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The Impact of *msaABCR* On *sarA*-Associated Phenotypes is Different in Divergent Clinical Isolates of *Staphylococcus aureus*

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Rom, J. S., Ramirez, A. M., Beenken, K. E., Sahukhal, G. S., Elasri, M. O., Smeltzer, M. S. (2019). The Impact of *msaABCR* On *sarA*-Associated Phenotypes is Different in Divergent Clinical Isolates of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Infection and Immunity*.

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1 2 3 4 5 The impact of msaABCR on sarA-associated phenotypes is different in divergent 6 clinical isolates of Staphylococcus aureus 7 8 Joseph S. Rom^a, Aura M. Ramirez^a, Karen E. Beenken^a, Gyan S. Sahukhal^c, Mohamed O. 9 Elasri^c, and Mark S. Smeltzer^{a,b#} 10 11 12 ^aDepartment of Microbiology and Immunology, University of Arkansas for Medical Sciences, 13 Little Rock, AR 72205 14 15 16 ^bDepartment of Orthopaedic Surgery, University of Arkansas for Medical Sciences, Little Rock, AR 72205 17 18

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28 Running title: Impact of *msaABCR* on *sarA* phenotypes
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39 ABSTRACT

40 The staphylococcal accessory regulator (sarA) plays an important role in Staphylococcus aureus infections including osteomyelitis, and the msaABCR operon has been implicated as an 41 important factor in modulating expression of sarA. Thus, we investigated the contribution of 42 43 msaABCR to sarA-associated phenotypes in the S. aureus clinical isolates LAC and UAMS-1. 44 Mutation of msaABCR resulted in reduced production of SarA and a reduced capacity to form a 45 biofilm in both strains. Biofilm formation was enhanced in a LAC msa mutant by restoring the 46 production of SarA, but this was not true in a UAMS-1 msa mutant. Similarly, extracellular protease production was increased in a LAC msa mutant but not a UAMS-1 msa mutant. This 47 difference was reflected in the accumulation and distribution of secreted virulence factors and in 48 the impact of extracellular proteases on biofilm formation in a LAC msa mutant. Most 49 importantly, it was reflected in the relative impact of mutating msa as assessed in a murine 50 51 osteomyelitis model, which had a significant impact in LAC but not in UAMS-1. In contrast, mutation of sarA had a greater impact on all of these in vitro and in vivo phenotypes by 52 comparison to mutation of msaABCR, and it did so in both LAC and UAMS-1. These results 53 54 suggest that, at least in osteomyelitis, it would be therapeutically preferable to target sarA rather 55 than msaABCR to achieve the desired clinical result, particularly in the context of divergent 56 clinical isolates of S. aureus.

Mutation of the staphylococcal accessory regulator (sarA) attenuates the virulence of 58 59 divergent clinical isolates of Staphylococcus aureus in animal models of bacteremia, postsurgical osteomyelitis, and infective endocarditis (1-3). It also limits biofilm formation in vitro and 60 61 in vivo to a degree that can be correlated with increased antibiotic susceptibility (2, 4-6). The 62 effector molecule of the sarA regulatory system is a 15 kDa protein that has been shown to impact the production of multiple S. aureus virulence factors at a transcriptional level and by 63 64 modulating the stability of mRNA (7-12). We have also demonstrated that an important factor contributing to the reduced virulence of sarA mutants, and their reduced capacity to form a 65 biofilm, is the increased production of extracellular proteases and resulting decrease in the 66 accumulation of multiple S. aureus proteins including both surface-associated and extracellular 67 68 virulence factors (1, 13-17).

Thus, the *sarA* regulatory locus impacts both the production and the accumulation of *S*. *aureus* virulence factors, and this collectively makes an important contribution to diverse phenotypes that contribute to pathogenesis. This makes *sarA* a potential therapeutic target, and efforts have been made to exploit *sarA* in this regard (17-19). However, *S. aureus* regulatory circuits are complex and highly interactive (20), and mutation of other *S. aureus* regulatory loci within this circuit has also been shown to increase protease production to a degree that limits biofilm formation (21-25).

Among these other loci is *msa* (modulator of <u>sarA</u>), mutation of which was originally reported to limit the expression of *sarA* and the production of SarA itself (26). The *msa* gene was identified in the 8325-4 strain RN6390 by a transposon insertion in the open-reading frame SA1233 as designated in the N315 genome, but it was subsequently shown to be part of a fourgene operon now designated *msaABCR* (27). Genes within the *msa* operon encode a putative protein (MsaA) with no known function, a DNA binding protein (MsaB) shown to act as a transcription factor that regulates expression of numerous genes, and genes encoding a

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83 regulatory RNA (msaC) and an antisense RNA (msaR) complementary to msaB (27). As would be expected based on the phenotypes of sarA mutants (3, 4, 13, 15, 16, 28) and the role of 84 msaABCR in enhancing expression of sarA, mutation of msaABCR (hereinafter referred to as 85 msa) has been correlated with increased protease production and a decreased capacity to form 86 87 a biofilm (25, 27, 29).

88 Mutation of msa was also reported to result in decreased expression of the accessory gene regulator (agr) in the 8325-4 strain RN6390 but to have the opposite effect in the clinical isolate 89 90 UAMS-1 (26). Expression levels of the well-characterized agr-regulated genes encoding alpha toxin (hla) and protein A (spa) also differed between these two strains, while expression of the 91 92 genes encoding aureolysin (aur) and SspA (sspA) were increased in both strains. Differences 93 between these two strains have also been observed in the phenotype of their isogenic sarA 94 mutants (30-31). Such reports are not surprising given that RN6390 has a mutation in rsbU that impacts the sigB regulatory pathway (32), which has also been shown to impact expression of 95 96 both agr and sarA as well as protease production (33-34). However, significant differences also 97 exist among clinical isolates, and to date, such strain-dependent differences have not been 98 adequately investigated. Thus, the overall impact of msa in divergent clinical isolates, and the 99 extent to which it is dependent on its interaction with sarA, remains unclear. In this report, we addressed these issues by generating msa, sarA, and msa/sarA mutants in the methicillin-100 101 resistant USA300 strain LAC and the methicillin-sensitive USA200 strain UAMS-1, and 102 assessed the impact these mutations had on well-defined phenotypes associated with their 103 isogenic sarA mutants.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION 104

Impact of msa on sarA expression. Using an anti-SarA antibody (35), we first assessed 105 106 the production of SarA in msa mutants generated in LAC and UAMS-1 by western blot. Experiments were done using whole cell lysates prepared from equal numbers of CFU 107 108 harvested from cultures in the mid-, late-, and post-exponential growth phases. The results were

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109 comparable in both strains (Fig. 1) and confirmed that mutation of msa results in reduced 110 production of SarA, particularly during the mid- and late-exponential growth phases. However, while the differences in the abundance of SarA were in most cases statistically significant, they 111 were also modest in that the amount of SarA present in lysates prepared from LAC and UAMS-112 1 msa mutants was consistently >50% of that observed in the isogenic parent strain irrespective 113 114 of growth stage. This is consistent with transcriptional analysis, which demonstrated that mutation of msa results in a modest but statistically significant decrease in the level of sarA 115 transcript in both LAC and UAMS-1 by comparison to the isogenic parent strain (Table 1). 116 117 These studies also confirmed that this transcriptional phenotype could be genetically complemented. These results are consistent with the hypothesis that msa functions upstream to 118 119 modulate the expression of SarA.

120 Impact of msa on biofilm formation. Thus, the important question becomes whether the reduction in the amount of SarA observed in msa mutants is phenotypically relevant. One of the 121 122 primary phenotypes that defines sarA mutants in divergent clinical isolates, including LAC and 123 UAMS-1, is the reduced capacity to form a biofilm (36). Using a well-established microtiter plate 124 assay (28), we confirmed that mutation of *msa* limits biofilm formation in both LAC and UAMS-1, 125 but to a limited extent by comparison to the isogenic sarA mutants (Fig. 2). The relative impact 126 of mutating msa vs. sarA was confirmed by demonstrating that concomitant mutation of both 127 msa and sarA limited biofilm formation to a level comparable to that observed in the isogenic 128 sarA mutant and well below that observed in the corresponding msa mutant (Suppl. Fig. 1). 129 These results are also consistent with the hypothesis that msa is upstream of SarA and the observation that mutation of msa had only a modest impact on the accumulation of SarA, but 130 they also suggest that the reduced amount of SarA observed in msa mutants is phenotypically 131 relevant in the context of biofilm formation. 132

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133 If this is true, then restoring the production of SarA in an *msa* mutant should restore biofilm 134 formation. To investigate this, we introduced the same plasmid (pSARA) used to genetically complement the *sarA* mutation into an *msa* mutant. Western blot analysis confirmed that the accumulation of SarA was restored in both LAC and UAMS-1 *msa* mutants (Fig. 3). Introducing pSARA also restored biofilm formation in a LAC *msa* mutant but not in a UAMS-1 *msa* mutant (Fig. 2). The reasons for this strain-dependent difference are unclear, but these results suggest that *msa* limits biofilm formation in UAMS-1 owing to a *sarA*-independent regulatory effect.

140 Impact of msa on protease production. To investigate the mechanistic basis for these 141 biofilm phenotypes, we examined the relative impact of mutating sarA and msa on the 142 production of extracellular proteases. This was based on our previous demonstration that the 143 increased production of extracellular proteases plays a key role in defining the biofilm-deficient 144 phenotype of S. aureus sarA mutants (1). In LAC, mutation of msa resulted in a statistically 145 significant increase in overall protease activity as assessed using both casein- and gelatin-146 based FRET assays, although the impact was more evident in the casein-based assay than the gelatin-based assay (Fig. 4). This was not true in a LAC sarA mutant, where the impact of 147 148 mutating sarA on protease production was readily evident in both assays (Fig. 4). Additionally, 149 restoring SarA production in a LAC msa mutant decreased protease production, in the case of 150 the casein-based assay to wild-type levels. As might be expected based on the relative 151 sensitivity of the two assays, this was most evident when assessed using the casein-based assay. However, mutation of msa in UAMS-1 did not have a significant impact on overall 152 protease activity as assessed using either casein- or gelatin-based FRET assays (Fig. 4). As in 153 154 LAC, mutation of sarA in UAMS-1 resulted in a statistically-significant increase in protease 155 production in both protease assays. These results are also consistent with the hypothesis that 156 the impact of mutating msa on biofilm formation in UAMS-1 occurs via a sarA-independent regulatory effect. 157

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This strain-dependent difference was also apparent in assays employing *gfp* transcriptional reporter constructs generated with the promoters from each of the genes and/or operons encoding *S. aureus* extracellular proteases (*aur, splA-F, sspABC* and *scpAB*). Specifically, expression levels from all four reporters were significantly increased in a LAC *msa* mutant, but not to the level observed in the isogenic *sarA* mutant (Fig. 5). In contrast, fluorescence was not increased to a significant extent in a UAMS-1 *msa* mutant with any reporter other than the *scp::gfp*, and even then, the increase was modest by comparison to fluorescence levels observed with the same reporter in the LAC *msa* mutant and with all four reporters in the UAMS-1 *sarA* mutant (Fig. 5). These results suggest that the strain-dependent impact of *msa* on protease production is mediated at a transcriptional level.

168 These results also suggest the possibility of a cause-and-effect relationship between 169 increased protease production and decreased biofilm formation in a LAC msa mutant. Indeed, 170 there was an inverse and proportional relationship between protease production and biofilm 171 formation in LAC and its isogenic sarA, msa, and sarA/msa mutants (Suppl. Fig. 2). However, 172 this inverse relationship was not apparent in a UAMS-1 msa mutant. Mutation of msa in LAC also resulted in the decreased accumulation of both Hla and extracellular protein A (eSpa) (Fig. 173 174 6). In contrast, in UAMS-1, which does not produce HIa, the accumulation of eSpa was greatly 175 reduced in a sarA mutant, but not in the isogenic msa mutant. The reduced accumulation of 176 eSpa observed in a LAC msa mutant was reversed by eliminating the production of extracellular 177 proteases, while in a UAMS-1 msa mutant, the abundance of eSpa was not affected by the 178 inability to produce these proteases (Fig. 6).

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179 These results demonstrate that mutating msa results in a significant increase in protease 180 production in LAC but not in UAMS-1. SDS-PAGE analysis of conditioned medium (CM) from 181 overnight cultures confirmed the decreased accumulation of high molecular weight (HMW) proteins in a LAC msa mutant, and that this was reversed by eliminating the production of 182 extracellular proteases (Fig. 7). As would be expected based on the results discussed above, 183 184 this effect was not apparent in a UAMS-1 msa mutant. In contrast, mutation of sarA limited the accumulation of HMW proteins in CM in both LAC and UAMS-1, and in both cases this was 185 186 reversed by eliminating the ability of these mutants to produce extracellular proteases (Fig. 7).

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(Suppl. Fig. 3).

193 Impact of msa on extracellular nuclease. Extracellular DNA and the production of 194 extracellular nucleases have also been implicated in biofilm formation in both methicillin-195 resistant and methicillin-sensitive strains (38). S. aureus produces at least two nucleases, one 196 of which (Nuc1) is a secreted extracellular protein while the other (Nuc2) remains bound to the 197 cell surface (39). Mutation of sarA in UAMS-1 has been shown to result in the increased 198 production of these nucleases, and at least under in vitro conditions, this has been shown to 199 limit biofilm formation (40). Based on this, we examined the impact of mutating msa on nuclease 200 production with a specific focus on the Nuc1 extracellular nuclease. This was facilitated by the 201 availability of an anti-Nuc1 antibody (16), which allowed us to investigate this issue using 202 western blots of CM harvested from overnight cultures of each strain. It is important to recognize 203 that Nuc1 is produced in two forms, the smaller of which (NucA) is proteolytically derived from 204 the larger (NucB), and both of which are enzymatically active (41).

Impact of msa on PIA production. To examine other possibilities, we assessed the

production of the polysaccharide intracellular adhesion (PIA) in msa and sarA mutants. PIA is

known to contribute to biofilm formation, and it has been suggested that it plays a particularly

important role in methicillin-sensitive strains like UAMS-1 (37). However, we were unable to

detect PIA above background levels in LAC, UAMS-1, or their isogenic sarA and msa mutants

205 Relative to the parent strain, Nuc1 was present in increased amounts in a UAMS-1 sarA 206 mutant, and all of the Nuc1 present that could be detected by western blot was present in the 207 smaller NucA form (Fig. 8). This suggests that the increased production of extracellular 208 proteases in a UAMS-1 sarA mutant can be correlated with the absence of NucB. This was 209 confirmed in western blots with CM from a sarA mutant unable to produce these proteases, in which case all of the Nuc1 detected was in the NucB form. Moreover, the overall abundance of 210 Nuc1 was increased in the protease-deficient UAMS-1 sarA mutant by comparison to the sarA 211 212 mutant (Fig. 8). The abundance of Nuc1 was also increased in a UAMS-1 msa mutant, and in

this case both NucA and NucB were detectable by western blot. While the overall amount of Nuc1 was not increased in a protease-deficient UAMS-1 *msa* mutant, all of the Nuc1 present was in the larger NucB form. This could be interpreted to suggest that mutation of *msa* does result in an increase in protease production in UAMS-1 that is phenotypically apparent, but we believe this would be an over-interpretation in that, unlike the isogenic protease-deficient *sarA* mutant, the amount of Nuc1 did not increase appreciably in the UAMS-1 protease-deficient *msa* mutant (Fig. 8).

220 The increased abundance of Nuc1 observed in a UAMS-1 sarA mutant was not apparent in 221 a LAC sarA mutant, but it was apparent in the isogenic msa mutant (Fig. 8). Unlike the UAMS-1 222 msa mutant, all of the Nuc1 detectable by western blot in the LAC msa mutant was present in 223 the smaller NucA form. This is consistent with the observation that mutating msa had a 224 significant impact on protease production in LAC but not in UAMS-1. As with the UAMS-1 225 protease-deficient sarA and msa mutants, only NucB could be detected in CM from the 226 protease-deficient LAC sarA and msa mutants (Fig. 8). As with a UAMS-1 msa mutant, 227 eliminating protease production in a LAC msa mutant limited proteolytic processing of Nuc1, but 228 did not appreciably alter the overall amount. In contrast, the abundance of NucB was also 229 enhanced in a protease-deficient LAC sarA mutant by comparison to the isogenic sarA mutant itself. These results demonstrate that the production of Nuc1 is increased in LAC and UAMS-1 230 231 sarA and msa mutants. They also indicate that the abundance of Nuc1 is limited by increased 232 protease production in sarA mutants generated in both strains, but that this is not the case even 233 in a LAC msa mutants. However, the impact of msa on protease production was still evident in a 234 LAC msa mutant in that all of the Nuc1 present was present in the smaller NucA form (Fig. 8).

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Impact of protease and nuclease production on biofilm formation. Given theseoverlapping protease and nuclease phenotypes, we directly examined the impact of eliminatingthe production of extracellular proteases or Nuc1 on the biofilm-deficient phenotype of LAC andUAMS-1 *sarA* and *msa* mutants. In both strains, eliminating the ability to produce extracellular

239 proteases enhanced biofilm formation in both sarA and msa mutants to levels comparable to those observed in the isogenic parent strain (Fig. 9). This could be interpreted to suggest that 240 the increased production of extracellular proteases limits biofilm formation in msa mutants, even 241 in UAMS-1. However, it is important to note that eliminating protease production also enhanced 242 biofilm formation in UAMS-1 itself to a greater extent than in LAC (Fig. 9). In fact, the increase in 243 244 biofilm formation observed in a protease-deficient derivative of UAMS-1 was comparable to that observed in the UAMS-1 msa mutant, and this was not the case in the same derivatives of LAC. 245 246 Thus, we believe these results are also consistent with the conclusion that the increased 247 production of extracellular protease production limits biofilm formation in a LAC msa mutant but 248 not in a UAMS-1 msa mutant.

249 Biofilm formation was also enhanced in LAC and UAMS-1 msa mutants unable to produce 250 Nuc1, but once again, these results must be interpreted with caution because eliminating the production of Nuc1 also enhanced biofilm formation in the LAC and UAMS-1 parent strains (Fig. 251 252 9). As with protease production, the increase in biofilm formation observed in the nuclease-253 deficient UAMS-1 msa mutant was less than that observed in the nuclease-deficient LAC msa mutant, and this was reflected in the relative impact of eliminating Nuc1 production on biofilm 254 255 formation (Fig. 9). In contrast, eliminating the production of Nuc1 did have a significant impact on biofilm formation in a UAMS-1 sarA mutant, but not in a LAC sarA mutant (Fig. 9). This is 256 257 consistent with the observation that mutation of msa resulted in an increase in the abundance of 258 Nuc1 in a UAMS-1 sarA mutant but not in a LAC sarA mutant, although as previously discussed 259 protease production was shown to limit the abundance and processing of Nuc1 in sarA mutants 260 generated in both strains.

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Impact of *msa* on staphyloxanthin production. All of the results discussed above are consistent with a model in which *msa* functions upstream to enhance the production of SarA, but also demonstrate that the impact of mutating *msa* on *sarA*-associated phenotypes is strain dependent. There are also reports that mutation of *msa* in LAC has also been implicated in 265 phenotypes that have not been previously associated with sarA. One of these is that mutation of 266 msa in LAC has been reported to result in the reduced production of staphyloxanthin (27), which has been implicated as an important virulence factor in S. aureus (42). We examined this in 267 LAC and UAMS-1 sarA and msa mutants, and the results confirmed that mutation of msa in 268 LAC results in a statistically significant reduction in the production of staphyloxanthin (Fig. 10) 269 270 and consequently reduced pigmentation of colonies on agar plates (data not shown). 271 Importantly, unlike the relative impact of mutating sarA and msa on biofilm formation and protease production, the impact of mutating msa exceeded that of mutating sarA in this regard, 272 273 thus suggesting that the impact of mutating msa on staphyloxanthin production is primarily 274 independent of its impact on sarA. In UAMS-1 the results of these assays provided an even 275 more striking contrast. Specifically, staphyloxanthin production was increased in a UAMS-1 sarA 276 mutant but decreased in the isogenic msa mutant (Fig. 10). Although the decrease observed in 277 a UAMS-1 msa mutant was not statistically significant, this contrast nevertheless makes it evident that the impact of mutating msa on staphyloxanthin production in UAMS-1 is 278 279 independent of its impact on sarA.

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Impact of msa in osteomyelitis. The results discussed above provide insight into the 280 281 impact of msa on sarA-associated phenotypes in divergent clinical isolates of S. aureus. However, they also suggest, specifically with respect to our staphyloxanthin assays, that msa 282 283 serves regulatory functions that are independent of its impact on sarA. Moreover, all of these 284 results are based on in vitro assays that do not necessarily reflect the unique microenvironment 285 of the bone. Thus, we wanted to directly assess the relative contribution of msa and sarA to 286 virulence in our murine osteomyelitis model (3, 43). As previously reported (3), mutation of sarA 287 limited virulence in both strains as assessed based on reactive bone formation and cortical bone 288 destruction, although in this experiment the reduction in cortical bone destruction observed with the UAMS-1 sarA mutant did not reach statistical significance (Fig. 11). By comparison, 289 290 mutation of msa had only a modest impact on virulence in LAC, particularly in the context of

291 cortical bone destruction, and it had no significant impact in UAMS-1 in either reactive bone292 formation or cortical bone destruction.

293 CONCLUSIONS

294 Most reports describing the impact of S. aureus regulatory loci on clinically relevant 295 phenotypes, including virulence, are based on examination of single loci in a single strain, and 296 this makes it difficult to reach conclusions regarding the relative potential of different regulatory 297 loci as therapeutic targets. We have attempted to address this by directly comparing different 298 regulatory mutants generated in divergent clinical isolates of S. aureus using both in vitro and in 299 vivo assays (3, 4, 44). The results of these studies have led us to focus on sarA and to 300 hypothesize that a primary factor contributing to the impact of mutating sarA on virulence and 301 virulence-associated phenotypes is the increased production of extracellular proteases and the 302 limitation this imposes on the accumulation of both surface-associated and extracellular 303 virulence factors (1,16). To date, we have not included the msaABCR operon in these studies, 304 and it is important to do so given that msa has been shown to function upstream of sarA and to 305 impact sarA-associated phenotypes including biofilm formation and protease production (25-27, 306 29). This raises the possibility that msa could also be a viable therapeutic target. Experimentally 307 addressing this possibility was the focus of the experiments we report. However, the results we 308 report lead us to conclude that this is not the case for two reasons. First, even in the genetically 309 and phenotypically divergent clinical isolates LAC and UAMS-1, the impact of mutating msa on 310 biofilm formation and virulence in our osteomyelitis model is limited by comparison to that of 311 mutating sarA. Second, the relative impact of mutating msa differed between these two strains 312 with respect to both of these phenotypes. This emphasizes the need for direct comparative 313 studies like those we report, particularly given the complexity of S. aureus regulatory circuits 314 and the diversity among S. aureus strains as represented by the USA300 isolate LAC and the USA200 strain UAMS-1. 315

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316 MATERIALS AND METHODS

317 Bacterial strains and growth conditions. The strains used in these experiments are 318 summarized in Tables 1 and 2. LAC and UAMS-1 mutants produced during the course of this work were generated by Φ 11-mediated transduction from existing mutants (1, 4, 13, 15, 27, 34, 319 44-53). Protease reporter plasmids were also introduced into the designated mutants by Φ11-320 mediated transduction (23). All strains were maintained at -80°C in tryptic soy broth (TSB) 321 322 containing 25% (v/v) glycerol. For each experiment, strains under study were retrieved from cold 323 storage by plating on tryptic soy agar (TSA) with appropriate antibiotic selection. Antibiotics 324 were incorporated into the culture media as appropriate at the following concentrations: chloramphenicol, 10 μg ml⁻¹; kanamycin, 50 μg ml⁻¹; and neomycin, 50 μg ml⁻¹; erythromycin, 10 325 μg ml⁻¹; spectinomycin, 1 mg ml⁻¹; or tetracycline 5 μg ml⁻¹. Kanamycin and neomycin were 326 327 always used together to avoid selection of spontaneously resistant strains.

Preparation of *S. aureus* conditioned media. To prepare conditioned medium (CM), cultures of each strain were grown overnight (16 hr) in TSB at 37° C with constant shaking. The optical density at 560 nm (OD₅₆₀) of each culture was determined and fresh TSB added to standardize each culture to an equivalent optical density. Cells were then removed by centrifugation and CM prepared by filter-sterilization. Samples were stored at -80°C until used. Downloaded from http://iai.asm.org/ on January 7, 2020 by guest

Preparation of whole-cell lysates. Whole cell lysates were prepared as previously 333 described with minor modification (45). Briefly, strains were cultured at 37°C in TSB with 334 335 constant shaking and a medium-to-flask ratio of 0.5. Bacterial cells from a volume of each 336 culture calculated to obtain an equivalent number of cells were harvested by centrifugation at an OD₅₆₀ of approximately 1.5, 4.0, and 10.0, which correspond to the mid-exponential, late-337 338 exponential, and post-exponential growth phases, respectively. Cells were washed with sterile 339 phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and re-suspended in 750 µl of TEG buffer (25 mM Tris-HCl, 340 pH 8.0, 25 mM EGTA). Cell suspensions were stored at -20°C until all samples had been collected, at which point samples were thawed on ice, transferred to Fastprep Lysing Matrix B 341 tubes, and lysed in a FastPrep®-24 benchtop homogenizer (MP Biomedicals) using two 40 sec 342

and stored at -80°C.

ChemiDocMP Imaging System and Image Lab Software (Bio-Rad Laboratories). 349 RNA isolation and real-time qPCR. Overnight cultures of S. aureus were diluted 1:10 350 351 times in fresh TSB and incubated at 37°C with shaking (200 rpm) for 2 hr. The cells were then normalized to an OD₆₀₀ of 0.05 in 25 ml TSB in 125 ml conical flask and incubated at 37°C with 352 353 shaking (200 rpm). The cells were collected at mid-exponential growth phase. Total RNA was 354 isolated from cells using a Qiagen RNeasy Maxi column (Qiagen), as previously described (27). The quality of total RNA was determined by Nanodrop spectrometer readings and 1 µg RNA 355 was used to synthesize cDNA using iScript[™] Reverse Transcription Supermix for RT-qPCR 356 (Biorad). RT-qPCR was done using iTaq™ Universal SYBR® Green Supermix (Biorad) as 357 described previously (27). The constitutively expressed gyrase A (gyrA) gene was used as an 358 359 endogenous control gene and was included in all experiments. The following primer sequences were used to measure sarA expression: RT-sarA-F TTTGCTTCAGTGATTCGTTTATTTACTC 360 361 and RT-sarA-R GTAATGAGCATGATGAAAGAACTGTATT. Analysis of expression of each 362 gene was done based on at least three biological replicates.

intervals at a rate of 6.0 m/sec interrupted by a 5 min interval in which the homogenates were

chilled on ice. After centrifugation at 15,000 x g for 10 min at 4°C, supernatants were harvested

Western blotting. SarA western blots were done with an anti-SarA antibody and

appropriate secondary antibodies as previously described (1, 15, 16). Western blots included at

least two biological replicates. Densitometric values were obtained with a Bio-Rad

363 Static in vitro biofilm assay. Biofilm formation was assessed in vitro using a microtiter 364 plate assay as previously described (28). Briefly, sterile 96-well microtiter plates were coated with 100 µl of 20% carbonate/bicarbonate-reconstituted human plasma (Sigma) and incubated 365 overnight at 4°C. Bacterial cultures were grown overnight in TSB supplemented with 3% sodium 366 chloride and 0.5% glucose (biofilm medium, BFM) at 37°C. Cultures were standardized to an 367 OD₅₆₀ = 0.05 in fresh BFM. Plasma was gently aspirated, and the microtiter plate inoculated with 368

369 200 µl of standardized culture per well. The plate was incubated statically overnight at 37°C.
370 Wells were gently washed three times with 200 µl PBS, fixed with 200 µl 100% EtOH, stained
371 with 200 µl Gram's crystal violet, and finally washed three times with 250 µl PBS. The stain was
372 eluted with 100 µl 100% EtOH for 10 min, the eluent diluted into a new 96-well plate, and the
373 absorbance was measured at 595 nm with a FLUOstar Omega microplate reader (BMG
374 Labtech).

Total protease activity. Total protease activity of CM was assessed using the FRETbased Protease Fluorescent Detection Kit (Sigma) and the EnzChek® Gelatinase/Collagenase Assay Kit (ThermoFisher Scientific), both according to the manufacturer instructions.

Protease reporter assay. Stains carrying each protease reporter (pCM13, pCM15, pCM16, or pCM35) were cultured in TSB overnight as detailed above. Cultures were then standardized to an OD₅₆₀ of 10.0. 200 µl of each standardized culture was then aliquoted in triplicate into a black clear-bottomed 96-well plate and the mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) measured with a FLUOstar Omega microplate reader (excitation: 485 nm, emission: 520 nm) (BMG Labtech).

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PIA immunoblot. Production of the polysaccharide intercellular adhesion (PIA) was 384 assessed as previously described with minor modifications (44). Specifically, cultures were 385 grown overnight in BFM. After standardization to OD₅₆₀ of 5.0, cells were harvested by 386 centrifugation and re-suspended in 60 µl 0.5 M EDTA. Cell suspensions were boiled for 5 min 387 388 followed by centrifugation (14,000 x g for 2 min). 40 μ l of the supernatant was then incubated for 389 30 min at 48°C with 1 µl proteinase K (10 mg/ml) at 48°C. 20 µl of Tris-buffered saline (20 mM Tris-HCl, 150 mM NaCl [pH 7.4]) was added to each sample, which was then stored at -20°C. 390 391 For analysis, 2 µl of each sample was spotted directly to a dry nitrocellulose membrane and PIA 392 detected using an anti-PIA antibody as previously described (44).

393 **Characterization of exoprotein profiles.** Exoprotein profiles were examined as previously 394 described (1). CM harvested as described above was resolved by SDS-PAGE using 4-12% gradient Novex Bis-Tris Plus gels (Life Technologies). Proteins were visualized by staining with
 SimplyBlue[™] SafeStain (Life Technologies). Images were obtained using a Bio-Rad
 ChemiDocMP Imaging System (Bio-Rad Laboratories).

Staphyloxanthin production. The relative production of staphyloxanthin was assessed 398 using bacterial cells harvested from overnight cultures as previously described (27). Briefly, cells 399 400 were harvested and standardized to an $OD_{560} = 10.0$ and washed twice with sterile water. Cells 401 were then re-suspended in 1.0 ml of 100% methanol and heated at 55°C for 5 min with occasional vortexing. The cells were removed by centrifugation at 15,000 × g for 1 min and 100 402 403 µl of supernatant into a 96-well microtiter plate in triplicate. Absorbance values were read on a 404 FLUOstar Omega microplate reader (BMG Labtech) at a 465 nm and background corrected with 405 a methanol blank.

406 Murine model of post-traumatic osteomyelitis. The murine model of acute posttraumatic osteomyelitis model was performed as previously described (43). Prior to surgery, 8-10 week 407 408 old C57BL/6 mice received 2.0 mg/kg of body weight meloxicam via subcutaneous injection and 409 were then anesthetized with isoflurane for the duration of the surgery. For each mouse, an incision was made above the right hind limb. The periosteum was pulled apart with forceps and 410 using a 21-gauge Precision Glide needle (Becton Dickinson), a 1-mm uni-cortical bone defect 411 was made at the lateral mid-shaft of the femur. A bacterial inoculum of 1 × 10⁶ CFU in 2 µl of 412 PBS was delivered into the intramedullary canal. The periosteum and skin were then closed 413 414 with sutures, and the mice were allowed to recover from anesthesia. Infection was allowed to 415 proceed for 14 days thereafter, at which time the mice were euthanized and the right femur was removed and subjected to micro-computed tomography (micro-CT) analysis. All experiments 416 involving animals were reviewed and approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use 417 Committee of the University of Arkansas for Medical Sciences and were performed according to 418 419 NIH guidelines, the Animal Welfare Act, and U.S. federal law.

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configured using the bones from sham-treated controls to separate the new bone from the existing cortical bone, and a task list was created to apply the same process and values to all bones in the data set. After processing of the bones using the task list, the volume of interest (VOI) was corrected by drawing inclusive or exclusive contours on the periosteal surface. Cortical bone destruction analysis consisted of approximately 1,800 slices between anatomical landmarks at opposing ends of the femur. Destruction was determined by subtraction of the

volume of infected bones from the average bone volume from sham-treated controls. Reactive new bone formation was assessed by first isolating the region of interest (ROI) that contained only the original cortical bone (as described above). After cortical bone isolation, the new bone volume was determined by subtraction of the cortical bone volume from the total bone volume. All calculations were performed on the basis of direct voxel counts. Statistical analysis. To allow for statistical comparison across biological and experimental

440 replicates, the results obtained for each experimental replicate with each strain were averaged 441 across all biological replicates. For densitometric analyses of western blots, protease assays, 442 biofilm assays and pigmentation assays, results observed with the isogenic wild-type strain 443 444 were set to 1.0, and these averages were then plotted relative to the results observed with this 445 strain. For protease reporter assays and µCT analysis, absolute values were plotted for all

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Micro-computed tomography. The analysis of cortical bone destruction and new bone

formation was performed using micro-CT imaging with a Skyscan 1174 micro-CT (Bruker), and

scans were analyzed using the manufacturer's analytical software. Briefly, axial images of each

femur were acquired at a resolution of 6.7 μ m at 50 kV and 800 μ A through a 0.25-mm

aluminum filter. Bones were visualized using a scout scan and then scanned in three sections

as an oversize scan to image the entire femoral length. The volume of cortical bone was

isolated in a semi-automated process per the manufacturer's instruction. Briefly, cortical bone

was isolated from soft tissue and the background by global thresholding (low threshold, 89; high

threshold, 255). The processes of opening, closing, dilation, erosion, and de-speckling were

replicates obtained with each strain. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) models with Dunnett's posttest adjustment was used to assess statistical significance. P-values ≤ 0.05 were considered to
be statistically significant. Statistical analyses were performed using the statistical programming
language R version 3.3.3 (Vienna, Austria), SAS 9.4 (Cary, NC) and GraphPad Prism 5.0 (La
Jolla, CA).

451 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by NIH grant R01-AI119380 to MSS. Additional support was 452 453 provided by a generous gift from the Texas Hip and Knee Center and research core facilities supported by the Center for Microbial Pathogenesis and Host Inflammatory Responses (P20-454 GM103450), the Translational Research Institute (UL1TR000039) and by the United States 455 Army Congressionally Directed Medical Research Programs (W81X1H-14-PRORP-EA). The 456 457 authors thank Alexander Horswill for generously providing the reporter constructs as well as the protease and nuclease deficient strains of LAC. Additionally, the authors thank Horace J. 458 459 Spencer for assistance with statistical analyses and Christopher M. Walker for technical 460 assistance.

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638	FIGURE LEGENDS
639	Fig. 1. Impact of msa on the accumulation of SarA. SarA accumulation was
640	assessed by western blot of whole cell lysates prepared from mid-, late- or post-
641	exponential phase cultures of LAC, UAMS-1 (U1), and their isogenic msa and sarA
642	mutants. Bar charts illustrate densitometry based on two biological replicates.
643	Densitometry results from samples prepared from each parent strain using cells
644	obtained at each growth phase were standardized to OD ₅₆₀ = 10. Error bars indicate

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standard error of the mean. Single asterisk indicates statistical significance relative to

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the isogenic parent strain. Double asterisks indicate statistical significance relative to 646 647 the isogenic sarA mutant.

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649 Fig. 2. Impact of msa and sarA on biofilm formation. Biofilm formation was assessed with the LAC, UAMS-1, their sarA and msa mutants, as well as mutants complemented 650 with sarA (^S) or msa (^M). Bar chart represents cumulative results from at least two 651 biological replicates, each of which included five experimental replicates. Error bars 652 indicate standard error of the mean. Single asterisk indicates statistical significance 653 relative to the isogenic parent strain. Double asterisks indicate statistical significance 654 655 relative to the isogenic sarA mutant.

656

Fig. 3. SarA accumulation in sarA- and msa-complemented mutants. SarA 657 accumulation was assessed by western blot of whole cell lysates prepared from mid-658 exponential phase cultures of LAC, UAMS-1, their sarA and msa mutants, as well as 659 mutants complemented with sarA (^S) or msa (^M). Bar charts illustrate densitometry 660 based on at least two experimental replicates. Densitometry was performed using 661 samples prepared from cells obtained at mid-exponential growth phase (standardized to 662 $OD_{560} = 1.5$). Error bars indicate standard error of the mean. Single asterisk indicates 663 statistical significance relative to the isogenic parent strain. Double asterisks indicate 664 statistical significance relative to the isogenic sarA mutant. 665

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Fig. 4. Impact of msa and sarA on protease production. Protease activity in 667 668 conditioned medium (CM) was assessed with LAC, UAMS-1, their sarA and msa mutants, as well as mutants complemented with sarA (^S) or msa (^M). Protease activity 669

was assessed using a FITC-casein cleavage hydrolysis assay (left) and an FITC-gelatin cleavage hydrolysis assay (right). Results are reported as mean fluorescence values (MFI) ± the standard error of the mean. Bar charts are representative of results from at least two biological replicates, each of which included three experimental replicates. Error bars indicate standard error of the mean. Single asterisk indicates statistical significance relative to the isogenic parent strain. Double asterisks indicate statistical significance relative to the isogenic *sarA* mutant.

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Fig. 5. Impact of msa and sarA on protease gene expression. Reporter constructs 678 were generated using the promoters from each of the four genes/operons encoding 679 680 extracellular proteases and the gene encoding green fluorescent protein (gfp). Each construct was introduced into LAC, UAMS-1, and their isogenic sarA and msa mutants. 681 Mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) was assessed after overnight cultures were 682 standardized to an OD₅₆₀ = 10. Bars represent average MFI ± standard error of the 683 mean from each of two independent biological replicates, each of which included three 684 685 experimental replicates. Statistical analysis was done independently for each strain and each reporter. Single asterisk indicates statistical significance compared to the isogenic 686 parent strain. Double asterisk indicate statistical significance compared to the isogenic 687 688 sarA mutant.

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Fig. 6. Impact of extracellular proteases on accumulation of specific proteins. The abundance of alpha toxin (Hla) and extracellular protein A (eSpa) was assessed by western blot of CM obtained from stationary phase cultures of LAC and UAMS-1, their *sarA* and *msa* mutants, and isogenic derivatives of each strain unable to produce

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694 extracellular proteases (*prot*). Purified Spa and Hla was included as positive controls.

695 CM from LAC *spa* and *hla* mutants were included as negative controls.

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Fig. 7. Impact of *sarA* and *msa* on accumulation of extracellular proteins. Extracellular protein profiles were assessed by SDS-PAGE analysis of CM obtained from stationary phase cultures of LAC, UAMS-1, their *sarA* and *msa* mutants, and isogenic derivatives of each strain unable to produce extracellular proteases (*prot*).

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Fig. 8. Impact of proteases on Nuc1 production and processing in sarA and msa mutants. The amount of extracellular nuclease was assessed by western blot using CM from LAC, UAMS-1, their isogenic sarA and msa mutants, sarA (S) or msa (M) complemented variants, and isogenic derivatives of regulatory mutants unable to produce extracellular proteases (*prot*). A UAMS-1 *nuc1* (*nuc*) mutant was included as a negative control in both blots.

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Fig. 9. Impact of extracellular proteases and nucleases on biofilm formation in 709 710 msa and sarA mutants. Biofilm formation was assessed with LAC, UAMS-1, their sarA 711 and msa mutants, and isogenic derivatives of each strain unable to produce either extracellular proteases (prot, top) or the extracellular nuclease Nuc1 (nuc, bottom). Bar 712 chart indicates cumulative results from at least two biological replicates, each of which 713 included five experimental replicates. Error bars indicate standard error of the mean. 714 715 Single asterisk indicates statistical significance relative to the isogenic parent strain. 716 Double asterisks indicate statistical significance relative to the isogenic sarA mutant. Triple asterisks indicate statistical significance relative to the isogenic msa mutant. 717

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Fig. 10. Staphyloxanthin production in *sarA* **and** *msa* **mutants.** Pigment was extracted from standardized samples of bacteria grown to stationary phase and measured at an absorbance of 465 nm. Bar charts represent cumulative results from at least four biological replicates, each of which included three experimental replicates. Error bars indicate standard error of the mean. Single asterisk indicates statistical significance relative to the isogenic parent strain. Double asterisks indicate values that are statistically significant relative to the isogenic *sarA* mutants.

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Fig. 11. Impact of sarA and msa on the virulence of LAC and UAMS-1 in an 727 728 osteomyelitis model. Images were analyzed for cortical bone destruction and reactive 729 (new) bone formation in C57BL/6 mice infected with LAC, UAMS-1, or their isogenic sarA and msa mutants. Values are presented as volumes relative to mock-infected mice 730 which underwent the surgical procedure but were injected only with sterile PBS. At least 731 ten mice were analyzed for each mutant or respective parent strain. Single asterisk 732 733 indicates statistical significance relative to the isogenic parent strain. Double asterisks indicate statistical significance relative to the isogenic sarA mutant. 734

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736 TABLE 1. sarA expression at mid-exponential growth phase

Strain	Expression compared to WT
LAC ΔmsaABCR	0.493 ± 0.01
LAC Δ <i>msaABCR,</i> pCN34:: <i>msaABCR</i>	0.984 ± 0.0168
UAMS-1 <i>∆msaABCR</i>	0.753 ± 0.016
UAMS-1 <i>∆msaABCR</i> , pCN34:: <i>msaABCR</i>	0.875 ± 0.019

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738 TABLE 2. LAC S. aureus strains used in this study.

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Strain	Genotype	References
UAMS-2279 ^a	Wild type	1
UAMS-2294	sarA::kan/neo	1
UAMS-4001	<i>sarA::kan/neo</i> , pSARA	1
UAMS-4520	ΔmsaABCR	27
UAMS-4521	∆msaABCR, pCN34::msaABCR	27
UAMS-4601	<i>∆msaABCR</i> , pSARA	This work
UAMS-4545	∆msaABCR, sarA::kan/neo	This work
UAMS-4222	Wild type, pCM13 (<i>aur::sgfp</i>)	23
UAMS-4223	sarA::kan/neo, pCM13 (aur::sgfp)	This work
UAMS-4537	<i>∆msaABCR</i> , pCM13 (<i>aur∷sgfp</i>)	This work
UAMS-4226	Wild type, pCM15 (<i>spl::sgfp</i>)	23
UAMS-4227	sarA::kan/neo, pCM15 (spl::sgfp)	This work
UAMS-4538	<i>∆msaABCR</i> , pCM15 (<i>spl∷sgfp</i>)	This work
UAMS-4230	Wild type, pCM16 (<i>ssp::sgfp</i>)	23
UAMS-4231	<i>sarA::kan/neo</i> , pCM16 (<i>ssp::sgfp</i>)	This work
UAMS-4539	<i>∆msaABCR</i> , pCM16 (<i>ssp::sgfp</i>)	This work
UAMS-4234	Wild type, pCM35 (<i>scp::sgfp</i>)	23
UAMS-4235	sarA::kan/neo, pCM35 (scp::sgfp)	This work
UAMS-4446	spa::erm	34
UAMS-4552	hla::erm	52
UAMS-4540	<i>∆msaABCR</i> , pCM35 (<i>scp∷sgfp</i>)	This work
UAMS-3001	Δaur, ΔsspAB, ΔscpA, spl::erm	47
UAMS-3002	sarA::kan/neo, Δaur, ΔsspAB, ΔscpA, spl::erm	1
UAMS-4557	ΔmsaABCR; Δaur, ΔsspAB, ΔscpA, spl::erm	This work
UAMS-2280	nuc::ltrB	41
UAMS-2295	sarA::kan/neo, nuc::ltrB	This work
UAMS-4582	ΔmsaABCR, nuc::ltrB	This work

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^a Variant of the clinical isolate LAC which has been cured of the erythromycin resistance 740

plasmid as previously described (1). 741

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743 Table 3. UAMS-1 S. aureus strains used in this study.

Genotype

Strain

References

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UAMS-1	Wild type	48	
UAMS-929	sarA::kan/neo	30	
UAMS-969	<i>sarA::kan/neo</i> , pSARA:: <i>cat</i>	30	
UAMS-4499	ΔmsaABCR	46	
UAMS-4500	ΔmsaABCR, pCN34::msaABCR	46	
UAMS-4603	Δ <i>msaABCR</i> , pSARA	This work	
UAMS-4549	ΔmsaABCR; sarA::kan/neo	This work	
UAMS-4220	Wild type, pCM13 (<i>aur::sgfp</i>)	This work	
UAMS-4221	sarA::kan/neo, pCM13 (aur::sgfp)	This work	
UAMS-4541	<i>∆msaABCR</i> , pCM13 (<i>aur∷sgfp</i>)	This work	
UAMS-4224	Wild type, pCM15 (<i>spl::sgfp</i>)	This work	
UAMS-4225	sarA::kan/neo, pCM15 (spl::sgfp)	This work	
UAMS-4542	<i>∆msaABCR</i> , pCM15 (<i>spl∷sgfp</i>)	This work	
UAMS-4228	Wild type, pCM16 (<i>ssp::sgfp</i>)	This work	
UAMS-4229	sarA::kan/neo, pCM16 (ssp::sgfp)	This work	
UAMS-4543	ΔmsaABCR, pCM16 (ssp::sgfp)	This work	
UAMS-4232	Wild type, pCM35 (<i>scp::sgfp</i>)	This work	
UAMS-4233	sarA::kan/neo, pCM35 (scp::sgfp)	This work	
UAMS-4544	ΔmsaABCR, pCM35 (scp::sgfp)	This work	
UAMS-321	ica::tet	49	
UAMS-1624	codY::ermC	50	
UAMS-4412	xerC::erm	51	
UAMS-1471	Δnuc	13	
UAMS-1477	sarA::kan/neo, Δnuc	13	
UAMS-4556	ΔmsaABCR, Δnuc	This work	
UAMS-4574	∆aur, ∆sspAB, scpA∷tet	This work	
UAMS-4578	sarA::kan/neo, Δaur, ΔsspAB, scpA::tet	This work	
UAMS-4583	∆msaABCR. ∆aur. ∆sspAB. scpA∷tet	This work	

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sarA^s

msa

msa[™]

msa^s

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UAMS-1

sarA



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Infection and Immunity

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WT sarA -

msa -

aur::sGFP

spl::sGFP

ssp::sGFP

UAMS-1

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1

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aur::sGFP

spl::sGFP

ssp::sGFP LAC

scp::sGFP





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sarA^s

msa

UAMS-1

nuc

nuc



msa[™]

prot

sarA/prot msa/prot

NucB

NucA

NucB

NucA











