA*, *toxT*, and *tcpF* and the F-T intergenic (*ig*) sequence.

ated with primers *ig-I-F* and *rstC-R*. However, none of the *ctx*-negative isolates hybridized with a probe specific for sequences between RS1 and *ctx* (generated with primers *orfU-F* and *ctxB-R*). Third, PCR amplification with primers specific for conserved sequences that flank the *rstR* repressor gene (*ig-I-F* and *rstA-R*) generated products from six of the seven RS1 hybridization-positive isolates (Fig. 8) but not from any of the other 17 isolates studied here. A single 450-bp band was obtained from two isolates (SCE223 [*ctx* positive] and SCE263 [*ctx* negative]); a single 600-bp band was obtained from another isolate (SCE354 [*ctx* positive]), suggesting a different *rstR* allele; and a doublet (450 and 600 bp) was obtained from each of three other isolates (SCE188, SCE200, and SCE201, all *ctx* positive and RAPD type 6). However, no PCR product was obtained with these primers from the seventh RS1 hybridization-positive isolate (SCE264) (Fig. 8A). Fourth, PCR using the more distal *rstC-R* primer along with *ig-I-F* yielded a fragment in the expected size range (2.3 to 2.7 kb) from each of the seven RS1 hybridization-positive isolates (including the anomalous SCE264) (Fig. 8B).

PCR products generated with *ig-I-F* and *rstA-R* or *rstC-R* primers from representative isolates were sequenced, and putative ORF structures were identified (Fig. 9). The 600-bp (larger) fragment from SCE188 was 100% identical in regions of overlap to the sequence of *rstR-cal* (25). This segment, like *rstR*-classical and *rstR*-eltor, was shown by others to have repressor function (11, 26), even though it seemed to contain overlapping ORFs of 59 and 15 codons (6-codon overlap). The sequence of the smaller (450-bp) fragment contained two ORFs (64 and 32 codons; 10-codon overlap) and was a 99% match to that of the corresponding 450 bp from SCE263, a *ctx*-negative isolate. It did not match other sequences in the current GenBank database. Based on position relative to other CTXφ sequences, we suggest that this sequence also encodes a new prophage repressor, and we provisionally designate it *rstR-4**. This sequence was also a 95% match to a 450-bp fragment from SCE223, which, however, contains one continuous ORF of 86 codons [due to one additional T in a poly(T) tract; T₇ in SCE223 and T₆ in SCE188]; we designate this variant sequence *rstR-4***.

The sequence of the PCR product generated from the unusual SCE264 isolate with primers *ig-I-F* and *rstC-R* was a 95% match over 243 bp at one end to canonical *rstC* (GenBank accession no. U83795), which indicated that this PCR product did indeed come from the targeted genomic region and was not spurious. Three other ORFs were also identified in this 2.5-kb PCR product, none of which closely matched known *V. cholerae* genes. Immediately adjacent to *ig-I* (the location of *rstR* repressor genes) was a 67-codon ORF; we designate it *rstR-5* provisionally, based on similarity in position, orientation, and size to other *rstR* genes and an inference that it might also encode a repressor. Between *rstR-5* and *rstC* were one ORF with 34% protein-level identity to ORF320 of filamentous pseudomonal phage IF1 (accession no. AAC62160) followed by an ORF with 43% protein-level identity to gene *V* (single-stranded DNA binding protein) of filamentous coliphages M13

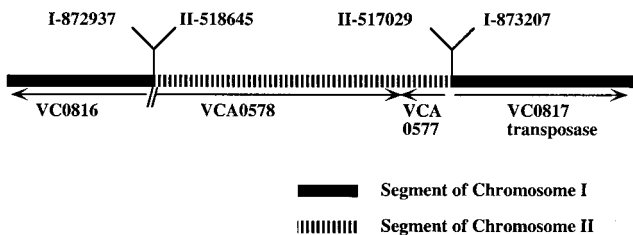


FIG. 7. Left-junction translocation. The insertion-deletion structure found at the left end of VPI in isolates of RAPD type 1 by PCR and sequencing, as described in the text, is shown. VC and VCA designations refer to genes in *V. cholerae* chromosomes 1 and 2, respectively, in a *V. cholerae* reference strain (19). Numbers above the map refer to rearrangement breakpoints, inferred by comparison with the full genome sequence (19).

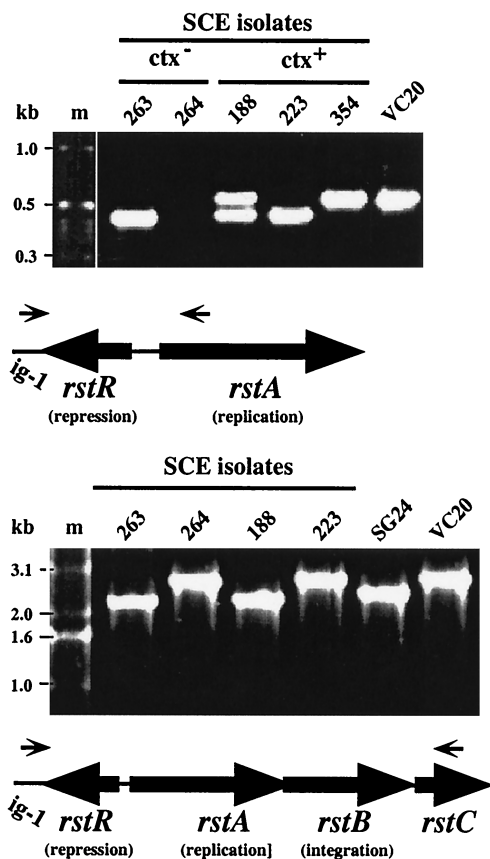


FIG. 8. Representative results of PCR amplification of *rstR* and adjacent regions. Lane designations correspond to SCE isolates, except that VC20 and SG24 designate serogroup O1 El Tor and O139 epidemic strains, respectively, used for reference. (Top) Amplification with primers *ig-1-F* (specific for conserved sequence in the CTX ϕ intergenic region, just to the left of *rstR*) and *rstA-R*. Note that no amplification product was obtained from SCE264 with these primers and that SCE188 yielded two different products, indicating that it is a double lysogen. (Bottom) Amplification with primers *ig-1-F* and *rstC-R*. Note that an amplification product was obtained from SCE264 with these primers.

and f1 (accession no. AAA32219.1); these were provisionally designated *rstA-264* and *rstB-264*, respectively, based on their positions. ORF320 and gene *V* are each involved in DNA replication. Whether their homologs in SCE264 also mediate CTX ϕ prophage replication and integration, as do *rstA* and *rstB* of canonical CTX ϕ prophages, is uncertain, especially because SCE264 seems to contain only this fragment of a prophage genome, not an intact CTX ϕ -related prophage.

DISCUSSION

The present study of 24 Calcutta-region environmental isolates of *V. cholerae*, chosen initially because of their unusual combination of *tcpA* (pilin) or *ctx* (cholera toxin) gene sequences and O antigens, gives an intriguing glimpse into microbial genetic diversity. Although the strains were of just eight RAPD fingerprint types, six major variants of the VPI pathogenicity island and several different CTX ϕ prophages or related RS1-type sequences were found in them. In retrospect,

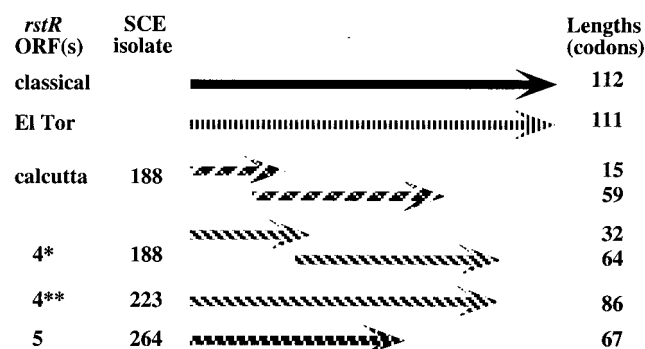


FIG. 9. ORF structures of putative repressor genes (*rstR* regions) of CTX ϕ -related prophages inferred from sequences of PCR products. These two new sequences are designated as the fourth and fifth members of a family of CTX ϕ -related prophage repressor genes and are therefore designated *rstR-4* and *rstR-5*, pending tests for repressor function.

the initial screen (for *tcpA* and *ctx*) (8) was rather limited: many more types of VPI and CTX ϕ elements will probably be found when the screen is repeated using additional, perhaps more highly conserved, genes from these elements. Based on current data, however, it is clear that VPI and CTX ϕ are mosaics, consisting of blocks of sequence that match those in epidemic strains, adjacent to sequences that had not been seen previously. The boundaries between most such segments coincide with ends of genes or of functional domains, a pattern reminiscent of that in lambdoid phage (20). Such mosaicism implies a history of genetic exchange among these elements and among the *V. cholerae* strains that carry them.

Each of the five isolates that carried *ctx* genes also contained a new *tcpA* allele (*tcpA-env*) (Table 1; Fig. 3). The pilin protein that it encodes differs from that of classical strains at 22% of positions, including 8 of 17 that had been tested by mutation and identified as functionally important (27). Assuming this pilin to be functional, each of its potentially deleterious motifs is probably compensated by other amino acid motifs that also distinguish this pilin from that of classical biotype strains.

Individual TcpA pilin proteins assume a two-domain ladle-like structure, with many copies assembled like overlapping shingles in the mature bacterial pilus (5, 27). The amino-terminal one-third ("handle") of each is buried within the pilus, and the carboxy-terminal two-thirds ("blade") is exposed (5). Most divergence among various TcpA proteins and related pilins is found in this carboxy-terminal domain (Fig. 3) (5), suggesting that much of this diversity may be adaptive. The diversity might reflect, for example, natural selection for (i) immune evasion during infection, (ii) phage susceptibility or resistance in the environment, (iii) efficient aggregation in humans or the environment, (iv) adherence to aquatic hosts or abiotic sites, and/or (v) efficiency in other steps in biofilm formation (5, 27, 49).

Isolates of five RAPD types contained a new mosaic allele of *toxT*, a gene encoding an AraC-type regulatory protein that stimulates transcription of several virulence-associated gene clusters and that helps coordinate bacterial responses to external stimuli (10, 15). The divergence between the new and canonical ToxT proteins is almost exclusively in their amino-

terminal halves (Fig. 4), the domain that, by extrapolation from AraC (42), might bind particular metabolites and/or regulatory proteins. It is attractive to imagine that this new ToxT protein helps mediate responses to intracellular signals and environmental stimuli that are distinct from those to which canonical ToxT responds and that this new *toxT* allele thereby contributes to colonization of particular hosts or abiotic niches.

Four new alleles of an extended regulatory sequence between *tcpF* and *toxT* were found. In epidemic strains this F-T sequence contains binding sites for TcpP and ToxR, which each stimulate *toxT* transcription, and also for H-NS, a protein that diminishes *toxT* transcription (35, 52). The interplay of these factors (whose own abundance or activity may vary with physiologic state) affects the level of *toxT* expression and thereby the expression of many genes in response to external conditions. The four new F-T intergenic sequences found here differ markedly from those of epidemic strains, and direct tests will be needed to learn which regulatory factors act on them. Whether the IS element in one of these F-T sequences affects *toxT* transcription is also not known.

Four new alleles of *tcpF* were found, none closely related to *tcpF* of epidemic strains (Fig. 5 and 6; Tables 1 and 3). Although TcpF is a secreted protein and needed for virulence in epidemic strains, its exact role is not understood (Taylor, personal communication). It is tempting to imagine, however, that each variant TcpF protein found here is also functional and that it might contribute to bacterial survival or growth in particular environmental niches.

The finding of *ctx* genes in environmental isolates raises the possibility that this toxin contributes to *V. cholerae* growth in certain environmental niches. The *ctx* genes were embedded in CTX prophages that were also distinct from those of epidemic strains. Since the lysogens we found also contained a new *tcpA-env* allele, and canonical CTX ϕ uses TCP as receptors, the new CTX ϕ might infect via other structures and enjoy a host range distinct from that of the canonical phage. Several isolates seemed to contain only a fragment of CTX ϕ , probably equivalent to the 2-kb RS1 element that is found next to full-length (~7-kb) CTX ϕ prophages in epidemic strains. The finding of an RS1 element in only one isolate of RAPD type 4 suggests interstrain transfer of an RS1-containing DNA segment or its empty site, or the insertion or excision of RS1 as an autonomous element.

Three putative *rstR* prophage repressor genes were found: one identical to *rstR*-calcutta, which was present along with *rstR*-eltor in a recent O139 strain (11, 25), and two others, designated *rstR*-4 and *rstR*-5. These new *rstR* segments are inferred to also encode prophage repressors, based on similarities in position, orientation, and gene size to other well-documented *rstR* repressor genes (26) and on the general conservation of arrangements of functionally equivalent genes in divergent phage genomes (20). Given such conservation, perhaps the new genes between *rstR*-5 and *rstC* in strain SCE264 also function in replication and integration. Among *rstR* reading frames, most seem either to be very short or interrupted by frameshift mutations (Fig. 9) (25, 26). The possible occurrence of translational frameshifting in this locus and its possible importance (13, 41) have not been tested.

In conclusion, these studies of the VPI pathogenicity islands and CTX ϕ prophages reinforce a sense that *V. cholerae* is

extremely diverse genetically. We suggest that the VPI and CTX ϕ elements, certain of which are important during *V. cholerae* human infection, can also benefit the bacterium in certain other hosts or abiotic sites. The relatively few *V. cholerae* strains that cause epidemic cholera may have been created by gene transfers that linked genes that facilitate transmission in human populations with those fostering persistence and proliferation in nearby environmental niches. The specialized CTX ϕ and VPI elements that figure importantly in this scenario are themselves mosaics of genes from different sources. The potential for scrambling of functional modules within these elements and their transmission between strains may also speed bacterial adaptation to diverse or inconstant environments and contribute to the emergence of new, highly virulent strains of *V. cholerae* in at-risk human societies.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We are indebted to Ron Taylor and Matt Waldor for stimulating discussions and to T. Shimada and A. K. Siddiqui for permission to cite unpublished results.

This research was supported by grants from the Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA/NICED Project O54-1061-E-O) at NICED, Calcutta; from the Department of Biotechnology, Government of India (no. BT/MB/VAP/3/2/98); and from the U.S. Public Health Service (AI38166, AI49161, DK53727, and P30 DK52574).

REFERENCES

- Akopyanz, N., N. O. Bukanov, T. U. Westblom, S. Kresovich, and D. E. Berg. 1992. DNA diversity among clinical isolates of *Helicobacter pylori* detected by PCR-based RAPD fingerprinting. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **20**:5137-5142.
- Basu, A., A. K. Mukhopadhyay, C. Sharma, J. Jyot, N. Gupta, A. Ghosh, S. K. Bhattacharya, Y. Takeda, A. S. G. Faruque, M. J. Albert, and G. B. Nair. 1998. Heterogeneity in the organization of the CTX genetic element in strains of *Vibrio cholerae* O139 Bengal isolated from Calcutta, India and Dhaka, Bangladesh and its possible link to the dissimilar incidence of O139 cholera in the two locales. *Microb. Pathog.* **24**:175-183.
- Beltran, P., G. Delgado, A. Navarro, F. Trujillo, R. K. Selander, and A. Cravioto. 1999. Genetic diversity and population structure of *Vibrio cholerae*. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* **37**:581-590.
- Bik, E. M., A. E. Bunschoten, R. D. Gouw, and F. R. Mooi. 1995. Genesis of the novel epidemic *Vibrio cholerae* O139 strain: evidence for horizontal transfer of genes involved in polysaccharide synthesis. *EMBO J.* **14**:209-216.
- Blank, T. E., H. Zhong, A. L. Bell, T. S. Whittam, and M. S. Donnenberg. 2000. Molecular variation among type IV pilin (*bfpA*) genes from diverse enteropathogenic *Escherichia coli* strains. *Infect. Immun.* **68**:7028-7038.
- Byun, R., L. D. Elbourne, R. Lan, and P. R. Reeves. 1999. Evolutionary relationships of pathogenic clones of *Vibrio cholerae* by sequence analysis of four housekeeping genes. *Infect. Immun.* **67**:1116-1124.
- Carroll, P. A., K. T. Tashima, M. B. Rogers, V. J. DiRita, and S. B. Calderwood. 1997. Phase variation in *tcpH* modulates expression of the ToxR regulon of *Vibrio cholerae*. *Mol. Microbiol.* **25**:1099-1111.
- Chakraborty, S., A. K. Mukhopadhyay, R. K. Bhadra, A. N. Ghosh, R. Mitra, T. Shimada, S. Yamasaki, S. M. Faruque, Y. Takeda, R. R. Colwell, and G. B. Nair. 2000. Virulence genes in environmental strains of *Vibrio cholerae*. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **66**:4022-4028.
- Colwell, R. R. 1996. Global climate and infectious disease: the cholera paradigm. *Science* **274**:2025-2031.
- Cotter, P. A., and V. J. DiRita. 2000. Bacterial virulence gene regulation: an evolutionary perspective. *Annu. Rev. Microbiol.* **54**:519-526.
- Davis, B. M., H. H. Kimsey, W. Chang, and M. K. Waldor. 1999. The *Vibrio cholerae* O139 Calcutta bacteriophage CTX ϕ is infectious and encodes a novel repressor. *J. Bacteriol.* **181**:6779-6787.
- Derbyshire, K. M., L. Hwang, and N. D. Grindley. 1987. Genetic analysis of the interaction of the insertion sequence IS903 transposase with its terminal inverted repeats. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **84**:8049-8053.
- Farabaugh, P. J. 2000. Translational frameshifting: implications for the mechanism of translational frame maintenance. *Prog. Nucleic Acid Res. Mol. Biol.* **64**:131-170.
- Faruque, S. M., Asadulghani, M. M. Rahman, M. K. Waldor, and D. A. Sack. 2000. Sunlight-induced propagation of the lysogenic phage encoding cholera toxin. *Infect. Immun.* **68**:4795-4801.
- Faruque, S. M., M. J. Albert, and J. J. Mekalanos. 1998. Epidemiology, genetics, and ecology of toxigenic *Vibrio cholerae*. *Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev.* **62**:1301-1314.

16. Garg, P., T. Ramamurthy, A. Ghosh, S. K. Bhattacharya, Y. Takeda, and G. B. Nair. 1998. Molecular shifts within clonal populations of *Vibrio cholerae* O1 and O139 and its impact on the persistence and spread of cholera, p. 43–49. In S. Gupta and O. P. Sood (ed.), *Molecular intervention in diseases*. Yogesh Prakashan, New Delhi, India.
17. Grindley, N. D., and C. M. Joyce. 1980. Genetic and DNA sequence analysis of the kanamycin resistance transposon Tn903. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **77**:7176–7180.
18. Hase, C. C., and J. J. Mekalanos. 1998. TcpP protein is a positive regulator of virulence gene expression in *Vibrio cholerae*. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **95**:730–734.
19. Heidelberg, J. F., J. A. Eisen, W. C. Nelson, R. A. Clayton, M. L. Gwinn, R. J. Dodson, D. H. Haft, E. K. Hickey, J. D. Peterson, L. Umayam, S. R. Gill, K. E. Nelson, T. D. Read, H. Tettelin, D. Richardson, M. D. Ermolaeva, J. Vamathevan, S. Bass, H. Qin, I. Dragoi, P. Sellers, L. McDonald, T. Utterback, R. D. Fleishmann, W. C. Nierman, and O. White. 2000. DNA sequence of both chromosomes of the cholera pathogen *Vibrio cholerae*. *Nature* **406**:477–483.
20. Juhala, R. J., M. E. Ford, R. L. Duda, A. Youlton, G. F. Hatfull, and R. W. Hendrix. 2000. Genomic sequences of bacteriophages HK97 and HK022: pervasive genetic mosaicism in the lambdaoid bacteriophages. *J. Mol. Biol.* **299**:27–51.
21. Kaper, J. B., J. G. Morris, Jr., and M. M. Levine. 1995. Cholera. *Clin. Microbiol. Rev.* **8**:48–86.
22. Karaolis, D. K., R. Lan, and P. R. Reeves. 1995. The sixth and seventh cholera pandemics are due to independent clones separately derived from environmental, nontoxicogenic, non-O1 *Vibrio cholerae*. *J. Bacteriol.* **177**:3191–3198.
23. Karaolis, D. K. R., J. A. Johnson, C. C. Bailey, E. C. Boedeker, J. B. Kaper, and P. R. Reeves. 1998. A *Vibrio cholerae* pathogenicity island associated with epidemic and pandemic strains. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **95**:3134–3139.
24. Karaolis, D. K. R., S. Somara, D. R. Maneval, Jr., J. A. Johnson, and J. B. Kaper. 1999. A bacteriophage encoding a pathogenicity island, a type-IV pilus and a phage receptor in cholera bacteria. *Nature* **399**:375–379.
25. Kimsey, H., G. B. Nair, A. Ghosh, and M. K. Waldor. 1998. Diverse CTX ϕ s and evolution of new pathogenic *Vibrio cholerae*. *Lancet* **353**:457–458.
26. Kimsey, H. H., and M. K. Waldor. 1998. CTX ϕ immunity: application in the development of cholera vaccines. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **95**:7035–7039.
27. Kirn, T. J., M. J. Lafferty, C. M. Sandoe, and R. K. Taylor. 2000. Delineation of pilin domains required for bacterial association into microcolonies and intestinal colonization by *Vibrio cholerae*. *Mol. Microbiol.* **35**:896–910.
28. Krukonis, E. S., R. R. Yu, and V. J. DiRita. 2000. The *Vibrio cholerae* ToxR/TcpP/ToxT virulence cascade: distinct roles for two membrane-localized transcriptional activators on a single promoter. *Mol. Microbiol.* **38**:67–84.
29. Lobitz, B., L. Beck, L. A. Huq, B. Wood, G. Fuchs, A. S. Faruque, and R. R. Colwell. 2000. Climate and infectious disease: use of remote sensing for detection of *Vibrio cholerae* by indirect measurement. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **97**:1438–1443.
30. Morris, J. G., Jr. 1990. Non-O group 1 *Vibrio cholerae*: a look at the epidemiology of an occasional pathogen. *Epidemiol. Rev.* **12**:179–191.
31. Nair, G. B., B. L. Sarkar, S. P. De, M. K. Chakraborti, R. K. Bhadra, and S. C. Pal. 1988. Ecology of *Vibrio cholerae* in the freshwater environs of Calcutta, India. *Microb. Ecol.* **15**:203–216.
32. Nair, G. B., Y. Oku, Y. Takeda, A. Ghosh, R. K. Ghosh, S. Chattopadhyay, S. C. Pal, J. B. Kaper, and T. Takeda. 1988. Toxin profiles of *Vibrio cholerae* non-O1 from environmental sources in Calcutta, India. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **54**:3180–3182.
33. Nandi, B., R. K. Nandy, A. C. Vicente, and A. C. Ghosh. 2000. Molecular characterization of a new variant of toxin-coregulated pilus protein (TcpA) in a toxigenic non-O1/non-O139 strain of *Vibrio cholerae*. *Infect. Immun.* **68**:948–952.
34. Novais, R. C., A. Coelho, C. A. Salles, and A. C. P. Vicente. 1999. Toxin co-regulated pilus cluster in non-O1, non-toxicogenic *Vibrio cholerae*: evidence of a third allele of pilin gene. *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.* **171**:49–55.
35. Nye, M. B., J. D. Pfau, K. Skorupski, and R. K. Taylor. 2000. *Vibrio cholerae* H-NS silences virulence gene expression at multiple steps in the ToxR regulatory cascade. *J. Bacteriol.* **182**:4295–4303.
36. Ogierman, M. A., S. Zabihi, L. Mourtziros, and P. A. Manning. 1993. Genetic organization and sequence of the promoter-distal region of the *tcp* gene cluster of *Vibrio cholerae*. *Gene* **126**:51–60.
37. Ramamurthy, T., P. K. Bag, A. Pal, S. K. Bhattacharya, M. K. Bhattacharya, D. Sen, T. Shimada, T. Takeda, Y. Takeda, and G. B. Nair. 1993. Virulence patterns of *Vibrio cholerae* non-O1 strains isolated from hospitalised patients with acute diarrhoea in Calcutta, India. *J. Med. Microbiol.* **39**:310–317.
38. Ramamurthy, T., S. Garg, R. Sharma, S. K. Bhattacharya, G. B. Nair, T. Shimada, T. Takeda, T. Karasawa, H. Kurazano, A. Pal, and Y. Takeda. 1993. Emergence of novel strain of *Vibrio cholerae* with epidemic potential in southern and eastern India. *Lancet* **341**:703–704.
39. Rhine, J. A., and R. K. Taylor. 1994. TcpA pilin sequences and colonization requirements for O1 and O139 *Vibrio cholerae*. *Mol. Microbiol.* **13**:1013–1020.
40. Samadi, A. R., N. Shahid, A. Eusuf, M. Yunus, M. I. Huq, M. U. Khan, A. S. M. M. Rahman, and A. S. G. Faruque. 1983. Classical *Vibrio cholerae* biotype displaces El Tor in Bangladesh. *Lancet* **i**:805–807.
41. Sekine, Y., and E. Ohtsubo. 1989. Frameshifting is required for production of the transposase encoded by insertion sequence 1. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **86**:4609–4613.
42. Soisson, S. M., B. MacDougall-Shackleton, R. Schleif, and C. Wolberger. 1997. The 1.6 Å crystal structure of the AraC sugar-binding and dimerization domain complexed with D-fucose. *J. Mol. Biol.* **273**:226–237.
43. Sozhamannan, S., Y. K. Deng, M. Li, A. Sulakvelidze, J. B. Kaper, J. A. Johnson, G. B. Nair, and J. G. Morris, Jr. 1999. Cloning and sequencing of the genes downstream of the *wbf* gene cluster of *Vibrio cholerae* serogroup O139 and analysis of the junction genes in other serogroups. *Infect. Immun.* **67**:5033–5040.
44. Speelman, E. C., W. Checkley, W., R. H. Gilman, J. Patz, M. Calderon, and S. Manga. 2000. Cholera incidence and El Nino-related higher ambient temperature. *JAMA* **283**:3072–3074.
45. Stine, O. C., S. Sozhamannan, Q. Gou, S. Zheng, J. G. Morris, Jr., and J. A. Johnson. 2000. Phylogeny of *Vibrio cholerae* based on *recA* sequence. *Infect. Immun.* **68**:7180–7185.
46. Tauxe, T., L. Seminario, R. Rapia, and M. Libel. 1994. The Latin American epidemic, p. 321–344. In K. Wachsmuth, P. A. Blake, and O. Olsvik (ed.), *Vibrio cholerae* and cholera: molecular to global perspectives. ASM Press, Washington, D.C.
47. Waldor, M. K., and J. J. Mekalanos. 1994. *toxR* regulates virulence gene expression in non-O1 strains of *Vibrio cholerae* that cause epidemic cholera. *Infect. Immun.* **62**:72–78.
48. Waldor, M. K., and J. J. Mekalanos. 1996. Lysogenic conversion by a filamentous phage encoding cholera toxin. *Science* **272**:1910–1914.
49. Watnick, P., and R. Kolter. 2000. Biofilm, city of microbes. *J. Bacteriol.* **182**:2675–2679.
50. Yamai, S., T. Okitsu, T. Shimada, and Y. Katsube. 1997. Distribution of serogroups of *Vibrio cholerae* non-O1 non-O139 with specific reference to their ability to produce cholera toxin and additional of novel serogroups. *Jpn. J. Assoc. Infect. Dis.* **71**:1037–1045.
51. Yamasaki, S., T. Shimizu, K. Hoshino, S. T. Ho, T. Shimada, G. B. Nair, and Y. Takeda. 1999. The genes responsible for O-antigen synthesis of *Vibrio cholerae* O139 are closely related to those of *Vibrio cholerae* O22. *Gene* **237**:321–332.
52. Yu, R. R., and V. J. DiRita. 1999. Analysis of an autoregulatory loop controlling ToxT, cholera toxin, and toxin-coregulated pilus production in *Vibrio cholerae*. *J. Bacteriol.* **181**:2584–2592.