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## A Glycine Betaine Importer Limits *Salmonella* Stress Resistance and Tissue Colonization by Reducing Trehalose Production

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### SUMMARY

Mechanisms by which *Salmonella* establish chronic infections are not well understood. Microbes respond to stress by importing or producing compatible solutes, small molecules that stabilize proteins and lipids. The *Salmonella* locus *opuABCD* (also called OpuC) encodes a predicted importer of the compatible solute glycine betaine. Under stress conditions, if glycine betaine cannot be imported, *S. enterica* produce the disaccharide trehalose, a highly effective compatible solute. We demonstrate that strains lacking *opuABCD* accumulate more trehalose under stress conditions than wild-type strains.  $\Delta$ *opuABCD* mutant strains are more resistant to high salt, low pH and hydrogen peroxide, conditions that mimic aspects of innate immunity, in a trehalose-dependent manner. In addition,  $\Delta$ *opuABCD* mutant strains require the trehalose production genes to out-compete wild-type strains in mice and macrophages. These data suggest that in the absence of *opuABCD*, trehalose accumulation increases bacterial resistance to stress in broth and mice. Thus, *opuABCD* reduces bacterial colonization via a mechanism that limits trehalose production. Mechanisms by which microbes limit disease may reveal novel pathways as therapeutic targets.

### Keywords

*Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium; antivirulence; innate immunity; *otsA*; *otsB*

### INTRODUCTION

The Gram-negative bacterium *Salmonella enterica* can be transmitted to naive hosts in contaminated water or food. To cause systemic infection, the bacteria cross the intestinal epithelium and reside in the liver, spleen and lymph nodes inside of professional phagocytes, particularly macrophages. *S. enterica* serovars Typhi and Paratyphi A–C cause human typhoid fever, a systemic acute infection that resolves into subacute chronic infection in approximately 4% of patients (Parry et al., 2002). Prior to the use of antibiotics, approximately 5–20% of typhoid patients died within two to three weeks of infection, but most people began to convalesce within four weeks (Osler, 1892). Today, the increasing prevalence of multi-drug resistant *Salmonellae* is significant cause for concern (Cooke and Wain, 2004).

In the wild and in the laboratory, mice infected with *S. enterica* serovar Typhimurium develop a natural, systemic typhoid-like disease, in which acute infections become persistent and generally asymptomatic (Tsolis et al., 1999). *S. Typhimurium* reside within macrophages in mice, which contain the bacteria in vesicles and restrict *S. Typhimurium*

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replication (Fortier et al., 2005). Macrophage vesicles are a challenging microenvironment for *S. Typhimurium* because they are at low pH and contain oxidative radicals, antimicrobial peptides, and limiting levels of nutrients (Knodler and Steele-Mortimer, 2003). For example, *S. Typhimurium* access to iron is restricted by Nramp1 (Slc11a1), which transports iron from pathogen-containing vesicles to the cytosol (Nairz et al., 2009; Blackwell et al., 2003; Fritsche et al., 2008).

*S. Typhimurium* adapts to stresses encountered within macrophage vesicles using a variety of strategies. Resistance to antimicrobial peptides is mediated, for instance, by chemical modifications to lipopolysaccharide (Gunn, 2008). Saccharide deprivation stimulates utilization of host fatty acids as a carbon source, as inferred from the requirement for the glyoxylate bypass pathway during persistent infection (Fang et al., 2005). More general responses to stress include the import or production of compatible solutes, low molecular weight, highly soluble organic molecules that maintain fluid balance in the cell and protect proteins and lipids from denaturation (Luzardo et al., 2000; Hinch and Hagemann, 2004). Compatible solutes help cells acclimate to changes in osmolarity, pH and temperature, stressors encountered by *S. Typhimurium* during infection. Two major compatible solutes imported by *S. Typhimurium* are glycine betaine and proline, but only glycine betaine, an N-trimethylated amino acid, is present at physiologic concentrations in host tissues (Lever et al., 1994). A third major compatible solute is trehalose, a disaccharide consisting of two glucose monomers produced by microbes, plants and invertebrates, but not mammals (Richards et al., 2002). Trehalose is a particularly effective stress protectant but is not needed for acute *S. Typhimurium* infection in mice lacking the Nramp1 cation transporter (Fang et al., 1996; Howells et al., 2002).

Systemic *S. enterica* has been described as a “stealth pathogen”, which remains under the radar of the vertebrate immune system (Tsolis et al., 2008). Only four to five bacterial rods are typically found within each macrophage in mouse tissues, suggesting the bacteria replicate only two to three times within a given macrophage (Sheppard et al., 2003; Nix et al., 2007). Thus, *S. enterica* may have evolved to limit replication within tissues to minimize host damage and/or the intensity of the inflammatory response. Consistent with this hypothesis, *S. Typhimurium* genes that limit bacterial pathogenicity have been discovered based on hypervirulence phenotypes of strains with loss-of-function mutations (Ho and Slauch, 2001). Phenotypes of hypervirulence include reduced lethal or infectious dose, colonization advantages, and decreased survival time of the host (Foreman-Wykert and Miller, 2003; Gal-Mor et al., 2008; Baek et al., 2009). Multiple examples of microbial loci that limit virulence, also called “antivirulence” loci, are known in *S. Typhimurium* and other persistent pathogens. However, direct mechanisms by which they curtail infection have not yet been described. How microbial genes limit disease is important to establish because they have the potential to suggest novel avenues for treatment. In this study, we demonstrate that the *S. Typhimurium* OpuABCD glycine betaine transport system limits virulence via a mechanism that reduces trehalose production.

## RESULTS

### **opuABCD is a putative *Salmonella enterica* glycine-betaine importer**

The RcsBCD (Regulation of capsule synthesis) sensor-kinase signaling system is important for virulence in murine models of acute and chronic infection (Detweiler et al., 2003; Domínguez-Bernal et al., 2004). A previous study used DNA microarrays to identify genes potentially regulated by RcsBCD, including STM1491 and STM1492 (Erickson and Detweiler, 2006). STM1491 and STM1492 are part of a four-gene putative operon that has significant homology to Osmoprotectant uptake locus C (OpuC), within Gram-negative and -positive bacteria. The four genes, STM1491-4, encode a putative ATPase, two permeases,

and a periplasmic binding protein, each with 42–63% amino acid identity over the entire length of the corresponding protein to *Pseudomonas syringae* OpuABCD (Figure 1A). The *P. syringae* and *Bacillus subtilis* OpuABCD loci are demonstrated high affinity glycine betaine importers (Kappes et al., 1996, 1999; Chen and Beattie, 2007). In *P. syringae*, OpuABCD is the primary transporter for glycine betaine under high osmolarity (Chen and Beattie, 2007). In addition, the OpuA ATPases, including STM1491, are characterized by tandem cystathionine- $\beta$ -synthase (CBS) domains, which are required for and predictive of functional osmoregulatory transport (Figure 1B) (Chen and Beattie, 2007; Biemans-Oldehinkel et al., 2006). These observations support designation of STM1491-4 as *opuA-D*.

### **$\Delta$ opuA-D mutants are resistant to salt stress**

In *E. coli* and *S. enterica*, the compatible solute trehalose is produced under conditions of stress if glycine betaine is unavailable or cannot be imported (Cayley et al., 1992; Larsen et al., 1987). Since trehalose is a more effective compatible solute than glycine betaine (Hinch and Hagemann, 2004), strains lacking the *opuA-D* locus may have increased resistance to high salt. In M9 with 0.4 M sodium chloride, the  $\Delta$ *opuA-D* mutant strain grew more rapidly than wild-type and by 17 hours, had attained an OD<sub>600</sub> of 1.8 compared to only 1.5 ( $P < 0.01$ ), respectively (Figure 2A). Plating for colony forming units (CFU) confirmed the observed differences in optical density, and examination of cell shape and size by microscopy revealed no distinctions (data not shown). In control experiments, there were no apparent differences in growth between wild-type and  $\Delta$ *opuA-D* mutants in nutrient rich (LB) (data not shown) and poor (M9 minimal) media at 37°C (Figure 2B). To establish whether  $\Delta$ *opuA-D* mutants are resistant to sucrose, another distinct osmotic stress, bacteria were grown in nutrient poor media with 0.5 M sucrose, an osmolarity equivalent to that of 0.4 M sodium chloride. No differences in growth between mutant and wild-type strains were observed (Figure 2C). This observation indicates that salt and sucrose elicit distinct responses in not only wild-type (Botsford et al., 1994) but also in  $\Delta$ *opuA-D* mutant strains. *S. Typhimurium* responds differently to osmotic stress caused by sucrose as compared to sodium chloride in that sucrose exposure elicits glutamate accumulation at a lower osmolarity than salt (Botsford et al., 1994). Collectively the data suggest that *S. enterica* strains lacking *opuA-D* respond to salt stress in a specific manner that potentially reflects differential gene regulation.

### **Resistance of $\Delta$ opuA-D mutants to salt requires trehalose-production genes**

Trehalose generation in *S. Typhimurium* and *E. coli* requires the osmoregulated trehalose synthesis (*ots*) operon encoding *otsB* and *otsA*, and involves the transfer of glucose from UDP-glucose to glucose-6-phosphate to yield trehalose-6-phosphate (Cánovas et al., 2001; Giaever et al., 1988). To establish whether the salt-resistance phenotype of  $\Delta$ *opuA-D* mutants requires the *otsBA* trehalose production operon,  $\Delta$ *otsBA* mutant strains were constructed. As expected, the trehalose production operon is required for normal growth in 0.4 M NaCl (Figure 2A). In addition, deletion of *otsBA* eliminated the growth advantage of  $\Delta$ *opuA-D* mutant strains and reduced growth rates to below that of wild-type. Complementation of the  $\Delta$ *opuA-D*,  $\Delta$ *otsBA* double mutant with *otsBA* under the endogenous promoter on a mid-copy plasmid (*potsBA*) restored salt-resistance (Figure 2D). In addition, the plasmid containing *otsBA* increased the growth rates of all strains, including wild-type. These observations demonstrate that *otsBA* is necessary and sufficient for the phenotype of increased salt-resistance in  $\Delta$ *opuA-D* mutant strains.

### **Under stress, $\Delta$ opuA-D mutants accumulate more trehalose than wild-type strains**

Under stress, improved *E. coli* growth results from small increases, as little as 3%, in trehalose accumulation (Mahmud et al., 2009; McDougall et al., 1993). To establish whether trehalose accumulates in strains lacking the *opu* locus, bacteria were grown with 0.01 M or

0.4 M sodium chloride without glycine betaine. Standard methods for measuring trehalose accumulation involve quantifying glucose as a proxy for trehalose (Nigam, 2007; Cánovas et al., 2001). Saccharides were extracted under conditions in which trehalose is hydrolyzed to glucose (Whistler and Wolfrom, 1980), resolved by thin layer chromatography (TLC) and stained with potassium permanganate (Figure 3A and 4A). Glucose levels were also analyzed by densitometry (Figure 3B and 4B). Background levels of glucose were observed in all strains grown in 0.01 M sodium chloride (Figure 3A, B, lanes 12–15) (Record et al., 1998). Wild-type strains had significant levels of glucose, as expected (Figure 3A and 4A, lane 8), but the  $\Delta opuA-D$  mutant had 12% more glucose than the wild-type strain (Figure 3B). Glucose accumulation in all strain backgrounds required an intact *otsBA* locus. Thus,  $\Delta opuA-D$  mutant strains exposed to salt stress produce more trehalose than their wild-type counterparts.

Quantification of glucose using a different method yielded similar results (Figure 3C and 4C). Briefly, glucose was converted to 6-phosphogluconate, the by-product NADH was quantified spectrophotometrically, and trehalose levels were calculated after subtracting background levels of glucose observed in the  $\Delta otsBA$  strain (Cánovas et al., 2001). There were  $1.7 \times 10^{-15}$  moles of trehalose per wild-type cell, consistent with levels observed previously in bacteria exposed to salt stress (Table 1). The  $\Delta opuA-D$  mutant strain accumulated 15% more trehalose per cell than the wild-type strain (Figure 3D). An intact *otsBA* locus was required for trehalose accumulation in  $\Delta opuA-D$  mutants and in all strains examined in both low and high salt. Complementation of  $\Delta otsBA$  with *otsBA* expressed from a plasmid restored trehalose production (Figure 4D), although the presence of the plasmid pRB3-273c reduced glucose accumulation in all strains by approximately one third (Figure 4). In conclusion, two different methods demonstrate *otsBA*-dependent accumulation of similar levels of trehalose in *S. Typhimurium*  $\Delta opuA-D$  mutant strains exposed to stress.

#### **$\Delta opuA-D$ mutants are resistant to low pH in an *otsBA*-dependent manner**

Trehalose confers microbial resistance to low physiological pH (Carvalho et al., 2011). Upon oral inoculation, *Salmonellae* encounter low pH in the stomach and again in macrophage vesicles after traversing the gut lumen (Knodler and Steele-Mortimer, 2003; McConnell et al., 2008). To establish whether deletion of *opuA-D* increases *S. Typhimurium* resistance to low pH, equivalent numbers of wild-type and mutant bacteria were inoculated separately into pH 5.0 M9 and grown overnight at 37°C. As anticipated, the bacteria became saturated for growth at a lower OD<sub>600</sub> (<0.4) than at neutral pH (Stokes and Bayne, 1957; Huhtanen, 1975; Russell and Dombrowski, 1980). Nevertheless, the  $\Delta opuA-D$  mutant strain grew faster than the wild-type strain and the  $\Delta opuA-D$ ,  $\Delta otsBA$  double mutant lagged behind the wild-type strain (Figure 5A). Thus, the phenotype of enhanced resistance to low pH observed in  $\Delta opuA-D$  mutants requires the *otsBA* locus. Complementation of the  $\Delta opuA-D$ ,  $\Delta otsBA$  double mutant with *otsBA* on a plasmid restored growth at low pH (Figure 5B). Indeed, all strains carrying the complementing plasmid grew better than corresponding strains caring only the vector, suggesting that increased trehalose is sufficient to confer resistance to low pH. Overall, the data show that  $\Delta opuA-D$  mutants have increased resistance to low pH that is dependent upon *otsBA*.

#### **$\Delta opuA-D$ mutants are resistant to hydrogen peroxide in an *otsBA*-dependent manner**

Trehalose production protects microbes from oxidative stress, including exposure to hydrogen peroxide, which forms in macrophage phagosomes upon *S. Typhimurium* infection (Alvarez-Peral et al., 2002). To determine whether  $\Delta opuA-D$  strains have increased resistance to hydrogen peroxide in liquid culture, equivalent numbers of mutant and wild-type bacteria were exposed to 10 mM hydrogen peroxide, a lethal concentration, in M9 broth for 90-minutes. Bacteria were periodically removed and plated on LB agar to allow for

enumeration of CFU (Figure 6A). Though viability decreased for all strains,  $\Delta opuA-D$  had prolonged survival compared to wild-type ( $P < 0.001$ ). Survival of  $\Delta opuA-D$  mutants in hydrogen peroxide also required an intact *otsBA* locus indicating a role for trehalose production in resistance to oxidative stress.

To establish whether  $\Delta opuA-D$  mutants grown on agar are similarly resistant to hydrogen peroxide in an *otsBA*-dependent manner, filter disc assays were performed. A bacterial lawn was spread onto M9 agar and filter discs treated with 150 mM hydrogen peroxide were overlaid. The zone of growth inhibition around each disc was measured after 18 hours (Figure 6B). Consistently smaller zones of inhibition were observed for the  $\Delta opuA-D$  strains than wild-type ( $P < 0.001$ ), confirming the mutant is resistant to hydrogen peroxide. Hydrogen peroxide resistance required *otsBA* and was restored in  $\Delta opuA-D$ , *otsBA* double mutants upon complementation with *otsBA*. These observations indicate that in the absence of *OpuA-D*, *otsBA* is necessary and sufficient for *S. Typhimurium* increased resistance to hydrogen peroxide.

### **$\Delta opuA-D$ mutants resist killing by macrophages in an *otsBA*-dependent manner**

Upon phagocytosis by macrophages, bacteria are exposed to oxidative species generated by the respiratory burst including hydrogen peroxide and superoxide. *S. Typhimurium* has mechanisms by which it resists oxygen radicals, but approximately 90% of the bacteria are nevertheless killed within two hours of phagocytosis by primary mouse macrophages (Vazquez-Torres et al., 2000). Reactive oxygen species limit bacterial growth by damaging, for instance, enzymes within the Krebs cycle (Richardson et al., 2011). To establish whether  $\Delta opuA-D$  mutants have improved survival in macrophages relative to wild-type, bone marrow derived mouse macrophages were isolated and activated with  $INF-\gamma$  and LPS. Mixed infection experiments were performed because they are highly sensitive based on the presence of an internal wild-type control (Beuzón and Holden, 2001). After infection with equivalent numbers of  $\Delta opuA-D$  and wild-type bacteria, macrophages were lysed and CFU enumerated. Within two hours,  $\Delta opuA-D$  mutants out-competed the wild-type strain, a phenotype dependent upon *otsBA* (Figure 7A). Treatment of cells with MDL 72527, an inhibitor of spermine oxidase that blocks the production of hydrogen peroxide (Chaturvedi et al., 2004), abrogated the increased survival of  $\Delta opuA-D$  mutants. The spermine oxidase inhibitor had no significant effect on macrophage viability under these conditions (data not shown). As a control, equivalent numbers of  $\Delta opuA-D$  mutant and wild-type strains were co-inoculated into M9 or LB and monitored by plating for CFU over a 24hr-period. Under these circumstances,  $\Delta opuA-D$  mutants did not out-compete wild-type strains (Figure 7B). These results, in combination with hydrogen peroxide resistance observations, suggest that in the absence of *opuA-D*, *S. Typhimurium* have increased resistance to macrophage reactive oxygen species and possibly reactive nitrogen species that is dependent upon the *otsBA* trehalose production operon.

### **$\Delta opuA-D$ mutants out-compete wild-type strains in mice, a phenotype that requires *otsBA***

Data suggest that *S. Typhimurium* strains lacking the *opu* locus are resistant to several stressors, including high concentrations of salt, low pH and oxidative compounds. Each of these stressors may be encountered by bacteria during systemic infection of mammals, suggesting that  $\Delta opuA-D$  mutants may have increased virulence in mice. To test this notion, mice were intragastrically inoculated with wild-type or an  $\Delta opuA-D$  strain. An  $LD_{50}$ , as defined by the dose at which 50% of the population dies within 28 days, was established.  $Nramp1^{-/-}$  (BALB/C) mice were chosen for these studies because they develop fatal *S. Typhimurium* infections upon intragastric inoculation (Tsolis et al., 2011). The  $\Delta opuA-D$  strain had only a three-fold lower  $LD_{50}$  than wild-type, a statistically insignificant difference ( $4.2 \times 10^6$  versus  $1.3 \times 10^7$ , for  $\Delta opuA-D$  and wild-type, respectively; 95% confidence

intervals:  $4.2 \times 10^5 - 4.2 \times 10^7$  and  $3.4 \times 10^6 - 4.6 \times 10^7$ ). These data indicate that the absence of *opuA-D* has little to no effect on the oral LD<sub>50</sub> of mice. However, genes that limit virulence may have little effect on animal survival and yet impact pathogenesis as determined by more sensitive methods, such as tissue colonization (Gal-Mor et al., 2008). To establish whether  $\Delta$ *opuA-D* mutants out-compete wild-type strains in tissue, animal mixed-infection experiments were performed. The mouse strain used was Sv129S6 (Nramp1<sup>+/+</sup>), which tolerates greater than  $10^{10}$  orogastric CFU of *S. Typhimurium*. Mice fasted for 9–12 hours were inoculated orogastrically with equivalent numbers of differentially-marked mutant and wild-type bacteria. Three weeks post-infection, tissues were harvested and CFU enumerated. In the cecum, spleen, and liver, the mutant bacteria out-competed the wild-type by 14 – 17-fold (Figure 8A-E, 9A). An *opuA-D*, *otsBA* double-mutant strain competed equivalently with the wild-type strain, suggesting the increased colonization phenotype of  $\Delta$ *opuA-D* mutants requires the trehalose production operon. An *otsBA* mutant also competed equivalently with wild-type for colonization in mice, indicating that trehalose production genes are not needed during systemic colonization. These data suggest that strains lacking *opuA-D* out-compete wild-type *S. Typhimurium* for tissue colonization in mice, and require *otsBA* to do so. Overall, the data indicate that the *OpuA-D* locus plays a role in limiting virulence.

### **A long fast prior to inoculation is required for $\Delta$ *opuA-D* mutants out-compete wild-type strains in mice**

While, a 9–12 hour fast is standard in the field, members of the University of Colorado Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee encouraged the testing of shorter fasts to reduce animal stress. Therefore, another set of infections was performed in which food was withheld for only 2–4 hours prior to infection. No differences were observed in tissue colonization between  $\Delta$ *opuA-D* mutants and wild-type strains (Figure 9A). These data suggest that a physiologic consequence(s) of a long fast is needed for  $\Delta$ *opuA-D* mutants to out-compete wild-type strains in mice.

### **The gastric pH of long-fasted mice is not lower than that of short-fasted mice**

Given that  $\Delta$ *opuA-D* mutant strains withstand low pH better than wild-type, it was possible that the pH of the gastric contents of the mice was lower after a long versus a short fast. To test this hypothesis, gastric content pH was measured in mice after a 3- and 11-hour fast. Control mice were not fasted and had a mean gastric pH of 3.9 (Figure 9B). After a short fast the mean gastric pH was 2.5, greater than 10-fold more acidic than that of control mice. After a long fast the gastric pH was variable and ranged from 2.5 – 3.6. These data indicate that a long fast does not consistently increase gastric acidity, nor result in lower gastric pH than a short fast. Therefore, gastric acidity is not the dominant stress that results in increased tissue colonization by  $\Delta$ *opuA-D* mutant strains relative to wild-type strains.

## **DISCUSSION**

Data within indicate that in the absence of the *OpuABCD* predicted glycine betaine importer, exposure to stress results in increased trehalose production via *otsBA*, and the bacteria develop enhanced resistance to multiple insults. The *otsBA* operon is activated by the stress-response sigma factor RpoS (Fang et al., 1996; Hengge-Aronis et al., 1991). RpoS is activated in M9 minimal media in high salt (Dong and Schellhorn, 2009), conditions under which significant trehalose production occurs. Upon infection of macrophages or mice, strains lacking *opuA-D* out-compete wild-type strains, a phenotype that requires *otsBA*. Pathogens do have access to glycine betaine in animals, which is present at approximately 35  $\mu$ M in human blood and at higher concentrations in tissues (Lever and Slow, 2010). Only 20  $\mu$ M glycine betaine is sufficient to restore the growth of *P. syringae*

*opuA-D* mutants in the presence of 0.4 M sodium chloride (Chen and Beattie, 2007), suggesting that the concentration of glycine betaine in human blood is physiological with respect to bacterial stress responses. In contrast mammals do not make trehalose (Richards et al., 2002). These observations together suggest that during infection the *S. Typhimurium* OpuABCD predicted glycine betaine importer limits trehalose production, perhaps to maintain the balance between host and pathogen necessary for chronic infection.

Trehalose is produced by bacteria, archea, fungi, plants and invertebrates in response to environmental stress and is hypothesized to stabilize proteins and lipids by replacing or trapping water at the surface of macromolecules (Fedorov et al., 2010). However, multiple laboratories have demonstrated that in *S. Typhimurium*, trehalose production is dispensable for pathogenicity. In BALB/C (*Nramp1*<sup>-/-</sup>) mice, which do not survive infection with *S. Typhimurium*, *otsA* mutants are fully virulent with regard to lethality and tissue colonization upon intraperitoneal and intragastric inoculation (Fang et al., 1996; Howells et al., 2002). In Sv129S6 (*Nramp1*<sup>+/+</sup>) mice, which survive acute infection and become chronically infected with *S. Typhimurium*, the *otsBA* operon plays no detectable role in tissue colonization. While apparently unnecessary for *S. Typhimurium* virulence, in other microbes trehalose is a demonstrated virulence determinant. In the fungal pathogen *Candida albicans*, trehalose production defends the wild-type yeast against reactive oxygen species produced by macrophages (Martínez-Esparza et al., 2007). In another fungal pathogen *Cryptococcus gattii*, trehalose production genes are important in broth for melanin synthesis, capsule formation, and cell wall integrity. In mice, *C. gattii* requires trehalose production genes for colonization of the lung and brain (Ngamskulrungrroj et al., 2009). Thus, trehalose accumulation can protect microbes from stress encountered in the host. The amount of trehalose produced by a pathogen may depend on the evolutionarily determined optimal tissue colonization level for that pathogen.

It was surprising that the colonization advantage of strains lacking the OpuABCD putative glycine betaine importer was a function of the period of time for which mice had fasted prior to oral gavage, as  $\Delta$ *opuA-D* strains out-competed wild-type bacteria in mice fasted for 9–12, but not 2–4 hours. One possibility was that gastric pH was lower after a long fast than after a short fast. However, this idea was not supported by data, suggesting that stomach pH is not the major contributing factor in the colonization advantage of  $\Delta$ *opuA-D*. An alternative hypothesis is that long fasts may trigger inflammatory responses in mice. This notion has some support in the literature, as within one day of fasting, levels of the cytokine IL-12 increase in the liver and mononuclear cells increase expression of superoxide dismutase, which generates hydrogen peroxide (Shen et al., 2009). Inoculation after a 9–12 hour fast may thus expose *S. Typhimurium* to macrophages that are more aggressively activated and/or have higher levels of oxygen radicals, resulting in trehalose production and increased survival in  $\Delta$ *opuA-D* mutant strains. However, a considerable body of work will be required to test this and other hypotheses. Finally, long fasts may not be unnatural, as animals in the wild, including the house mouse, eat significantly less food over time than they prefer (Boutin, 1990). Thus, while members of an Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee may prefer the use of 2–4 hour fasting periods, a 9–12 hour fast may be a physiologically realistic timeframe.

Our data demonstrate that  $\Delta$ *opuA-D* glycine betaine importer mutant strains out-compete wild-type strains in tissues by more than 10-fold, which is consistent with the role of OpuABCD as an antivirulence locus, as defined by the ability to limit one or more aspect of pathogenicity (Ho and Slauch, 2001). Previously described loci that limit virulence include ZirTS, a two-partner secretion system. The absence of functional ZirTS, like Opu, has a small and insignificant effect on the mouse survival. However, *zirTS* mutant strains out-compete wild-type strains in mixed-infection experiments by 3-to 13-fold (Gal-Mor et al.,

2008). The mechanism(s) by which ZirTS limits virulence remains unknown. The *S. Typhimurium* global regulator of transcription leucine-responsive regulatory protein (LRP) also limits virulence. Strains lacking LRP out-compete wild-type by 3- to 9-fold during mixed infection. It has been suggested that LRP functions indirectly to curtail colonization, as it negatively regulates type three secretion systems required for virulence (Baek et al., 2009). Thus, LRP mutants may have increased virulence due to increased or ectopic expression of virulence determinants.

Despite its potential role in limiting colonization in mice, an *opu* locus is present throughout the six subspecies of *S. enterica* at the orthologous position in the genome, including the human pathogens Typhi and Paratyphi A – C. However, other Enterobacteriaceae family members including *S. bongori*, *E. coli*, *Shigella*, and *Klebsiella* do not encode genes resembling an *opu* locus in the orthologous regions of their genomes. This suggests that an *opu* cassette was acquired by *S. enterica* after divergence from *S. bongori*. One possibility is that during systemic infection, which is generally associated with *S. enterica* but not *S. bongori*, there is selective pressure for *Salmonellae* to keep colonization of host tissues under a threshold defined by the host response to the pathogen. For instance, *S. Typhimurium* fitness may depend upon preventing excessive tissue damage that threatens survival of the host and thereby the bacteria. A smaller population of microbes may also be better able to establish and maintain chronic infection by eliciting a more modest host immune response. Selective pressures to retain the trehalose synthesizing genes *otsA* and *otsB* may reflect the importance of trehalose in withstanding diverse non-host environmental stress, such as desiccation and fluctuations in temperature. Overall, the data indicate that pathogens carefully regulate responses to stress encountered within the host environment.

## EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

### Bacterial strains and culture conditions

Strains (Table 2) were derived from *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium strain SL1344 (Smith et al., 1984). Bacteria were grown aerobically in Luria-Bertani (LB) medium or M9 minimal media (M9) (1 mM magnesium sulfate, 2% dextrose, 0.002% L-histidine, 0.05% casamino acids, and 20% M9 5x salts (211.3 mM disodium hydrogen phosphate, 110 mM monopotassium phosphate, 93.4 mM ammonium chloride, 42.77 mM sodium chloride)), pH 7.4 at 37°C, with antibiotics as indicated: streptomycin, 30 µg mL<sup>-1</sup>; ampicillin, 50 µg mL<sup>-1</sup>; kanamycin 30 µg mL<sup>-1</sup>; and chloramphenicol 20 µg mL<sup>-1</sup>. For growth curves, overnight cultures were diluted to an OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.01 in 200 µL of M9 at pH 7, pH 5, or with 0.4 M added sodium chloride. Bacteria were grown in a 96-well plate shaking in a Synergy2 plate reader (BioTek) at 37°C and the OD<sub>600</sub> was recorded at 20-minute intervals.

### Strain and plasmid construction

Deleted genes were replaced with kanamycin or chloramphenicol resistance markers (Datsenko and Wanner, 2000). Oligos used for generating *otsBA::kan* are *otsBA*-P1 (CGTTTGTGAGTCTCAATATGATGATAAGGAGGAGACCAGGGTGTAGGCTGGAGCT GCTTC), and *otsBA*-P2 (TGGTGCCCTTAGCGGCGACTAGTCGCCGCTCGCGATATTCATATGAATATCCTC CTTA). Underline denotes P1 or P2 primer. Mutations were made in the 14028 background strain (source ATCC), verified by PCR (*otsBA*-5' (ACTTACATGACTAATGAGAC) and *otsBA*-3' (CAGCCAGGTAGATGTGTTGC)), and transduced into SL1344 using standard P22 phage transduction. Transductants were verified by growth on LB agar containing antibiotic and by PCR. Genomic DNA from strain SL1344 was used as a template to amplify *otsB* and *otsA* (-228 from *otsB* ORF to +1481 from *otsA*



ORF) with 5' primer #874 (TCTAAAGCTTAGCCAGGTAGATGTGTTGCT) and 3' primer #875 (TTGGATCCGGCTGAATCCTTCTGACAAC). Underline denotes added sites for restriction endonucleases. The *otsBA* PCR product was digested with HindIII and BamHI and ligated into the same sites of pRB3-273c (Berggren et al., 1995) to construct *potsBA*. This plasmid was transformed into *Salmonella* by electroporation.

### Carbohydrate extraction and quantification

Strains were grown overnight in 100 mL M9 minimal media containing 0.01 M or 0.4 M NaCl. Bacteria were pelleted and re-suspended in water to  $4.6 \times 10^8$  bacteria per  $\mu\text{L}$ . Carbohydrates were extracted by incubation at  $95^\circ\text{C}$  for 20 hours. Debris was pelleted and aqueous extracts (0.5  $\mu\text{L}$ ) were spotted onto a silica gel TLC plate and separated using an ethyl acetate-acetic acid-water-pyridine (26:14:7:2 [vol/vol/vol/vol]) solvent system. Resolved sugars were stained with 0.1% potassium permanganate in 1 M NaOH. Integrated densitometry analysis was performed with Image J software version 1.44 (NIH). Glucose content of aqueous extracts was additionally quantified with a Glucose (HK) Assay Kit (Sigma) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Trehalose levels were calculated by subtracting the glucose content of *ΔotsBA* mutant strains from wild-type and *ΔopuA-D* mutant strains and then dividing by two.

### Hydrogen peroxide resistance

Overnight cultures were centrifuged at  $4,000 \times g$  for 10 minutes and cell pellets were re-suspended in equal volume PBS. Cultures were diluted 1/10 in M9 broth and grown at  $37^\circ\text{C}$  for one hour. Broth Resistance Assay - Cultures were further diluted to an  $\text{OD}_{600}$  of 0.05 in 200  $\mu\text{L}$  M9 broth with 10 mM hydrogen peroxide, corresponding to 1 nMol of hydrogen peroxide per bacterium and in accordance with previous studies (Fang et al., 1992; Tu et al., 2006). Bacteria were grown shaking in a 96-well plate at  $37^\circ\text{C}$  for 90 minutes. Bacterial survival was determined by plating on selective LB agar plates for CFU. Exposure of the strains to 0.1 mM hydrogen peroxide revealed no differences in strain survival. Filter Disc Inhibition assay -  $1 \times 10^6$  bacteria were spread on an LB streptomycin plate and four filter discs treated with either water or 150 mM  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  were overlaid. Zones of inhibition were measured after incubation at  $37^\circ\text{C}$  overnight.

### Bacterial infection of cultured bone marrow derived macrophages (BMDMs)

BMDMs isolated as described (Silva-Herzog and Detweiler, 2010) were seeded at  $1.5 \times 10^5$  cells/well in 24-well tissue culture plates for at four hours before treatment with  $2 \text{ ng mL}^{-1}$  recombinant murine IFN- $\gamma$  (Peprotech, Rocky Hill, NJ),  $20 \mu\text{g/mL}$  LPS from *S. Typhimurium* (Sigma). Where indicated, cells were treated with  $25 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$  of MDL 72527, a spermine oxidase inhibitor (Sigma). MDL 72527 had no significant affect on macrophage viability under these conditions as determined by trypan blue staining and cell counting. After 18 to 20 hours at  $37^\circ\text{C}$  in 5%  $\text{CO}_2$ , infection experiments were performed in triplicate. Bacteria were grown aerobically in Luria-Bertani (LB) medium overnight. The overnight cultures were diluted 1/5 in M9 minimal medium and exposed to 0.4 M sodium chloride for one hour. The bacteria were then opsonized with 20% normal mouse serum (Sigma) and added to BMDMs at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 10–13 for each strain (total MOI of approximately 25), determined by plating for CFU. Infections were synchronized by centrifugation at  $50 \times g$  for five minutes. After 30 minutes, gentamicin ( $100 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ ) was added to kill extracellular bacteria, 90 minutes later,  $10 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$  gentamicin was added to prevent extracellular replication of bacteria. At one and two hours post-infection, cells were washed twice with PBS, incubated with 0.1% Triton X-100 for five minutes, and lysed. Serial dilutions were plated to quantify CFU and the competitive indexes (CIs) were calculated:  $(\text{CFU}_{\text{mutant}}/\text{CFU}_{\text{wild-type}})_{\text{output}} / (\text{CFU}_{\text{mutant}}/\text{CFU}_{\text{wild-type}})_{\text{input}}$

(Beuzón and Holden, 2001). Levels of ROS were determined using H<sub>2</sub>DCFDA (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) following the manufacturer's protocol (data not shown).

### Determination of the lethal dose<sub>50</sub> (LD<sub>50</sub>)

Six to eight week old, female, BALB/c mice were intragastrically inoculated with wild- type or *ΔopuA-D* strains at concentrations from 10<sup>3</sup> to 10<sup>8</sup> bacteria. Mice were monitored daily for 28 days and deaths were recorded as days post-infection. The LD<sub>50</sub> was calculated as previously described (Beuzón and Holden, 2001). The confidence interval was calculated by logit analysis (Reed and Muench, 1938).

### Competition assays

Mice - Seven-week old SV129S6 mice (Taconic Laboratory, Hudson, NY) were orogastrically inoculated with equivalent numbers (1x10<sup>9</sup>) of two bacterial strains (2x10<sup>9</sup> total), as verified by plating for CFU on selective LB agar. Three weeks after inoculation, tissues (cecum, liver, spleen, MLN, and Peyer's patches) were collected in 1 mL PBS, homogenized with a TissueMiser (Fisher Scientific, Pittsburgh, PA) and diluted in PBS for plating on selective LB agar plates. CFU were enumerated and CI values were calculated as described above. Research protocols were in accordance with the NIH Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals and approved by the University of Colorado Institutional Biosafety and Animal Care and Use Committees. Broth - The *ΔopuA-D* and wild-type strains were grown overnight in LB medium at 37°C. Experiments were performed in triplicate. Overnight bacterial cultures were centrifuged at 4,000 x g for 10 minutes and cell pellets were re-suspended in equal volume phosphate buffered saline (PBS). Equal numbers, 2x10<sup>9</sup> total bacteria, (verified by plating for CFU) of the *ΔopuA-D* and wild-type strains were inoculated in LB broth or M9 minimal medium and incubated at 37°C for 24 hours. At varying time points, cells were diluted and plated on selective LB agar plates. CIs were calculated as described above.

### Gastric pH

After fasting for three or eleven hours, or not fasting control mice, mice were euthanized and their stomachs dissected. The stomach was cut laterally and the stomach content was scraped into an eppendorf tube. The gastric content was centrifuged at 4,000 x g for 5 minutes and the supernatant was applied to a pH indicator strip pH2.5–4.5 (EMD Chemicals Inc, Gibbstown, NJ).

### Statistics

Data were analyzed using InStat version 3.1a (GraphPad Software, San Diego CA). Two-way comparisons were analyzed with a students t-test (parametric), Mann-Whitney (non-parametric), one sample t test (parametric, comparison to null hypothesis) or Wilcoxon rank sum test (non-parametric, comparison to null hypothesis). Multiple comparisons were examined by analysis of variance (ANOVA) with a Tukey (parametric) or Dunn (non-parametric) post-test, respectively (Smith and Bidochka, 1998).

### Acknowledgments

We thank M.W. McCoy, and N.R. Pace for discussions, K. Erickson and T. Fenn for the preliminary observation that *ΔopuA-D* mutants out-compete wild-type and the LD<sub>50</sub> data. We thank N. Sanchez for help with *ΔotsBA* infection experiments and strain construction. This work was supported by AI072492 and AI095395 to CD.

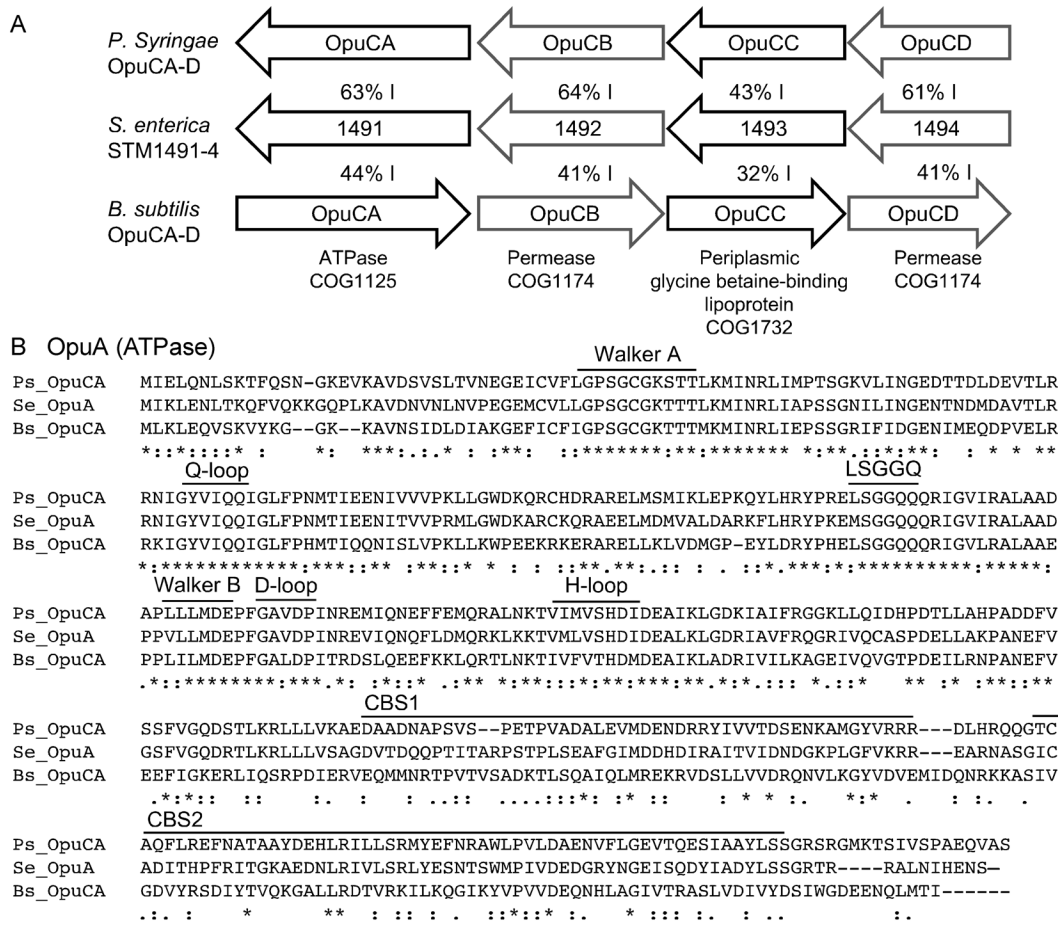
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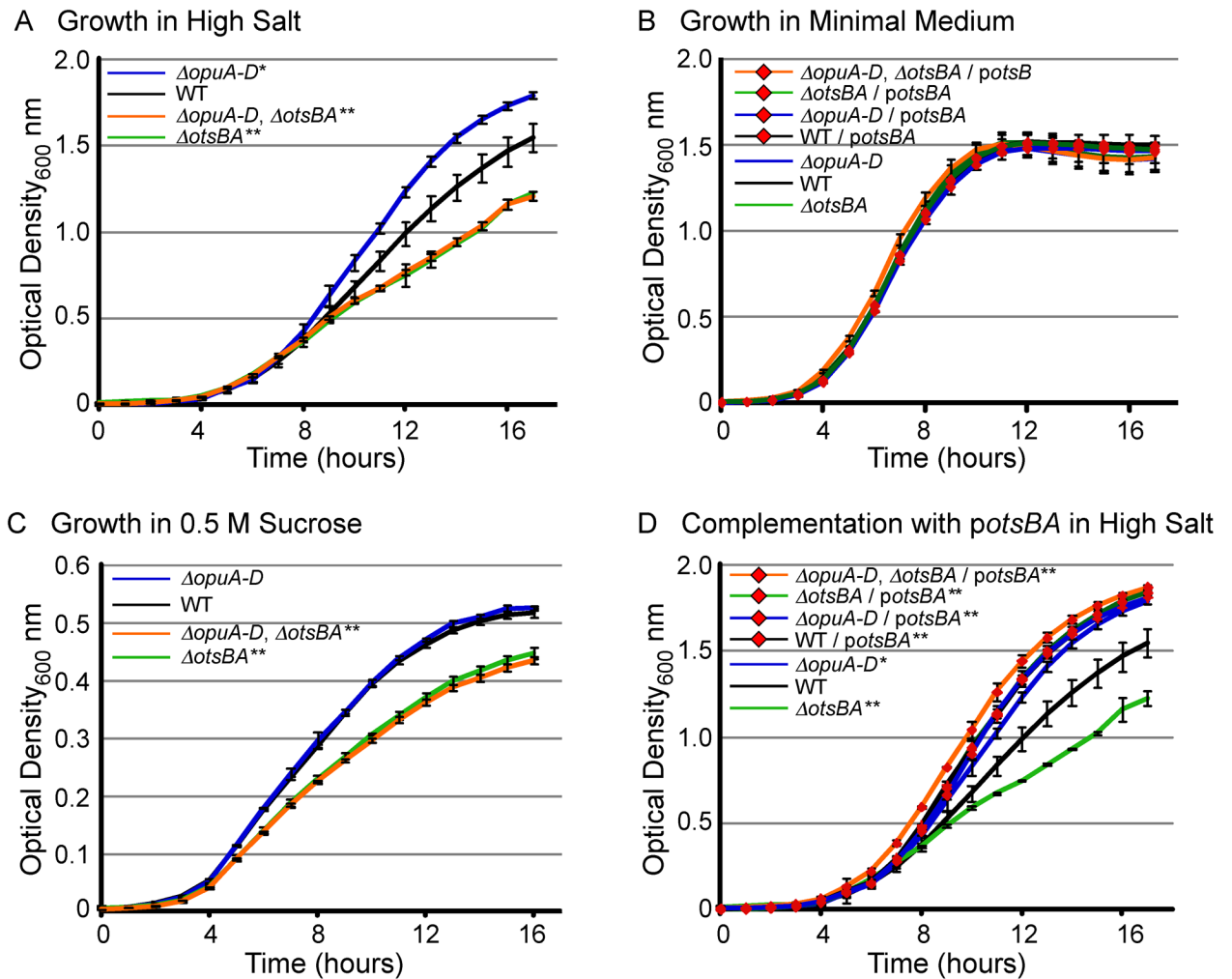
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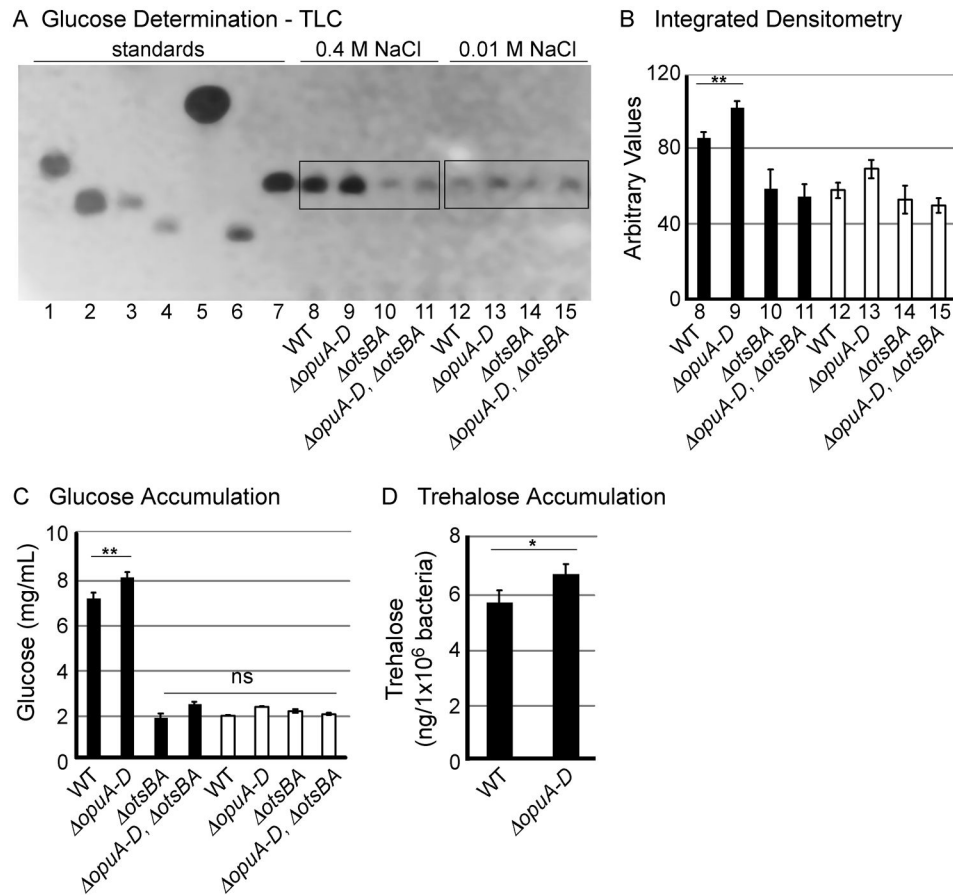
**Figure 1. STM1491-4 is a putative glycine betaine importer**  
 A) The opu loci from *Pseudomonas syringae* (*P.s. pathovar tomato strain DC3000*), *S. enterica* STM1491-4 locus (*S.e. serotype Typhimurium*), and *Bacillus subtilis* (*B.s. subspecies subtilis strain 168*). Percent values between arrows indicates shared amino acid identity. Predicted encoded proteins and COG families are indicated at the bottom. B) Alignment of OpuA predicted ATPases from *S. Typhimurium* (*SeT*; STM1491, NP\_460451.1), *P. syringae* (*Ps*; PSTPO\_4575, AAO58021.1), and *B. subtilis* (*Bs* NP\_391263.1). Conserved nucleotide-binding protein motifs are labeled, including the Walker A (P-loop), Q-loop, LSGGQ motif, Walker B, D-loop, and H-loop. CLUSTAL W (1.81) multiple sequence alignment and consensus key: single, fully conserved residue (\*); conservation of strong groups (:); conservation of weak groups (.)



**Figure 2. Growth advantage of  $\Delta opuA-D$  strains in high salt requires *otsBA***

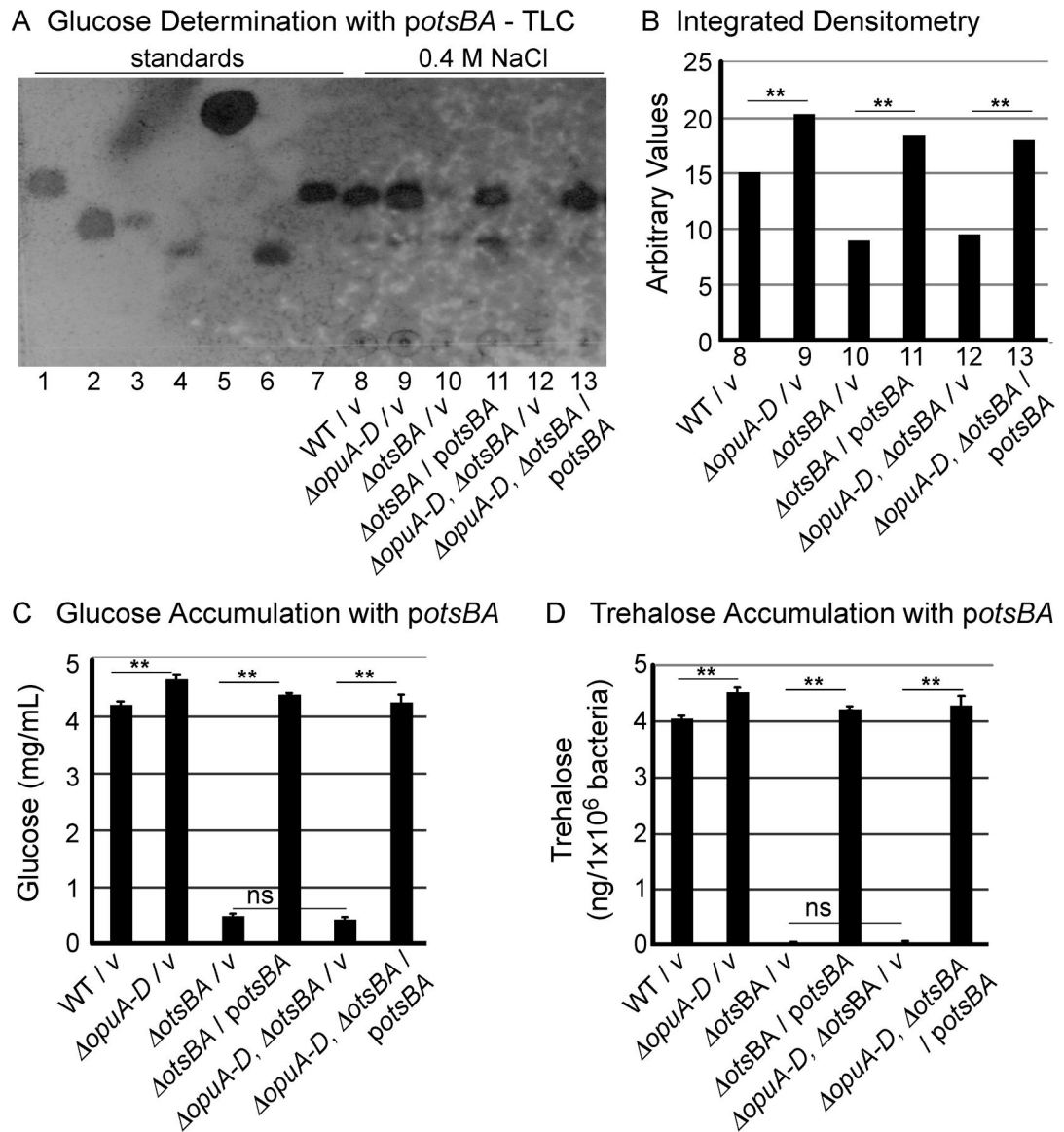
Strains (as noted) were grown in M9 with 0.4 M NaCl (A, D), 0.01 M NaCl (B), or 0.5 M sucrose (C). Optical density at 600 nm (OD<sub>600</sub>) was monitored for 17 hours. Error bars are SD, N > 5 experiments. Asterisks indicate  $P < 0.01$  (\*) and 0.001 (\*\*) compared to WT, as determined using an one-way ANOVA with a Tukey post test on the time required to grow from an OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.1 to the OD<sub>600</sub> reached by the strain with the lowest saturation level in the experiment (Smith and Bidochka, 1998).





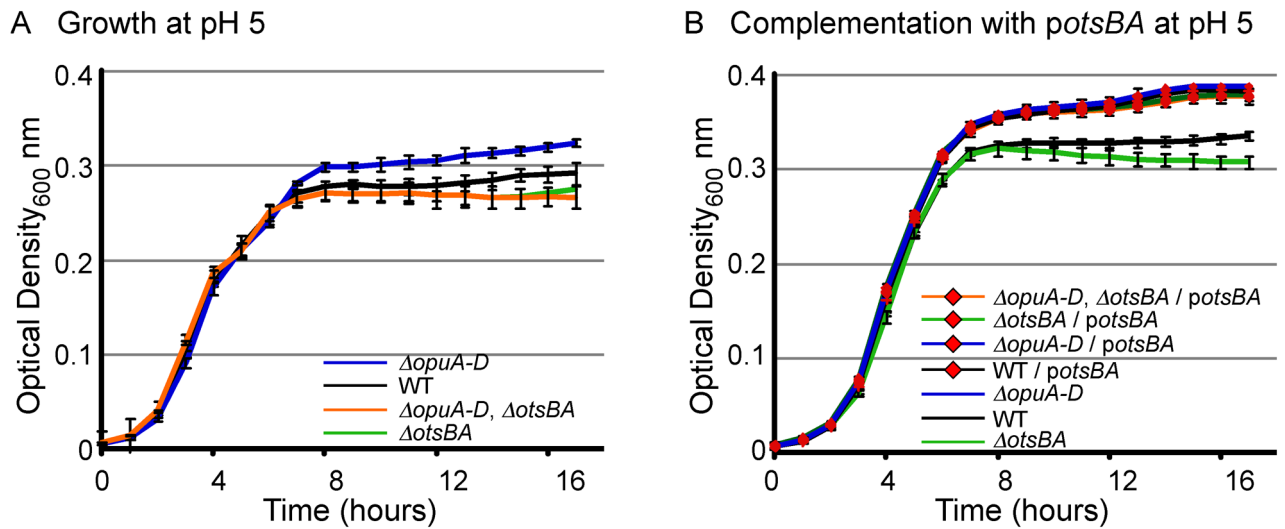
### Figure 3. *ΔopuA-D* mutant strain produces excess trehalose

Bacteria were grown in M9 with 0.01 M NaCl or 0.4 M NaCl. **A)** Sugars were extracted from equal numbers of bacteria and analyzed by thin-layer chromatography (TLC). Sugar standards, lanes 1–7, arabinose (10µg), galactose (10 µg), sucrose (10 µg), maltose (10 µg), glycerol (80µg), trehalose (20 µg), glucose (10 µg), respectively. Lanes 8–15 as noted. **B)** Integrated densitometric analysis of four TLCs was performed using Image J software. Arbitrary values correspond to the product of the area and mean grey values, 0.4 M NaCl (black) or 0.01 M NaCl (white). Error bars are SEM. **C)** Total glucose accumulation (mg/mL) quantified by the glucose-hexokinase conversion assay. Strains as noted were grown in M9 in 0.4 M NaCl (black) or 0.01 M NaCl (white). Error bars are SEM, N > 3 experiments. **D)** Trehalose accumulated (ng per 1x10<sup>6</sup> bacteria) quantified as described in the Experimental Procedure from bacteria grown in M9 with 0.4 M NaCl. Error bars are SEM, N > 3 experiments. ns, not significant. Asterisks indicate  $P < 0.05$  (\*) and 0.01 (\*\*).



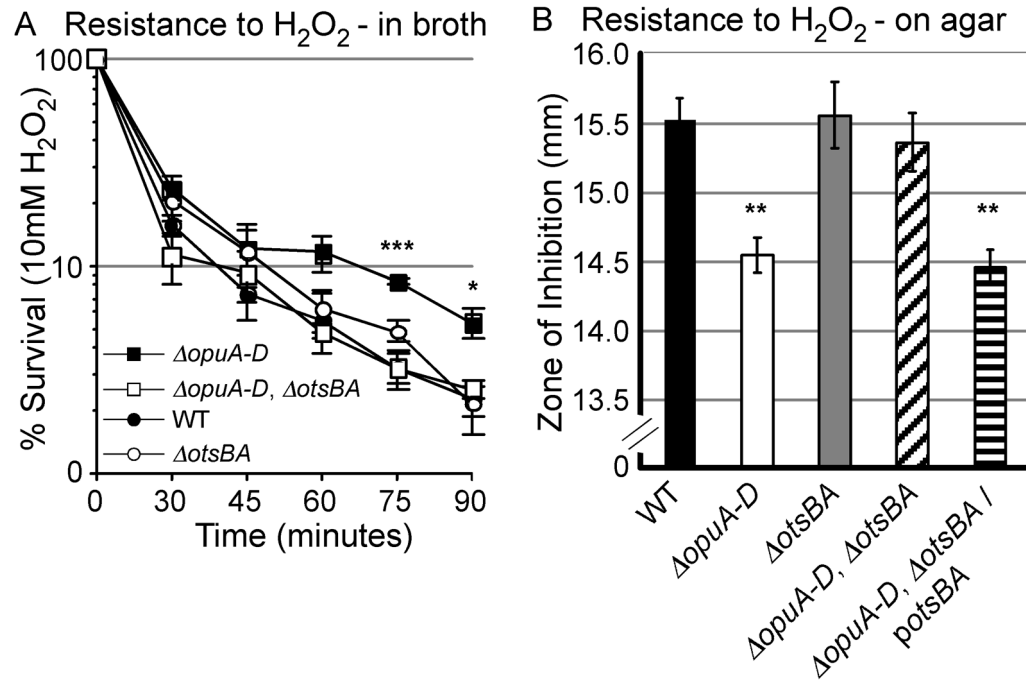
**Figure 4. Complementation with *potsBA* restores trehalose accumulation**

Bacteria were grown in M9 with 0.4 M NaCl. **A**) Sugars were extracted from equal numbers of bacteria and analyzed by thin-layer chromatography (TLC). Sugar standards, lanes 1–7, arabinose (10  $\mu$ g), galactose (10  $\mu$ g), sucrose (10  $\mu$ g), maltose (10  $\mu$ g), glycerol (80  $\mu$ g), trehalose (20  $\mu$ g), glucose (10  $\mu$ g), respectively. Lanes 8–15 as noted. **B**) Integrated densitometric analysis of the TLC presented in panel B was performed using Image J software. Arbitrary values correspond to the product of the area and mean grey values. **C**) Total glucose accumulated (mg/mL) was measured from bacteria grown in M9 with 0.4 M NaCl and complemented with *potsBA*. Error bars are SEM, N > 3 experiments. **D**) Trehalose accumulated in the presence of *potsBA*. Error bars are SEM, N > 3 experiments. v: vector strains have pRB3-273c, ns, not significant. Asterisks indicate  $P < 0.01$  (\*) and 0.001 (\*\*).

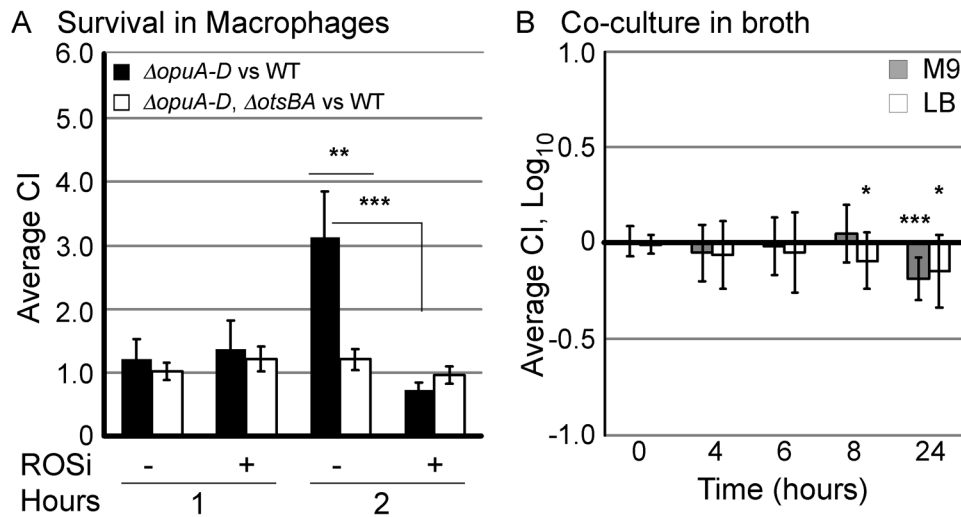


**Figure 5. Growth advantage of  $\Delta opuA-D$  strains at low pH requires *otsBA***

Strains (as noted) were grown in M9 pH5 (A-B) and OD<sub>600 nm</sub> was monitored for 17 hours. Error bars are SD, N > 5 experiments.  $P < 0.01$  from six to eight hours, for all strains compared to wild-type, as determined using an one-way ANOVA with a Tukey post-test (Smith and Bidochka, 1998).

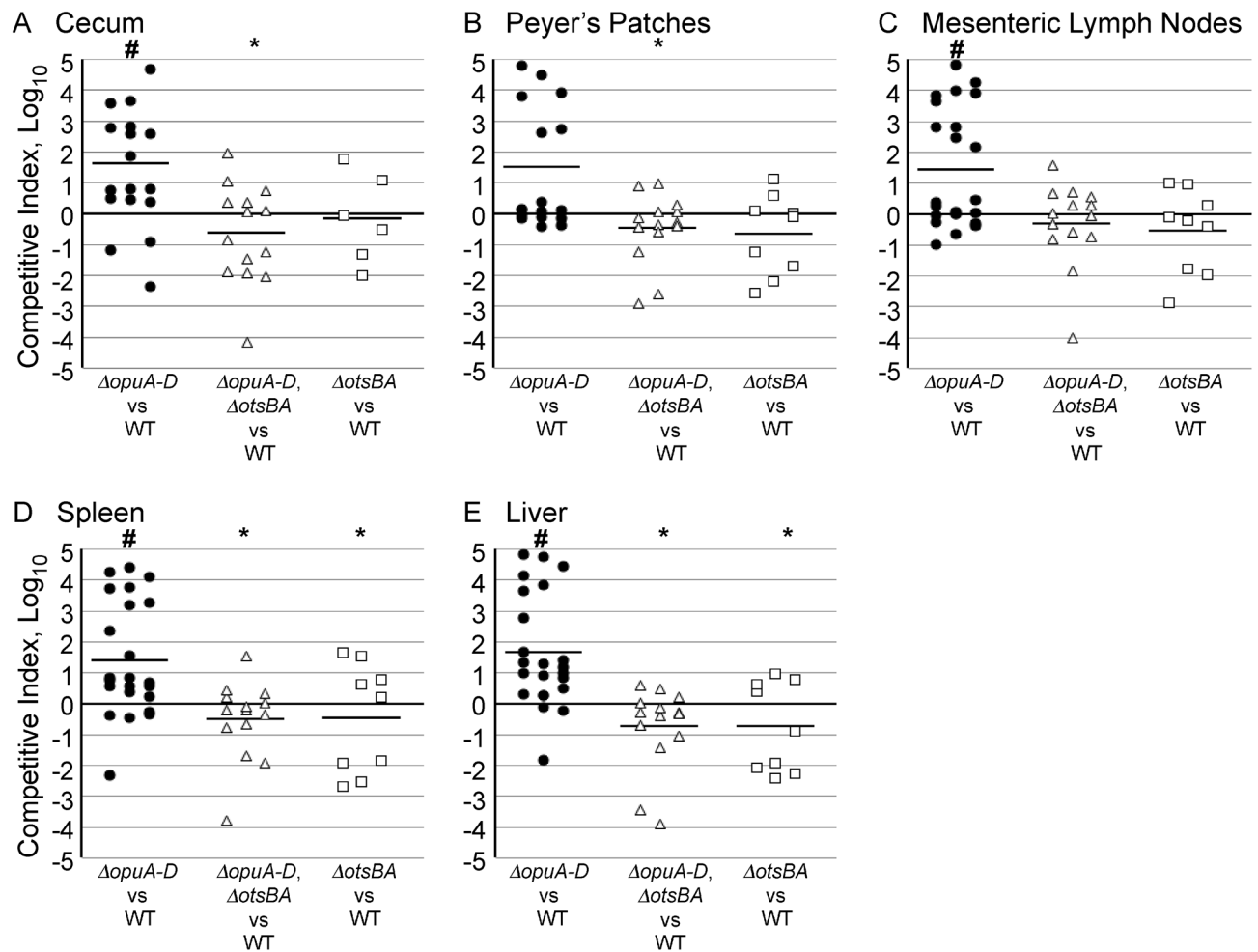


**Figure 6. OpuABCD confers resistance to hydrogen peroxide in an *otsBA*-dependent manner**  
**A)** Strains were grown in M9 with 10 mM hydrogen peroxide. Error bars are SD, N > 3 experiments. Asterisks indicate  $P < 0.05$  (\*) and 0.001 (\*\*\*) compared to WT. **B)** Filter Disc inhibition assay. Error bars are SEM, N = 3. Asterisks indicate  $P < 0.01$  (\*\*) compared to WT.

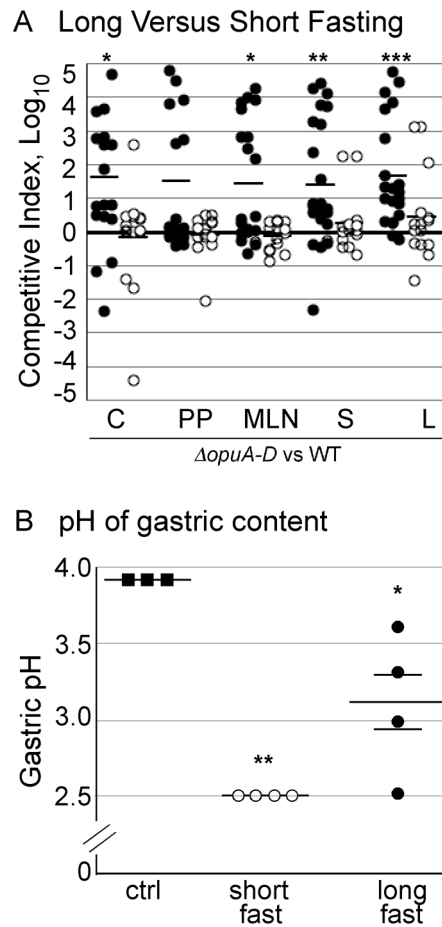


**Figure 7. OpuABCD confers resistance to the macrophage respiratory burst in an *otsBA*-dependent manner**

**A)** Macrophages treated with and without ROS inhibitor (ROSi), MDL-72527, were infected with equivalent numbers of WT and  $\Delta opuA-D$  (black) or  $\Delta opuA-D, \Delta otsBA$  (white) strains. Macrophages were lysed and CI values calculated. Error bars are SEM, N=3. Asterisks indicate  $P < 0.01$  (\*\*) and 0.001 (\*\*\*). **B)** Co-culture of a 1:1 mixture of WT and  $\Delta opuA-D$  in M9 (gray) and LB broth (white). Each bar represents the average log CI; error bars are SD, N > 3. Asterisks indicate  $P < 0.05$  (\*) and 0.001 (\*\*\*).



**Figure 8. *ΔopuA-D* strains require the *otsBA* locus to out-compete wild-type strains in mice**  
Mice were orally infected with a 1:1 mixture of the strains indicated on the x-axes. After three weeks, mice were euthanized and their organs (cecum (C), Peyer's patches (PP), mesenteric lymph nodes (MLN), spleen (S), and liver (L)) immediately collected for analysis. Bacteria were enumerated after plating homogenized **A**) cecum, **B**) Peyer's patches, **C**) mesenteric lymph nodes, **D**) spleen, and **E**) liver. Each symbol represents one mouse, N = 6–23. P values are # < 0.01 compared to the null hypothesis and \* < 0.05 compared to *ΔopuA-D* vs WT.



**Figure 9. Fasting time affects gastric pH and colonization of *ΔopuA-D* strains in mice**

**A)** Mice were fasted for 9–12 hours (closed circles) or 2–4 hours (open circle) prior to oral inoculation with a 1:1 mixture of the *ΔopuA-D* and wild-type strains. After three weeks, mice were euthanized and their organs (cecum (C), Peyer’s patches (PP), mesenteric lymph nodes (MLN), spleen (S), and liver (L)) immediately collected for analysis. Each symbol represents one mouse, N=13–23. Asterisks indicate  $P < 0.01$  (\*), 0.001 (\*\*), or 0.001 (\*\*\*) compared to the null hypothesis. **B)** The pH of the gastric content was measured for mice fasted for three hours (short) and 11 hours (long); control (ctrl) mice were not fasted. Error bars are SD, N= 3–4 mice. Asterisks indicate  $P < 0.05$  (\*) and 0.01 (\*\*) compared with control.

**Table 1**Accumulated Trehalose in *E. coli* and *Salmonella enterica*.

Bacteria	NaCl conc. (molar)	Trehalose conc. (moles trehalose/cell)	Reference
<i>E. coli</i> – WT	0.1	not detectable	Record, Jr. 1998
<i>E. coli</i> – WT	1.0	$13 \times 10^{-15}$	Record, Jr. 1998
<i>S. enterica</i> – WT	0.01	not detectable	This study
<i>S. enterica</i> – $\Delta opuA-D$	0.01	not detectable	This study
<i>S. enterica</i> – WT	0.4	$1.7 \times 10^{-15}$	This study
<i>S. enterica</i> – $\Delta opuA-D$	0.4	$2.0 \times 10^{-15}$	This study



**Table 2**

Bacterial strains used in this study related to Experimental Procedures.

Strain	Genotype / plasmid	Reference
SL1344	<i>hisG xyl rpsL</i> (wild-type)	Smith <i>et al</i> (1984)
14028		ATCC
csd221	14028s / pKD46	Detweiler <i>et al</i> (2003)
kde444	<i>STM1491-1494</i> (termed: $\Delta$ <i>opuA-D</i> ::cm)	Erickson, Detweiler (2006)
nds692	<i>otsBA</i> ::kan (termed: $\Delta$ <i>otsBA</i> )	This study
mcp783	SL1344 / pRB3-273c	This study
mcp786	SL1344 / <i>potsBA</i>	This study
mcp787	<i>otsBA</i> ::kan / pRB3-273c	This study
mcp790	<i>otsBA</i> ::kan / <i>potsBA</i>	This study
mcp809	kde444 / pRB3-273c	This study
mcp813	kde444, <i>otsBA</i> ::kan	This study
mcp854	mcp813 / pRB3-273c	This study
mcp855	mcp813 / <i>potsBA</i>	This study
mcp856	kde444 / <i>potsBA</i>	This study