

The *Helicobacter pylori* Autotransporter ImaA (HP0289) Modulates the Immune Response and Contributes to Host Colonization

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The human pathogen *Helicobacter pylori* employs a diverse collection of outer membrane proteins to colonize, persist, and drive disease within the acidic gastric environment. In this study, we sought to elucidate the function of the host-induced gene *HP0289*, which encodes an uncharacterized outer membrane protein. We first generated an isogenic *H. pylori* mutant that lacks *HP0289* and found that the mutant has a colonization defect in single-strain infections and is greatly outcompeted in mouse coinfection experiments with wild-type *H. pylori*. Furthermore, we used protease assays and biochemical fractionation coupled with an HP0289-targeted peptide antibody to verify that the HP0289 protein resides in the outer membrane. Our previous findings showed that the *HP0289* promoter is upregulated in the mouse stomach, and here we demonstrate that *HP0289* expression is induced under acidic conditions in an ArsRS-dependent manner. Finally, we have shown that the *HP0289* mutant induces greater expression of the chemokine interleukin-8 (IL-8) and the cytokine tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α) in gastric carcinoma cells (AGS). Similarly, transcription of the IL-8 homolog keratinocyte-derived chemokine (KC) is elevated in murine infections with wild-type *H. pylori*. On the basis of this phenotype, we renamed HP0289 ImaA for immunomodulatory <u>a</u>utotransporter protein. Our work has revealed that genes induced *in vivo* play an important role in *H. pylori* pathogenesis. Specifically, the outer membrane protein ImaA modulates a component of the host in-flammatory response, and thus may allow *H. pylori* to fine tune the host immune response based on ImaA expression.

he human pathogen Helicobacter pylori infects half of the world's population and causes chronic infection that elevates the risk of multiple gastric diseases, including gastric adenocarcinoma (30, 54, 73). In an effort to better understand H. pylori pathogenesis, Castillo et al. identified a set of H. pylori genes that were expressed at higher levels when the bacterium was in the mouse stomach than when the bacterium was in the lab setting. Host-induced genes have been shown to be crucial for colonization and virulence in a number of bacterial species, including H. pylori (15-17, 35, 44, 49, 66, 78). This previous work used recombination-based in vivo expression technology (RIVET) to identify host-induced H. pylori genes (17). The RIVET system utilizes fusions of transcriptional promoters to a promoterless gene encoding a recombinase protein. If these promoters are transcribed, for example in the mouse stomach, the recombinase is created and mediates site-specific recombination events that convert the strain from antibiotic resistance to antibiotic sensitivity (71). The previous study analyzed ~71% of the genome and found six promoters induced in vivo (17). Two of the promoters (Pivi10 and Pivi66) regulated genes, mobABD and cagZ, respectively, that were important for mouse stomach colonization (17). Of the four remaining unstudied promoters from the RIVET screen, one regulated a gene, HP0289, that was previously annotated as a toxin-like outer membrane protein in the complete genome sequence of H. pylori strain 26695 (67). Here we explore how HP0289 contributes to H. pylori pathogenesis.

The *H. pylori* genome is predicted to encode more than 30 outer membrane proteins (OMPs), or approximately 4% of the bacterium's coding potential (3, 23). This level of dedication to *omp* genes is not commonly seen in other bacterial species, and only a small percentage of these OMPs have actually been characterized in *H. pylori* (3, 7, 23, 29). The abundance of specialized OMPs in the *H. pylori* proteome has been proposed to allow the bacterium to persist within an environment that is demanding

and often changing (39). Of the well-studied *H. pylori omp* genes, a number encode proteins that play a prominent role in *H. pylori* pathogenesis (29). The most notable of these proteins include the vacuolating cytotoxin protein VacA and the host antigen-specific adhesins BabA and SabA. VacA belongs to a family of OMPs called autotransporters, a class of proteins that appear three other times in the *H. pylori* proteome (26). While a number of *H. pylori* OMPs have been characterized, VacA is the only OMP with an autotransporter domain that has been well described; thus, a void exists in our knowledge of the remaining autotransporters.

Autotransporters are a family of Gram-negative bacterial secreted proteins that can be toxins, proteases, or adhesins (23, 28). These proteins are called autotransporters because originally they were thought to contain all of the machinery necessary for secretion to the outer membrane. Recent work, however, suggests that many interact with an additional protein, the beta-barrel assembly machinery BAM (29, 65). All autotransporters possess a conserved domain structure, which consists of the following: (i) an N-terminal signal peptide that facilitates Sec-dependent secretion across the inner membrane; (ii) a generally nonconserved central region called the passenger domain, which confers the effector function of the protein; and (iii) a C-terminal beta-barrel domain

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TABLE 1	Н.	pylori	strains	used	in	this	study
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Strain	Description or relevant genotype	Reference
G27	Wild type (NSH57 parent strain)	19
NSH57	Mouse-adapted isolate of G27	8
LSH100	NSH57 with repaired <i>fliM</i> allele	50
SS1	Wild type	42
26695	Wild type	1
KO954	SS1 <i>\DeltaimaA::cat</i>	This study
KO1370	LSH100 <i>\DeltaimaA::cat</i>	This study
KO1371	LSH100 $\Delta arsS::cat$	This study
KO1163	SS1 cagE::kan	This study (strain provided by David McGee)
KO1372	LSH100 cagE::kan	This study
KO1373	LSH100 cagE::kan Δ imaA::cat	This study
KO1374	26695 ΔimaA::cat	This study

that is the hallmark of the autotransporter family and is critical for protein translocation across the outer membrane (29). Passenger domains represent the surface-exposed component of the protein and typically adopt an extended right-handed beta helix structure (11, 82). These domains are extremely diverse in both sequence and function, making it difficult to predict what a particular autotransporter does (29). Known autotransporter functions include the following: (i) binding to host proteins to mediate adhesion, invasion, immunoglobulin binding, or intracellular movement; (ii) interacting with other bacterial molecules to mediate agglutination and biofilm formation; (iii) acting as intracellular toxins; and (iv) behaving as proteases that target such proteins as host immunoglobulin. The autotransporter studied here, HP0289, was originally annotated as a toxin-like outer membrane protein; however, there is no experimental evidence for such a function (76).

H. pylori colonization causes chronic inflammation, a host response that is considered one of the primary risk factors for adenocarcinoma (30). H. pylori strains are highly variable and are well documented to contain various combinations of genes that enhance inflammation, including genes of the cag pathogenicity island (cagPAI), oipA, babA, and sabA (25, 33, 51, 86). Recent reports suggest that HP0289 might also vary between strains. Specifically, Kawai et al. analyzed 20 H. pylori genome sequences and found that the highly carcinogenic East Asian (hspEAsia lineage) strains had several changes, including a large deletion in HP0289 that removed 83% of the protein (38). Indeed, Lee et al. previously demonstrated that East Asian clinical isolates induce epithelial cells to produce significantly higher proinflammatory cytokine levels than do Western strains; however, the strains in this specific study were not analyzed for the presence of HP0289 (43). These findings thus suggest that loss of HP0289 may create *H. pylori* strains that are more proinflammatory.

In this study, we characterize the *H. pylori* autotransporter HP0289 and show that it contributes to murine stomach colonization and is under the control of the acid-sensing ArsRS two-component system. Additionally, we demonstrate that the protein decreases expression of inflammatory chemokines and cytokines in both cultured epithelial cells and infected stomachs.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains and growth conditions. All bacterial strains are described in Table 1. *H. pylori* strain LSH100, a mouse-adapted descendant of the clinical isolate G27 (19, 50), was used for proteinase K digestions, all of the mouse colonization, gene expression, and AGS cell experiments. Strain 26695 was used for additional AGS cell inflammation experiments (1), and H. pylori strain SS1 (42) was used for murine infection and ImaA subcellular localization experiments. H. pylori strains were maintained on Columbia blood agar base (Difco, Detroit, MI) supplemented with 5% defibrinated horse blood (Hemostat Laboratories, Dixon, CA), 0.2% (wt/ vol) β-cyclodextrin (Sigma) plus 5 µg/ml trimethoprim, 8 µg/ml amphotericin B, 50 µg/ml cycloheximide, 10 µg/ml vancomycin, 5 µg/ml cefsulodin, and 2.5 U/ml polymyxin B (CHBA) to inhibit the growth of unwanted microbes under 10% CO₂, 7 to 10% O₂ and balance N₂, at 37°C. Liquid H. pylori cultures were grown in $1 \times$ Ham's F-12 medium (Gibco, Grand Island, NY) containing 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Gibco) or brucella broth supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (BB10). The antibiotic chloramphenicol (Cm) was used for selection at a concentration of 13 μ g/ml. *H. pylori* strains were stored at -80° C in brain heart infusion medium supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, 1% (wt/vol) β-cyclodextrin, 25% glycerol, and 5% dimethyl sulfoxide.

Acid exposure. *H. pylori* bacteria cultured for ~36 h on CHBA were resuspended in sterile BB10, and their concentrations were determined by optical density (optical density at 600 nm $[OD_{600}]$). For the 2-h acid treatment to examine *imaA* and *ureA* transcript levels, the cell suspensions were diluted to an OD₆₀₀ of 1.75 in 1 ml of BB10 and then centrifuged at 2,500 × g for 8 min. The resulting pellet was resuspended in 2 ml of BB10 at a pH of either 5 or 7 and then incubated at 37°C under *H. pylori* culture conditions for 2 h. For the time course experiments measuring ImaA protein levels, cells were prepared the same way, except that the cultures were diluted to an OD₆₀₀ of 0.220 at the initiation of the incubation period. The cell density of each sample taken at every time point was then normalized with the OD₆₀₀ to ensure that equal amounts of protein were being examined for each respective culture.

Mammalian cell culture. AGS (ATCC CRL 1739) human gastric epithelial cells were obtained directly from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC) and maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) (Lonza, Walkersville, MD) containing 10% FBS at 37°C with 10% CO₂. To assay interleukin-8 (IL-8) production, AGS cells were seeded at 1×10^5 cells/ml in 24-well tissue culture dishes and incubated for 24 h. After this period, *H. pylori*, cultured for ~36 h on CHBA, were scraped from a plate and resuspended in sterile DMEM plus FBS to a concentration of 1×10^7 to create a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 100. *H. pylori* concentrations were determined by OD₆₀₀, assuming 3×10^8 bacteria/ml/OD₆₀₀ unit. AGS cells were infected for 2 h under 10% CO₂. After 2-h incubation, culture supernatant was removed, and AGS monolayers were washed twice in $1 \times$ phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), and then the cells were resuspended in TRIzol for RNA isolation.

Construction of H. pylori mutants. H. pylori SS1 *\Delta imaA::cat* mutant was created using splicing by overlap extension (SOE) PCR with the primers D1 (5'-GCCCTTAGTTCAGGTGTGGCAGTTTAAGG), D2 (5'-CAA GGAGGATCCCGGCCGCGGCTACCTTCTCATTTCCTAGATAGTAG CC), D3 (5'-ATCCACTTTTCAATCTATATCACGGTTGCCGGGAATG TGGGCATGCGAGTGGCG), and D4 (5'-GTTTTAGCGTCAATGTTG GGGTTGATTCTAATGG) that amplified the *imaA* chromosomal region and primers catF (F stands for forward) (17) and catR2 (R stands for reverse) (17) that amplified the *cat* gene. This gene deletion extends from 7 bp upstream of the *imaA* start codon to 31 bp upstream of the *imaA* stop codon and places a terminatorless cat gene in the same transcriptional orientation as imaA. To generate the deletion in H. pylori LSH100, genomic DNA from *H. pylori* SS1 $\Delta imaA::cat$ mutant was used to naturally transform wild-type strain LSH100 to create strain KO1370 (KO stands for knockout). The deletion in 26695 was produced by natural transformation of wild-type 26695 with genomic DNA from strain KO1370, to generate strain KO1374. Selection was done on CHBA containing Cm, and proper integration was confirmed with PCR using primers D4 and catR2. To generate the LSH100 $\Delta arsS::cat$ mutant (KO1371), the chloramphenicol resistance cassette (cat) was inserted into the arsS gene (HP0165) by SOE PCR. In brief, primers were generated that reside approximately 300 bp upstream of arsS, ArsS1.1 (5'-AACCCTATGATC CTAAGGAATTA) and ArsS3.1 (5'-ATCCACTTTTCAATCTATATCAA CGCAAAACCCCTTAACTCC), and downstream of arsS, ArsS2.2 (5'-G GCTTCCTGTAGCGTCCTTATG) and ArsS4.1 (5'-CCCAGTTTGTCG CACTGATAAGAGAACATGTTCAAACGATTGA). The two arsS PCR products were spliced to a third PCR product that contained the nonpolar cat allele generated from the primers catR2 and catF (17). The PCR product composed of the cat gene flanked by upstream and downstream regions of the arsS gene was then cloned into the TOPO-TA vector (Invitrogen) to generate plasmid pcat-arsS. This plasmid was then used to naturally transform strain LSH100 to Cm resistance. Proper integration was confirmed by PCR using primers ArsS1.1 and ArsS2.2 and by sequencing of that PCR product. The original *cagE* mutant was a kind gift from David McGee and Kylie Nolan (Table 1). It consists of an insertion of the *aphA3* gene at a unique BglII site in *cagE* (HP0544, cag23) that is ~600 bp from the start site of the 3,000-bp gene. We used genomic DNA from this strain to naturally transform either wild-type strain LSH100 or mutant strain KO1370 to kanamycin resistance.

Mouse colonization experiments. H. pylori strains used for colonization analyses were passaged minimally in the lab (two or three times) and then inoculated into either Ham's F-12 culture medium (75) for H. pylori LSH100 or BB10 for *H. pylori* SS1 for ~18 h, as described above. After this period, cells were analyzed to determine motility and cell concentration (OD₆₀₀) prior to infection. For all infections, 4- to 6-week-old male FVB/N mice (Charles River) were housed in an Association for the Assessment and Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care-accredited facility in microisolator cages with free access to standard food and water. All animal procedures were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. Approximately 1 ml of *H. pylori* cells containing 9×10^7 to 1×10^{8} CFU/ml were used to orally gavage the mice. For coinfections, wild-type and mutant cells were grown separately and then combined in equal concentrations. To determine the true CFU/ml of each culture, all cultures were serially diluted and plated on CHBA. Infections were allowed to persist for 2 to 3 weeks, after which time mouse stomachs were excised as described before (57), homogenized using the Bullet Blender (Next Advance, Averill Park, NY), and then plated on CHBA with or without Cm (described above) supplemented with 10 µg of nalidixic acid/ml and 200 µg of bacitracin/ml. For the coinfection, the mouse stomachs were plated on both nonselective CHBA and CHBA supplemented with Cm as described previously (74). The cell counts obtained from the input and output data allowed us to calculate the competitive index, as follows: (CFU/g of mutant strain output/CFU/g of wild-type strain output)/(CFU/g of mutant strain input/CFU/g of wild-type strain input).

For keratinocyte-derived chemokine (KC) (mouse IL-8 homolog) detection in mouse tissue, infections persisted for 3 weeks (2). When excising the stomach, half of the tissue was placed in BB10 for plating and the other half was placed immediately in liquid N₂ and then stored at -80° C within an hour of extraction. To isolate RNA, tissue samples were suspended in TRIzol and then homogenized using the Polytron (Kinematica, Switzerland) automated tissue homogenizer.

RNA preparation. Total RNA was isolated from *H. pylori* strains LSH100 and its isogenic mutants, $\Delta imaA::cat$ and $\Delta arsS::cat$ mutant strains, using TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) combined with RNeasy columns (Qiagen, Valencia, CA). Bacterial cells were pelleted and resuspended in 1 ml of TRIzol at room temperature for 5 min before 200 μ l of chloroform was added. Samples were then centrifuged (12,000 × g, 15 min, 4°C), and the aqueous layer was removed and placed into new tubes. RNA was precipitated by combining 500 μ l of isopropanol with the aqueous layer and incubating at room temperature for 10 min, followed by a centrifugation as described above. The RNA pellet was washed with 75% ethanol, dried, and resuspended in RNase-free water. To remove contaminating genomic DNA from purified RNA, samples were treated with 4 U of RNase-free DNase I (Ambion) for 3 h at 37°C, followed by

further purification using the Qiagen RNeasy spin columns as specified in the manufacturer's instructions. RNA was ultimately eluted in RNase-free water, RNA concentrations were quantified on a Nanodrop spectrophotometer (Nanodrop, Wilmington, DE), and the absence of contaminating genomic DNA was confirmed BY PCR. RNA was immediately transcribed into cDNA (see below), and the remaining sample was stored at -80° C.

RNA was isolated from AGS cells in a similar manner. Briefly, 1 ml TRIzol reagent was added directly to cells in the culture dish per 10 cm^2 of culture dish surface. The cells, including infecting *H. pylori* cells, were lysed directly in the culture dish by pipetting the cells up and down several times. Homogenized samples then underwent the same preparation as described above, except the DNase I treatment and secondary purification with the Qiagen RNeasy kit were omitted.

cDNA synthesis and quantitative real-time PCR. Total RNA served as a template for cDNA synthesis using the Tetro cDNA synthesis kit (Bioline, London, United Kingdom). cDNA synthesis was carried out following the manufacturer's protocol, starting with 0.5 to 1 µg total RNA, 50 ng random hexamers, and 10 mM deoxynucleoside triphosphates (dNTPs) per 20-µl reaction mixture. The mixture was incubated at 65°C for 10 min before being combined with 10 µl of master mix, which includes the reverse transcriptase enzyme (200 U/µl). The reaction proceeded for 1 h at 37°C until the reverse transcriptase enzyme was inactivated at 70°C for 15 min. Quantitative real-time PCR was performed using the Opticon 2 real-time cycler (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA) and SYBR green supermix reagents (Bioline, London, United Kingdom). For relative expression of imaA and ureA, transcript levels were normalized to the levels of groEL (69) in each sample. Transcripts were amplified with HP0289 For1.1 (For stands for forward) (5'-TAACGATCCAAAACGCT TCC) and HP0289 Rev1.1 (Rev stands for reverse) (5'-TCCCTTGAGGC GAGAGTGATT), UreA F1 and UreA R1 (36), and groEL F (JVO-529) and groEL R (JVO-5298) (69). Il8 (55) and TNF- α (84) expression levels from AGS cells were normalized to 18S (55) rRNA, and KC levels from mouse tissues were normalized to GAPDH (24). All reactions were performed in triplicate, and a melting curve analysis was used to ensure that a single product was amplified with each primer set. To validate RNA purity, no reverse transcriptase control reactions were also performed. imaA gene expression at low pH was determined from 4 independent experiments, and statistical differences were evaluated with the Mann-Whitney U-test. Relative expression of Il8 was determined from 5 independent experiments, and statistical differences were evaluated by Student's t test. All differences in gene expression were calculated by the $\Delta\Delta C_T$ method (47).

ELISA. Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays (ELISAs) for human IL-8 were performed using the Human IL-8 EASIA kit (Invitrogen). AGS cells were infected by either wild-type *H. pylori* or its isogenic mutant, $\Delta imaA::cat$ mutant strain, at concentrations of 1×10^7 , 2×10^6 , and 1×10^5 cells/ml, and culture supernatant was preserved for ELISA at 4, 6, 12, and 24 h postinfection.

Proteinase K treatment of *H. pylori* **cells.** Digestion of *H. pylori* outer membrane proteins with the extracellular protease, proteinase K, was conducted as described previously by Sabarth et al. (63). *H. pylori* cells grown for 48 h on CHBA plates were collected with an inoculation loop and suspended in 1 ml of phosphate-buffered saline. Cells were centrifuged at $5,000 \times g$ for 10 min and then resuspended in PBS at a concentration of 3×10^8 cells/ml, based on the OD₆₀₀. Cells were treated with either 40 or 400 µg/ml proteinase K for 30 min at room temperature in $1 \times$ PBS. The reaction was halted with the addition of 5 mM phenylmethyl-sulfonyl fluoride (PMSF); the cells were then washed twice in PBS. After a final centrifugation at 5,000 $\times g$ for 5 min, the cells were resuspended in PBS and then diluted into NuPAGE 4× sample buffer (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) for subsequent Western blot analysis.

Sarcosine preparation of *H. pylori* outer membrane. The sarcosineinsoluble outer membrane fraction was prepared as described previously (7) with slight modifications. *H. pylori* wild-type strain SS1 and its isogenic mutant, $\Delta imaA::cat$ mutant strain, were grown on CHBA for 48 h.



FIG 1 ImaA contains hallmarks of autotransporter proteins. The schematic diagram shows the highly conserved domains in ImaA as predicted by SignalP 3.0 and SMART and the N-terminal (N') signal peptide (SP) and the C-terminal end (C'). The signal peptide probability was 1.00, and the autotransporter E value was 5×10^{-7} . Numbers below and above the schematic diagram indicate the amino acid positions of predicted domains within ImaA.

To optimize the outer membrane yield, each respective strain was grown to confluent growth on two full CHBA plates, with all of the cells utilized for fractionation. Cells were collected using a sterile inoculation loop and suspended in 1 ml of 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5) and collected by centrifugation (8,000 \times g, 10 min, 4°C). The pellet was then resuspended in 1 ml of 20 mM Tris-HCl containing a protease inhibitor (1 mM PMSF) and a cell wall hydrolase (0.25 mg/ml lysozyme). The resuspended pellet was sonicated 9 times for 15 s each time (Fisher sonicator, 80% amplitude), and unbroken bacteria were removed by centrifugation (6,000 \times g, 10 min, 4°C). Total membranes were isolated by centrifugation for 45 min at 50,000 \times g and 4°C. The supernatant containing the soluble fraction was removed, and the total membrane pellet was washed once in PBS, resuspended in 1 ml sonication buffer containing 2.0% (wt/vol) sodium lauryl sarcosine, and incubated at room temperature for 30 min. The inner membrane fraction was separated by centrifugation (50,000 \times g, 45 min, 4°C), and the pellet containing the outer membrane was resuspended in sarcosine for an additional treatment to optimize outer membrane purity. The resuspended pellet was incubated at room temperature for another 30 min and then centrifuged (50,000 \times g, 45 min, 4°C). The final pellet was resuspended in 1 ml of 20 mM Tris-HCl and stored at -20°C.

Western blotting and ImaA antibody creation. The ani-ImaA-1 polyclonal antibody was prepared in rabbits using a 19-amino-acid peptide (amino acids 2065 to 2084) from the passenger domain of the ImaA protein (Open Biosystems, Huntsville, AL). The antibody specifically recognizes ImaA, as well as several unidentified nonspecific proteins that were significantly different in size.

Proteins for Western blot analysis were resuspended in $4 \times$ NuPAGE sample buffer (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) with 0.025% 2-mercaptoethanol and heated at 70°C for 15 min. Samples were separated on 3 to 8% NuPAGE Tris-acetate gels for 60 min at 150 V. Following electrophoresis, the proteins were transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride membranes (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA) with the Bio-Rad semidry transfer cell for 35 min at 16 V. The membranes were then incubated with a 1:300 dilution of anti-ImaA-1 antibody or a 1:2,000 dilution of anti-GST-TlpA22 (GST stands for glutathione S-transferase) antibody (83) for ~18 h at 4°C. For visualization, blots were incubated with goat anti-rabbit antibody conjugated to horseradish peroxidase (Santa Cruz Biotech) at a dilution of 1:2,000 for 1 h, followed by incubation with luminol, *p*-coumaric acid, and hydrogen peroxide. Luminescent blots were visualized by exposure to Ultra Cruz autoradiography film (Santa Cruz Biotech).

RESULTS

H. pylori ImaA is predicted to be an autotransporter. To examine the functional significance of the uncharacterized *H. pylori* genes that were upregulated in the stomach (17), we employed *in silico* sequence analyses of each protein to identify signature domains. The gene predicted to be regulated by promoter *Pivi77*, *HP0289*, is predicted to encode a protein with all of the typical characteristics of an autotransporter (Fig. 1). On the basis of ex-

periments described below, we designate HP0289 as ImaA (immunomodulating autotransporter). imaA is transcribed monocistronically (69), and the protein encoded by this gene is 2,893 amino acids in length with a calculated molecular mass of 311 kilodaltons. The SignalP algorithm predicts that ImaA bears an N-terminal signal peptide with a signal peptidase cleavage site between positions 42 and 43 (VYA-NN) (10). ImaA also carries the highly conserved C-terminal beta-barrel autotransporter domain, readily identified by domain finding software such as the Simple Modular Architecture Research Tool (SMART) (67). The passenger domain of ImaA, which likely confers the effector function of the protein, is 2,581 amino acids in length. This region has little conservation with any other previously characterized protein, with the exception of three "VacA2" regions that are 59 amino acids long. In the initial sequencing of H. pylori, HP0289 was annotated as a toxin-like protein, with small regions of similarity noted between VacA, HP0289 and two other H. pylori autotransporters (HP0610 and HP0922) (76). The main block of homology is at the C-terminal autotransporter domain. There were, however, additional regions of low similarity (26 to 31%) at several spots in the central passenger domain called VacA2 regions, although these regions do not correspond to a functional portion of VacA. Based on this homology, ImaA has been annotated as a VacA paralog. Our analysis, however, suggests that ImaA is an autotransporter that is not specifically related to VacA.

ImaA promotes mouse stomach colonization. RIVET studies in several organisms have identified pathogen colonization and virulence factors (15-17, 44, 49, 66, 78). Therefore, we first examined whether *imaA* was required for mouse stomach colonization, a model routinely utilized in *H. pylori* studies. We generated an *imaA* mutant, $\Delta imaA$::*cat*, in which nearly the entire *imaA* open reading frame (ORF) is replaced with the chloramphenicol acetyltransferase (cat) gene, and thus is a null allele. This allele was used to replace the endogenous imaA locus in the H. pylori strain LSH100 (50). LSH100 is a mouse-adapted derivative of H. pylori G27 (19). LSH100 arose from mouse adaptation of strain G27 to create strain NSH57, followed by repair of a mutation in the *fliM* locus to the original wild-type sequence to yield LSH100 (50). We used the LSH100 strain, because both it and the original RIVET strain, mG27, were derived from the same parent, but LSH100 infects mice more consistently. Because of their high genetic relatedness, we felt that experiments with both mG27 and LSH100 would not have revealed significantly different conclusions. Unless noted otherwise, all subsequent in vivo and in vitro H. pylori infections, localization, and gene expression experiments were



FIG 2 (A) The *H. pylori* LSH100 $\Delta imaA::cat$ mutant colonizes mice at levels significantly lower than those of the wild-type *H. pylori* LSH100 parent. Oral single-strain infection studies with the wild-type *H. pylori* or $\Delta imaA::cat$ mutant were carried out using male FVB/N mice. Infections persisted for 2 or 3 weeks. Single-strain infections were conducted with 7 mice for the wild-type strain and with 10 mice for the $\Delta imaA::cat$ mutant. Each circle represents the value for one infected mouse, derived from independent 2-week (open circles) or 3-week (filled circles) infections, and the solid or broken line represents the mean for the group of mice. The values between the two groups of mice in panel A were significantly different (*P* = 0.01 by Student's *t* test) and are indicated by the bracket and asterisk. (B) The *H. pylori* LSH100 $\Delta imaA::cat$ mutant is outcompeted by the wild-type strain in a coinfection colonization assay. Each point represents the competitive index for one mouse stomach for eight mice in two independent infections. The competitive index is a ratio and is calculated as follows: (mutant output/wild-type index] (OI to 1). (C) The *H. pylori* SS1 $\Delta imaA::cat$ mutant colonizes mice at levels that are comparable to those of wild-type *H. pylori* SS1. These infections persisted for 2 weeks, with four mice for the wild-type *H. pylori* in two independent infections with wild-type *H. pylori* SS1 $\Delta imaA::cat$ mutant is not outcompeted for mouse colonization in a coinfection with wild-type *H. pylori* SS1 $\Delta imaA::cat$ mutant is not outcompeted for mouse colonization in a coinfection with wild-type *H. pylori* SS1

done with strain LSH100 to maintain consistency with our mouse-infecting strain. Male FVB/N mice were infected with wild-type LSH100 or its isogenic $\Delta imaA::cat$ mutant for 2 to 3 weeks. These time points have been widely used in other H. pylori murine colonization studies and have been shown to accurately reflect colonization levels at longer infection time points (8, 18, 27, 52, 58, 72, 74, 80). While the imaA mutant was able to sustain infection for these lengths of time, the output CFU/gram stomach was significantly lower than that obtained from wild-type infections (Fig. 2A). To address whether the colonization defect of the $\Delta imaA::cat$ strain would be altered by the presence of wild-type H. pylori, we carried out coinfection experiments with equal concentrations of wild-type and $\Delta imaA::cat$ strains. Two weeks postinfection, we determined the ratio of CFU/g of stomach for mutant and wild-type bacteria and calculated a competitive index. In all infections, the imaA mutant was greatly outcompeted by the wildtype bacteria (Fig. 2B). These results demonstrate that *H. pylori* requires ImaA to reach wild-type gastric colonization levels. We did not complement the imaA::cat mutant, because imaA is over 8,000 base pairs in length and therefore would be readily targeted by H. pylori's extensively developed restriction-modification system, which comprises over 4% of the genome (46). Despite advances in methods to circumvent the *H. pylori* restriction-modification system, gene complementation remains one of the most difficult endeavors in *H. pylori* molecular genetics (22).

ImaA has been shown to be important in other *H. pylori* strains. Specifically, an *imaA* (HP0289) transposon mutant in *H. pylori* strain G1.1 was outcompeted by the wild-type *H. pylori* strain for gerbil colonization (37). To expand this analysis, we checked whether a third strain, SS1, would similarly need *imaA* for stomach colonization. We found, surprisingly, that *H. pylori* SS1 Δ *imaA*::*cat* colonized as well as the wild type did in both single-strain and competition infections (Fig. 2C and D). This strain difference is not surprising, given that others have observed that there is extensive variability in whether particular *H. pylori* proteins are essential for mouse colonization (8). Thus, these results suggest that ImaA is needed by some strains and that ImaA's importance is possibly dependent on each strain's unique interactions with the host.

ImaA is secreted to the outer membrane of the cell. We next wanted to confirm the *in silico* prediction that ImaA is exported to the outer membrane of the cell. We first generated a peptide anti-



FIG 3 ImaA localizes to the outer membrane. (A) Whole cells of *H. pylori* strain LSH100 were treated with different concentrations of proteinase K (40 or 400 mg ml⁻¹) or with no proteinase K as a control. The top panels show blots probed with anti-ImaA-1, while the bottom panels are probed with anti-GST-TlpA22 antibody (α -Tlp), which recognizes inner membrane chemore-ceptors (83). Similar results were obtained with strain mG27 (not shown). (B) Sarcosine-insoluble outer membrane (OM) fractions and sarcosine-soluble inner membrane (IM) fractions were obtained from wild-type (WT) and *H. pylori* SS1 Δ *imaA*::cat mutant cells and then probed with anti-ImaA-1. In both panels, the positions of full-length ImaA are indicated by black arrows labeled ImaA, and the positions of nonspecific proteins recognized by the anti-ImaA serum are indicated by black arrowheads.

body directed at the passenger domain of the protein that accurately detects mature ImaA protein from whole-cell lysates (Fig. 3). We then used proteinase K digestion to assess whether ImaA was surface localized in H. pylori LSH100 and mG27. Proteinase K does not diffuse across the outer membrane of Gram-negative bacteria and thus cleaves only proteins residing on the bacterial surface. This approach has been widely used to assess autotransporter surface localization (20, 45, 77). As predicted for a surfacelocalized protein, ImaA is digested by the protease and is thus surface exposed in strain LSH100 (Fig. 3A) as well as in strain mG27 (not shown). To demonstrate that proteinase K treatments were not breaching the membrane and degrading internal proteins, we determined that the TlpABC chemoreceptors localized on the inner membrane were not digested (Fig. 3A). To further validate these findings and to assess whether ImaA localization to the outer membrane is conserved in strain SS1, we performed subcellular fractionation experiments with the detergent sarcosine, which selectively solubilizes the inner membrane and thus enables separation from the outer membrane. Western blot analysis demonstrated that ImaA is in the outer membrane fraction, as well as somewhat in the inner membrane (Fig. 3B). A control blot, using antibody that detects the inner membrane protein, showed that the fractions were fairly pure (Fig. 3B). Inner membranelocalized ImaA may represent protein that is transiting to the outer membrane or an indication of incomplete membrane separation. Other studies have detected autotransporter proteins in both inner and outer membrane fractions (5). Of note, these analyses were performed in three different H. pylori strain backgrounds, providing strong evidence that ImaA is translocated to the outer membrane. In addition, we did not detect any ImaA in concentrated supernatant from H. pylori cultures (data not

shown), suggesting that ImaA stays associated with the outer membrane.

ImaA is a member of the acid-responsive ArsRS regulon. The RIVET studies showed that imaA transcription is upregulated within the host environment (17). Therefore, we wanted to identify the signal responsible for inducing imaA in vivo. In a recently published H. pylori whole transcriptome paper, Sharma et al. demonstrated that imaA/hp0289 is induced 10-fold at low pH (69). Acidic pH is the key environmental signal for activating the H. pylori two-component regulatory system ArsRS (acid-responsive signaling) (60, 62). We thus examined whether imaA is a member of the ArsRS regulon by creating a null mutant for the histidine kinase ArsS and observing imaA gene expression through quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) under neutral and acidic conditions. The response regulator, ArsR, is an essential gene so the ArsS mutant serves as the ArsRS representative (9). We employed the housekeeping gene, groEL, for normalization, as used in previous work (69). After 2 h of acidic pH exposure, imaA expression increased \sim 10-fold in the wild-type background but not in the arsS mutant (Fig. 4A). Furthermore, *imaA* expression is depressed in the arsS deletion strain, even at neutral pH (Fig. 4A). These results suggest that *imaA* is a member of the ArsRS regulon. We additionally compared the expression of *imaA* to that of a known ArsRS-regulated acid-induced gene, ureA (61). We found that ureA gene expression in wild-type H. pylori was induced ~14fold in acid over expression at neutral pH in a partially arsS-dependent manner (Fig. 4B), similar to the findings of Pflock et al. (59). At neutral pH, ureA required ArsS for expression more so than imaA did. These results thus show that the experimental conditions affect ArsS regulon members as expected. Furthermore, our data support that imaA is a member of the ArsRS regulon, due to the ArsS-dependent increased expression in acid, but that it is not regulated identically to ureA.

We next examined whether ImaA protein levels were affected by pH. For these experiments, we grew *H. pylori* cultures at pH 5 and then sampled them after 2, 5, or 8 h. Despite observing a 10-fold increase in *imaA* mRNA (Fig. 4A), we did not detect any elevation in ImaA protein levels at low pH (Fig. 4C). We did observe, however, that ImaA protein expression was *arsS* dependent at low pH (Fig. 4D). This observation suggested that *H. pylori* relies on ArsRS to maintain ImaA expression under acidic conditions. All together, these results thus show that acid induces *imaA* transcription and that ArsRS is needed to maintain both *imaA* transcript and ImaA protein levels at acidic pH.

Loss of *imaA* creates *H. pylori* strains that induce elevated *Il8* transcription. We next examined whether loss of *imaA* influenced levels of inflammatory mediators in mouse and *in vitro* cell culture models. Colonization of *H. pylori* in the stomach results in the release of the chemoattractant IL-8 in humans or its analog, *KC*, in mice. IL-8 stimulates the infiltration of neutrophils into the gastric mucosa, leading to chronic inflammation (31, 56); therefore, *Il8* transcription levels are often used as a readout for a pro-inflammatory response (41). To examine ImaA's influence on *Il8/KC* levels, we performed *KC* or *Il8* qRT-PCR on mouse tissue or AGS gastric epithelial cells infected with *H. pylori*. In mice infected with *H. pylori* LSH100 (wild-type) or $\Delta imaA::cat$ mutant strains for 3 weeks, a time point used by others for similar analyses (2), we found very low levels of *KC* overall. There was, however, elevated *KC* in mice infected with *H. pylori* $\Delta imaA::cat$ compared



FIG 4 The ArsRS two-component regulatory system influences *imaA* transcription. (A) Quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) was performed using cDNA generated from the *H. pylori* LSH100 strain or its isogenic mutant, $\Delta arsS::cat$ mutant, that were exposed to either neutral or acidic BB10 for 2 h. The levels of expression of the genes in the wild type (WT) at pH 5 and in the $\Delta arsS::cat$ mutant at pH 5 are shown relative to the values for the WT at pH 7 from four independent biological replicates, each performed in triplicate, and normalized to the housekeeping gene *groEL*. Values for *imaA* expression that are significantly higher or lower (P < 0.05 by Wilcoxon rank sum test) are indicated by an L-shaped bracket and asterisk. (B) The *ureA* gene responds to acid and depends on the biological replicates, each performed in triplicate. Values for *ureA* expression that are significantly higher or lower (P < 0.05 by Wilcoxon rank sum test) are indicated by an L-shaped bracket and asterisk. (B) The *ureA* gene responds to acid and depends on the ArsRS regulatory system for expression. qRT-PCR was performed with the same cDNA that was used in the *imaA* transcription analysis, four independent biological replicates, each performed in triplicate. Values for *ureA* expression that are significantly higher or lower (P < 0.05 by Wilcoxon rank sum test) are indicated by an L-shaped bracket and asterisk. (C) Western blots with the anti-ImaA-1 antibody showing ImaA expression at multiple time points under both neutral and acidic conditions in strain LSH100 or in the $\Delta arsS::cat$ mutant strain. These data are representative of the results of three independent time course experiments.

to those infected with the wild-type strain (Fig. 5A). While the difference in KC levels between uninfected mice and mice infected with the $\Delta imaA::cat$ mutant was significant, there was minimal difference in KC levels between uninfected mice infected and mice infected with wild-type H. pylori (Fig. 5A). These experiments thus suggest that ImaA's normal function is to decrease KC levels. To confirm this finding, we employed the well-established AGS human gastric cell model to investigate Il8 levels. AGS cells infected with wild-type H. pylori for 2 h revealed an ~75-fold induction in Il8 transcription in AGS cells compared to the uninfected cells, while the $\Delta imaA$::cat mutant strain generated a significantly greater \sim 189-fold induction in *Il8* levels (Fig. 5B). To confirm that *Il8* transcript levels seen in $\Delta imaA::cat$ mutant infections translated to increased levels of the protein product, we next measured secreted IL-8 levels with an ELISA. Il8 transcript levels were measured from AGS cells that were infected with H. pylori at an multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 100; however, when we measured IL-8 protein levels at this MOI, we saw no difference in cytokine production between $\Delta imaA::cat$ mutant and wild-type H. pylori infections (data not shown). We reasoned that the amount of H. pylori might be saturating the IL-8 protein production, so we lowered the MOI. When we used an MOI of 1, we witnessed elevated cytokine levels in the $\Delta imaA::cat$ mutant compared to wild-type H. pylori infections at 4, 6, and 12 h postinfection, with hour 12 providing a significant difference in IL-8 between the wild-type bacterial and $\Delta imaA::cat$ mutant infections (Fig. 5C). These data suggest that ImaA serves to modulate the amount of IL-8 that is generated during infection.

We next examined whether the inflammation phenotype associated with the loss of *imaA* in *H. pylori* LSH100 was common to other CagA-positive *H. pylori* strains, so we created an Δ *imaA::cat* mutant in the widely used CagA-positive strain, 26695, and performed AGS cell infections. Similar to the response we witnessed with *H. pylori* LSH100, the *H. pylori* 26695 Δ *imaA::cat* mutant infections induced higher levels of *Il8* transcription overall than the wild-type *H. pylori* infections did (Fig. 5D). Wild-type *H. pylori* 26695 induced an ~106-fold increase in *Il8* transcription compared to uninfected AGS cells, while the 26695 Δ *imaA::cat* mutant generated a significantly greater ~274-fold increase in *Il8* transcription.

In addition to IL-8, H. pylori infection promotes the production of numerous proinflammatory cytokines. To test whether the $\Delta imaA::cat$ mutant induces elevated concentrations of other immune mediators, we measured transcript levels of the proinflammatory cytokine tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α). TNF- α is associated with an increased severity and distribution of gastritis in infected individuals (70). We found that AGS cells infected with wild-type *H. pylori* produced an \sim 7-fold increase in *TNF*- α transcript levels compared to uninfected cells, while AGS cells infected with the $\Delta imaA$::cat mutant displayed a significantly greater 19fold increase in *TNF*- α levels (Fig. 5E). Taken together, these results suggest that in the absence of ImaA, there is a stronger induction of the mammalian proinflammatory pathway. When mouse tissue was examined for $TNF-\alpha$, there was no difference in the levels between the uninfected mice and mice infected with either the wild-type or $\Delta imaA::cat$ mutant strain (data not



FIG 5 KC and 118 levels are significantly elevated in Δ ima::cat mouse and AGS cell infections, respectively. (A) Male FVB/N mice were infected with either the wild-type LSH100 strain or its isogenic mutant, the *AimaA::cat* mutant, for 3 weeks. Quantitative RT-PCR (qRT-PCR) was performed on whole gastric tissue to analyze the expression of KC using primers by the method of Yamaoka et al. (84). Mouse samples are the same as in Fig. 2A and include 5 mice infected with the wild-type LSH100 strain, 8 mice infected with the $\Delta imaA$::cat mutant, and 6 uninfected mice. There was a significant difference (P < 0.05 by Student's t test) in KC between uninfected mice and mice infected with the Δ*ima*A::cat mutant as indicated by the L-shaped bracket and asterisk. (B) *Il8* transcript levels are elevated in AGS cells infected with the $\Delta imaA$::cat mutant. For transcript analysis, AGS cells were infected with either wild-type LSH100 or its isogenic single mutants, the $\Delta imaA::cat$ or cagE::kan mutant, or the $\Delta imaA::cat$ cagE::kan double mutant at an MOI of 100. qRT-PCR was performed to analyze the expression of interleukin-8 (118) using primers by the method of Nazarenko et al. (55) after 2 h of infection. These data represent 5 independent infections (biological replicates) with reactions done in triplicate. All differences in expression were calculated by the $\Delta\Delta C_T$ method (47) and statistically significant differences (P < 0.01 by Student's t test) for AGS cell infections are indicated by an L-shaped bracket and asterisk. (C) ELISAs for IL-8 levels were conducted on culture media taken from AGS cells infected with either wild-type H. pylori or with the $\Delta imaA$::cat mutant (MOI of 1) at the following time points: 4, 6, and 12 h postinfection. Data show two biological replicates, each done with two technical replicates. Values that were statistically significantly different (P < 0.03 by Wilcoxon rank sum test) are indicated by an asterisk. (D) Il8 expression levels in AGS cells infected with either wild-type strain 26695 or its isogenic mutant, the *\DeltaimaA::cat* mutant strain. Data represent 5 independent infections with reactions done in triplicate. The differences in expression were analyzed by the $\Delta\Delta C_T$ method (47). Values that were statistically significantly different (P = 0.01 by Student's t test) are indicated by an L-shaped bracket and asterisk. (E) Analysis of TNF- α transcript levels in AGS cells infected with wild-type LSH100 or its isogenic mutant, the $\Delta imaA$:cat mutant strain. Data represent 5 independent infections with reactions done in triplicate. The differences in expression were analyzed by the $\Delta\Delta C_T$ method (47). Values that were statistically significantly different (P < 0.05 by Student's t test) are indicated by an L-shaped bracket and asterisk.

shown). This outcome is not entirely unexpected, as *H. pylori*induced TNF- α levels appear to be much smaller than *H. pylori*induced IL-8 levels (85).

The cagPAI type IV secretion system underlies the enhanced IL-8 production seen in imaA mutant infections. H. pylori is known to control IL-8 levels by action of the type IV secretion system (T4SS) encoded by the cagPAI. To establish whether the increase in inflammation we witnessed in the $\Delta imaA::cat$ infections was dependent on the activity of the cagPAI type IV secretion system (cag-T4SS), we created the $\Delta imaA::cat \Delta cagE::kan$ double mutant and examined Il8 levels using the same in vitro infection model. cagE encodes a putative ATPase and is required for IL-8 induction (21). cagE mutants had dramatically decreased levels of *Il8* transcription (Fig. 5B), as predicted from other studies with strains related to H. pylori G27 (6). The cagE effect was dominant over the *imaA Il8* upregulation, as both a $\Delta cagE$ single mutant and the $\Delta cagE \Delta imaA::cat$ double mutant induced *Il8* levels that were not significantly above that of the uninfected AGS cells (Fig. 5B). This outcome suggests that the immunomodulatory activity of ImaA requires cagPAI function.

DISCUSSION

H. pylori relies on multiple outer membrane proteins to chronically persist within the gastric environment (32, 51, 68). In this study, we demonstrate that a previously uncharacterized *H. pylori* autotransporter, HP0289 or ImaA, is important for host colonization and dampens the inflammatory response. Furthermore, we show that *imaA* is under the control of the acid-responsive ArsRS two-component regulatory system. Our findings thus support the hypothesis that the *in vivo*-induced *imaA* gene contributes to *H. pylori* pathogenesis and that the protein product normally decreases the inflammatory response brought about by the action of the *cag*PAI.

H. pylori must adapt to the changing landscape of the stomach during the course of a chronic infection (12). One way the bacterium can accomplish this adaptation is through tailoring the expression of virulence genes to particular conditions. We found that *imaA* transcription is under the control of the ArsRS regulon. Whole-genome transcriptional profiling of H. pylori strains cultured at low pH identified more than 100 genes that were differentially expressed in an ars-dependent manner, although imaA was not one of them (62). Similarly, others have found that there is some variability in H. pylori gene expression at low pH. For example, *a*-carbonic anhydrase (HP1186) expression has been shown to be repressed in some cases and upregulated in others at low pH (53, 81). We found that *imaA* expression is induced under acidic conditions, similar to the findings of Sharma and colleagues (69), and furthermore, we found that transcriptional control of imaA is mediated to a significant degree by the ArsRS two-component system. While imaA mRNA was greatly increased at low pH, we did not detect a corresponding increase in ImaA protein levels at low pH. This paradox of increased transcript levels not directly translating to increases in protein levels is not unprecedented in studies of the H. pylori ArsRS system. Loh et al. recently examined the proteomes of wild-type H. pylori and an isogenic arsS mutant under neutral and acidic conditions and compared them to the previously established transcriptional profiles for each strain under these conditions (48). They found very few acidresponsive protein changes in either strain, as only 15 proteins were differentially expressed in total. *imaA* likely belongs to the

group of more than 100 genes that show altered transcriptional profiles at low pH but do not exhibit clear changes in protein levels. Loh et al. attributed the discrepancy between transcript and protein levels to posttranscriptional regulatory processes, which may dilute alterations in acid-induced protein expression (48). Despite discrepancies in protein levels, it is clear that ArsS is important for expression of *imaA* at low pH, demonstrating that *imaA* is under the control of the ArsRS regulon.

We show here that ImaA is important for mouse colonization. ImaA was previously found to be crucial for colonization in a different animal model, the gerbil, as part of a global transposon mutagenesis screen done in strain G1.1 that was evaluated in a competition model (37). Thus, these two studies demonstrate that ImaA's presence is necessary to achieve wild-type gastric colonization in multiple animal models. Conversely, a third analyzed strain, SS1, tolerates the loss of imaA in murine infections. Of note, strain SS1 does express ImaA (Fig. 3). There are many differences between strain SS1 and strain LSH100/G27, the most notable of which is that SS1 has an inactive cagPAI T4SS, while that of G27 and its mouse-selected variants is active (8). Strain G1.1, like SS1, does not secrete CagA (25, 34). Thus, ImaA appears to be important for colonization in both Cag-positive and Cag-negative strains, and furthermore, ImaA may have roles in the host that are not limited to affecting the *cag*PAI, although those remain to be determined.

A rodent colonization defect is unusual with H. pylori outer membrane proteins. The H. pylori adhesin proteins BabAB or SabA do not display any colonization defects, and AlpAB exhibits a defect that is statistically insignificant (4, 68). In fact, the only characterized H. pylori outer membrane protein to display a rodent colonization defect is the autotransporter VacA (64). VacA, like ImaA, possesses immunomodulatory activity albeit through suppression of T-cell activation (13). However, unlike VacA, ImaA appears to act while cell associated, as we were unable to identify an ImaA secreted peptide in cell culture supernatant. Interestingly, it was recently shown that mutants deficient for the laminin binding proteins AlpA and AlpB caused greater levels of inflammation in gerbil infections (68). This outcome, however, was not attributed to any inherent AlpAB immunomodulatory properties but rather the mutant's inability to intimately adhere to gastric epithelial cells and express other immunosuppressive proteins. We were unable to detect any in vitro adherence ability associated with ImaA (data not shown), so we believe it operates in a different manner from AlpAB.

A central component of *H. pylori*-induced inflammation is delivery of proinflammatory molecules into host cells via the cagPAI T4SS. We have demonstrated that the $\Delta imaA::cat$ mutant evokes a significant increase in expression of the proinflammatory cytokines IL-8, and TNF-α compared to AGS cell infections with wildtype *H. pylori*. While the bulk of the inflammation experiments were done with the *H. pylori* G27 derivative, LSH100, we also found that ImaA had a similar effect in strain 26695, suggesting that ImaA function is conserved. Furthermore, we found that the imaA mutant inflammation phenotype requires a functional cagPAI T4SS. This outcome suggests that ImaA acts to diminish the normal cagPAI-mediated induction of proinflammatory cytokines. The cagPAI T4SS aids the delivery of two effectors capable of inducing IL-8 expression in epithelial cells, CagA and peptidoglycan (14, 79). While we do not know how ImaA interacts with the cagPAI, it is not unprecedented for *H. pylori* outer membrane proteins to influence *cag*PAI T4SS activity. The ABO/Lewis b (Le^b) blood group antigen binding protein, BabA, facilitates interactions between the *cag*PAI T4SS machinery and the host cell. Strains null for *babA* induce reduced levels of IL-8 in infected host cells, opposite to what we see in *imaA* mutant infections (33). Interestingly, the protein homology/analogy recognition Engine (PHYRE) predicts that ImaA has homology to the bacterial integrin binding protein, invasin (E = 1.8×10^{-4}). Components of the *cag*PAI T4SS pilus bind directly to the $\alpha_5\beta_1$ integrin receptor to facilitate secretion of CagA and peptidoglycan into the host cell cytoplasm (40). Thus, it is possible that ImaA and the *cag*PAI T4SS machinery compete for integrin binding and that in the absence of ImaA, there is increased T4SS binding and therefore, enhanced effector molecule secretion into host cells.

In conclusion, we have determined that the *H. pylori* hostinduced *HP0289* gene encodes a surface-localized autotransporter protein that we designate ImaA. ImaA promotes colonization of the host stomach and diminishes the inflammatory response. Specifically, ImaA decreases the amount of *ll8* transcript generated by the *H. pylori cag*PAI. *imaA* expression is furthermore controlled by the acid-sensing two-component regulatory system ArsRS in response to acid. These findings support the notion that genes induced *in vivo* play a central role in *H. pylori* pathogenesis. Furthermore, they suggest that *H. pylori* has sophisticated mechanisms to modulate the host inflammatory response by controlling expression of a protein that decreases bacterially triggered inflammatory gene expression.

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