The putative thiosulfate sulfurtransferases PspE and GlpE contribute to virulence of Salmonella Typhimurium in the mouse model of systemic disease.

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The Putative Thiosulfate Sulfurtransferases PspE and GlpE Contribute to Virulence of Salmonella Typhimurium in the Mouse Model of Systemic Disease

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Abstract

The phage-shock protein PspE and GlpE of the glycerol 3-phosphate regulon of Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium are predicted to belong to the class of thiosulfate sulfurtransferases, enzymes that traffic sulfur between molecules. In the present study we demonstrated that the two genes contribute to S. Typhimurium virulence, as a glpE and pspE double deletion strain showed significantly decreased virulence in a mouse model of systemic infection. However, challenge of cultured epithelial cells and macrophages did not reveal any virulence-associated phenotypes. We hypothesized that their contribution to virulence could be in sulfur metabolism or by contributing to resistance to nitric oxide, oxidative stress, or cyanide detoxification. In vitro studies demonstrated that glpE but not pspE was important for resistance to H₂O₂. Since the double mutant, which was the one affected in virulence, was not affected in this assay, we concluded that resistance to oxidative stress and the virulence phenotype was most likely not linked. The two genes did not contribute to nitric oxide stress, to synthesis of essential sulfur containing amino acids, nor to detoxification of cyanide. Currently, the precise mechanism by which they contribute to virulence remains elusive.


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Introduction

The Gram-negative bacterium Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium (S. Typhimurium) is a major pathogen of both animals and humans. It invades epithelial cells of the small intestine and causes inflammation of this organ, usually leading to a self-limiting gastroenteritis [1–2]. In mice, the bacterium causes a typhoid-like systemic disease. Important features of this manifestation include the ability to invade into the intestine, to infect and kill macrophages, to survive and replicate within dendritic cells and macrophages and to spread to the reticulo-endothelial system of organs such as liver and spleen [1–2]. In order to do so, S. Typhimurium possesses several virulence factors that are often encoded as gene clusters on so called Salmonella pathogenicity islands (SPIs). Two of the major SPIs, SPI-1 and SPI-2, encode type three secretion systems (T3SSs) that inject effector molecules into the host cell to mediate the invasion process and intracellular survival [3].

Salmonella has to cope with several stress conditions during the infection process [4–5]. Nitric oxide (NO) stress caused by the release of NO and reactive nitrogen species (RNS) is one such stress factor [6–10]. NO and RNS nitrosylate and inactivate reactive metal centers and iron-sulfur clusters, thereby inhibiting the functionality of key bacterial enzymes, such as metabolic, respiratory and DNA synthesizing proteins [6–10]. Thus to carry out the infection, Salmonella has to activate several defense mechanisms to detoxify NO and RNS, and to repair the damages that they cause [6,10–11]. Oxidative stress is another host defense mechanism that Salmonella has to overcome during infection, and several stress systems specifically deal with detoxification of oxygen radicals [4].

Sulfurtransferases shuffle sulfur between molecules [12–15]. The enzymes have a carboxy-terminal domain carrying an active-site cysteine, which is important for the sulfur transport [12]. Among other functions, sulfurtransferases are believed to be involved in sulfur metabolism [14–15], cyanide detoxification [16–17] and the repair and assembly of the iron-sulfur clusters mentioned above as targets for the damaging effects of NO and RNS [13,18–21].

PspE and GlpE are single-domain thiosulfate sulfurtransferases (TSTs), which have been demonstrated in vitro to have rhodanese activity in Escherichia coli [22–24]. The enzymes can detoxify cyanide; however, other substrates such as diithiols may also be utilized by these enzymes [23–24]. Recently PspE has been categorized in E. coli as a periplasmic rhodanese. It was shown to contribute to the restoration of disulfide bond formation in proteins in the cell envelope in a DsbA mutant in conjunction with the protein DsbC [25]. No function has yet been attributed to these two proteins in Salmonella.

PspE is a member of the phage-shock protein (Psp) system that responds to membrane stress (reviewed in [26–27]). Expression of pspE in S. Typhimurium occurs together with the other genes of the pspABCDE operon from the σ₅₄-dependent psp promoter [28].
However, *pspE* expression is likely to happen from an intrinsic, *pspE*-specific σ70-dependent promoter [29], as shown for *E. coli* [30]. Expression of *pspE* is highly induced during infection of eukaryotic cells [31–32], which indicates a role in host pathogen interaction.

*glpE* is a member of the *glpEGR* operon [33]. Transcription in *E. coli* has been shown to occur from a cyclic AMP-cAMP receptor protein (cAMP-CRP) complex-dependent promoter, generating one polycistronic *glpEGR* mRNA [34]. Furthermore, *glpG* and/or *glpR* genes are transcribed from three additional promoters [33]. GlpR is a repressor of the glycerol 3-phosphate, regualted involved in the metabolism of glycerol 3-phosphate and its precursors [35]. However, *glpE* might function independent of the other members of the *glp* regulon, as it does not contribute to the metabolism of glycerol 3-phosphate in *E. coli* [22,24]. In *E. coli* the cytoplasmic protein GlpE and the periplasmic protein PspE show functional redundancy and together they are responsible for 95% of the thiosulfate sulfurtransferase activity [24].

Given that *pspE* is highly expressed in *S. Typhimurium* during infection [31–32], and given that GlpE and PspE seem to have overlapping functions in *E. coli* [24], we hypothesized that their combined activity might be important for virulence of *S. Typhimurium*. We demonstrated that this is indeed the case, and that virulence in a mouse model was affected when both genes were inactivated, but not when single genes were knocked-out. Despite further studies using cell culture models and different in *vitro* growth and survival assays, however, we failed to identify the mechanism by which these proteins contribute to virulence.

### Materials and Methods

#### Bacterial Strains and Growth Conditions

Bacteria used in this study are listed in Table 1. Deletion of single genes with parallel insertion of a resistance cassette in *S. Typhimurium* 4/74 was performed using the Lambda Red recombination system as described [38]. Sequences of oligonucleotides used for Lambda Red mediated mutagenesis and PCR verifications are listed in Table 2. Insertions were confirmed by PCR and sequencing, using standard procedures. Phage P22HT105/int 201-mediated transduction was performed as described previously [41] to transfer mutations to a clean 4/74 background and to generate double knockout mutants.

Strains were maintained in LB-Lennox broth (LB). For growth on solid media, LB was enriched with 1.5% agar producing LB agar plates. When necessary, media was supplemented with antibiotics at the following concentration: 100 μg ampicillin ml⁻¹, 50 μg kanamycin ml⁻¹ and 10 μg chloramphenicol ml⁻¹.

#### Construction of Complementation Plasmids

*glpE* and *pspE*-specific PCR products plus their upstream located promoter regions (approx. 400 bp) were cloned into pACYC177 [39] following standard procedures. Oligonucleotides used for construction of complementation plasmids and verificaiton of insertions are listed in Table 2. The constructs were transformed into One Shot® *E. coli* TOP10 chemically competent cells following the recommendations given by the supplier (Invitrogen). Insertion of *glpE* and *pspE* was confirmed by PCR and sequencing. The plasmids were further transformed into KP1274 [40], a restriction-deficient *Salmonella* strain, and finally to *glpE* and *pspE* mutant strains to test for genetic complementation. Expression of *glpE* and *pspE* genes from the complementation plasmids was confirmed by qPCR (see method below).

#### RNA Extraction and qPCR

Bacteria were grown to logarithmic phase in M9 (OD600nm = 0.4±0.01). RNA was isolated from 1.5 ml aliquots by mechanical disruption with the Fastprep system (Bio101; Q-
Table 2. Oligonucleotide sequences for PCR based amplification and sequencing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primer</th>
<th>Sequence</th>
<th>Application</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>glpE</td>
<td>for: 5’GCCCTAATGGCCTTCACCAGCGCATAATGGAAGGCGATTCTGCTGAGCGCTGGATGCTGCCCTC’3</td>
<td>Lambda Red recombination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>rev: 5’GCCCTCGTCGCTGGAAGGCTCATCTTATGGGATTACGCGCATATGGAATATCCTCCTTAG’3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pspE</td>
<td>for: 5’TGGTTAGCCATGGTAGGACTGCATGGCTGGATGCTGCCCTC’3</td>
<td>Lambda Red recombination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>rev: 5’CGGGATATGACGACGATGCGGCCATATGGAATATCCTCCTTAG’3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>glpE_C</td>
<td>for: 5’ACCGGCTATTGGAATACTG’3</td>
<td>Proof of Lambda Red mutation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>rev: 5’CCTGGGATGCCGATGATTAAT’3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pspE_C</td>
<td>for: 5’CTGGAGCCTAGCTGCTAG’3</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>rev: 5’CCTGGGATGCCGATGATTAAT’3</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>glpE_BamHI</td>
<td>for: 5’ATGGATCCACGACGAGTACGTCGCTG’3</td>
<td>Complementation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pACYC177_BamHI</td>
<td>for: 5’CGGTTGCAGTTGAGAAGGC’3</td>
<td>Proof of insertion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>rev: 5’ACGAGTCCCCTTCTATGATG’3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pACYC177_HindIII</td>
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<tr>
<td>sopB_q</td>
<td>for: 5’ACTCACGACGAGGATGCTTACCTG’3</td>
<td>qPCR [42]</td>
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<td>glpE_q</td>
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</table>

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0070829.t002

biogene) and help of the RNeasy mini kit (Qiagen). Quantity and quality of total RNA was checked with the NanoDrop 1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific) and on a 1.5% (w/v) agarose gel. All enzymatic steps described below were performed according to the supplier’s recommendation (Fermentas). The RNA was DNase treated with the RNase free DNaseI kit and reverse transcribed with the RevertAid H minus reverse transcriptase kit. The qPCR was done with the Maxima SYBR Green/Rox qPCR Master Mix and gene specific oligonucleotides (Table 2) in a MxPro3000 cycler (Stratagene). qPCR was performed in parallel in samples of the wild type and mutant strains. Data were normalized against two reference genes, rsmC and nusG [32,43], producing similar results. Relative gene expression (change fold = CF) in mutant strains compared to the wild type, was calculated by help of the 2^−ΔCt method [44] corrected by the different primer efficiencies [45].

The Contribution of the Gene Products to Sulfur Metabolism

The ability to grow in M9 media which contains MgSO4 as the only sulfur source was measured. Bacteria from exponentially growing cultures in LB were collected by centrifugation, washed in PBS and re-suspended in the M9 medium at an OD600 value of 0.005. The contribution of the enzymes to metabolism of thiosulfate and sulphite was investigated by parallel incubation of wild type and mutated strain in TSI-agar (Oxoid CM0277, Thermo Scientific) and Iron-sulfite agar (Oxoid CM0079, Thermo Scientific) for 24 hours at 37°C.

Induction of Membrane Stress by SDS

Growth was determined in presence of 0.01% (w/v) and 0.1% (w/v) SDS. Bacteria were grown to stationary phase in LB medium and adjusted to the same number. Bacteria were spotted on LB agar plates as previously described [46]. Prior to spotting
the plates were adjusted to the test condition by addition of SDS, and growth was evaluated after 16–18 h of incubation at 37°C. As a control, growth on LB agar plates without SDS was followed in parallel. For control of plate assay, a broth assay was also performed with one of the concentrations. 20 ml of M9 media in 100 ml test tubes with 0.01% SDS was inoculated with colony material of each strain from an LB plate (OD600 value of 0.05), and growth of the bacteria at 37°C with shaking was evaluated.

Resilience Towards Cyanide

The ability to detoxify cyanide was determined by growth in basis medium (in 1 liter containing 10 g peptone; 5 g NaCl; 0.225 g KH2PO4; 5.64 g Na2HPO4; pH = 7.4) supplemented with potassium cyanide (KCN) at the following concentrations: 0.3 mg/l; 0.6 mg/l; 3 mg/l; 15 mg/l; 75 mg/l. Media was inoculated with a colony of bacteria grown on LB agar, and incubated at 37°C. Growth was evaluated after two days of incubation. As a control, growth of each strain in non-supplemented basis medium was investigated in parallel.

Resilience Towards H2O2

Strains were inoculated in LB media and incubated overnight at 37°C. The next day a dilution with PBS was made to OD600 = 0.2. The exact CFU (T0) was determined by plating in duplicate on LA agar using the glass bead method. H2O2 was added to a concentration of 10 mM, and CFU was determined at times T1, T2, T3 and T6 hours as mentioned for T0.

Resistance to NO Stress

Resistance to NO stress was tested in growth experiments in the presence of S-Nitrosoglutathione (GSNO; Sigma-Aldrich) and in survival experiments after exposure to peroxynitrite (Cayman Chemicals). To determine the exact concentration of peroxynitrite, absorbance at 302 nm (A) was measured and the concentration C (C = A/E) was calculated based on the extinction coefficient ε = 1670 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹.

For growth experiments in the presence of GSNO, stationary phase bacterial cultures were adjusted to an optical density (OD) at 600nm of 0.005 in fresh M9 medium supplemented with 0.1 mM, 0.25 mM, 0.5 mM and 1 mM GSNO. Growth was performed in 96-well plates and followed over a period of 20 h by OD600nm measurements in a microplate spectrophotometer (PowerWave XS, Biotek) with intermediate shaking of the plate.

For survival studies, logarithmically grown cultures in M9 (OD600 = 0.04±0.01) were treated with 360 μM peroxynitrite and samples were taken after 0 and 15 min. To determine the number of bacteria in the samples, serial dilutions were plated on LB agar plates. Survival of bacteria was determined by calculating the number of bacteria as colony forming units (CFU) per ml (CFU ml⁻¹) after 15 min in relation to the number of bacteria at the beginning of the experiment. In growth and survival experiments in the presence of NO stress, two non-treated controls were investigated in parallel: one in non-supplemented medium and one in medium diluted with the corresponding compound solvent (0.3 M NaOH for peroxynitrite and distilled H2O for GSNO experiments = 1:10 diluted M9).

Epithelial Cell Infection

Invasion of cultured epithelial INT-407 cells was investigated using a Gentamicin protection approach as described previously.
Cell culture experiments with J774.1A macrophages were performed essentially as previously described [48]. In brief J774.1A cells were grown in RPMI1640+Glutamax™-I, 25 mM HEPES (Gibco), supplemented with 10% (v/v) heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS; Invitrogen) at 37°C in an atmosphere containing 5% CO₂. 18–20 h prior to infection, cells were seeded in 24-well plates at 1×10⁵ cells per well. Bacteria grown to stationary phase were re-grown to logarithmic phase in M9 (OD₆₀₀ₚ= 0.4±0.01) and were added to INT-407 cells at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 100. After 15 min of infection at 37°C and 5% CO₂, cells were treated with 100 µg ml⁻¹ gentamicin for 1 h to kill extracellular bacteria and dissolved in 0.1% (v/v) Triton X-100. Serial dilutions of the lysates were plated on LB agar plates to determine the number of invaded bacteria as CFU ml⁻¹. To adjust for day to day variation, values were adjusted against CFU ml⁻¹ of the wild type. In parallel bacterial enumerations of the inoculum was determined to ensure equal starting numbers.

Figure 3. Survival of wild type 4/74 and ΔpspE, ΔglpE and ΔpspE/glpE strains in the presence of peroxynitrite treatment. Bacteria grown to logarithmic phase (OD₆₀₀ₚ = 0.4±0.01) were treated with 360 µM peroxynitrite for 15 min. Survival of bacteria was determined by calculating the number of bacteria after 15 min in relation to the number of bacteria at the beginning of the experiment. Results show mean values of at least three independent experiments ± SEM. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0070829.g003

Figure 4. Growth of WT (4/74) and pspE and glpE mutated and complemented strains in M9 medium with 10 mM H₂O₂. Wild type (black), ΔglpE (blue), ΔpspE (green), ΔglpE/ΔpspE (red) and ΔglpE+glpE strains were inoculated to an OD₆₀₀ value of 0.05, H₂O₂ was added and growth was followed for 16 hours. Results shown are representative of two biological repeats. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0070829.g004

Statistical Analyses

Statistical significance of the differences between wild type and mutant strains was determined using GraphPad Prism®, version 5.0 (GraphPad software) with one-sample t-test analysis. Grubb’s
outlier test was performed to exclude outliers with a significance of 0.05.

Results and Discussion

PspE is a member of the Psp system, which helps *S. Typhimurium* to cope with membrane stress [reviewed in [27–28,31]]. Recently, the first protein encoded in the *pspABCDE* operon, PspA, was demonstrated to be required for virulence in the mouse model of systemic infection [52]. However, *pspE* expression is predicted to occur independently from a *pspE*-specific promoter [29] and it is highly expressed during cell infection [31–32]. Therefore, we wanted to investigate the role of PspE in virulence in *S. Typhimurium* independent from the contribution of the remaining part of the Psp system. Furthermore, in order to investigate whether it has functional overlap with another TST, GlpE, as it does in *E. coli* [24], we also investigated the role this single domain TST in parallel. We generated *glpE* and *pspE* single and double knockout mutant strains in *S. Typhimurium* 4/74 as well as in trans complemented strains (Table 1) and characterized all strains. qPCR was used to measure expression of the two genes in wild type, mutated and complemented strains. Wild type and complemented strains expressed the genes in the expected way, while no expression was observed in mutated strains (data not shown).

GlpE and PspE have a Role in Systemic Disease in the Mouse Model

In order to investigate whether GlpE and PspE have a role in virulence, we tested *glpE* and *pspE* mutant strains in competition with the wild type strain in a mouse model of systemic infection. Deletion of *pspE* increased virulence in C57/BL6 mice slightly (CI: 1.14; *p* = 0.01). Introduction of the gene to the mutant in trans on the plasmid pINS02 removed significant differences between the two strains, suggesting that the increase in virulence was indeed caused by the *pspE* mutation. In contrast, deletion of *glpE* did not cause a significant change in virulence (Table 3). Interestingly, the *ΔglpE/ΔpspE* double mutant strain showed significantly decreased virulence (CI: 0.69±0.10; *p*<0.01), and introduction of the plasmid pNS04, encoding cloned copies of the two genes restored virulence to wild type level. Thus, the combined lack of GlpE and
GlpE and PspE Mutants are Dispensable During SDS Induced Membrane Stress

Since the Psp system is believed to aid in counteracting membrane stress [26–27], we investigated whether the mutants would show increased sensitivity to SDS, which is the prototype stress factor for detergent shock proteins [53]. The ΔpseE, ΔglpE, and ΔpseE/ΔglpE strains grew equally well as the wild type strain in the presence of 0.01% and 0.1% SDS (data not shown). Growth control on plates without SDS was included, and comparison to this showed that the conditions tested affected the growth of the wild type strain, showing that it indeed experienced a stress. The plate assay used was less sensitive than comparative growth experiments, and to further substantiate our conclusions, growth in the presence of 0.01% SDS was also performed in M9 media in 100 ml flasks. As seen in Figure 2, no difference was observed between wild type and mutated strains.

GlpE and PspE are Dispensable for Resistance Towards NO stress in vitro

Nitric oxide compounds produced by the host are believed to interfere with important iron-sulfur complexes in bacteria [6]. S. Typhimurium has been reported to contain four iron-storage proteins, of which ferritin B encoded by fnbB and regulated by the Fur-system [54] has been identified as important for repair of iron-sulfur clusters [55]. Sulfur transferases are believed to be involved in the synthesis and repair of iron-sulfur clusters [13] as the bovine liver rhodanese is able to re-constitute iron-sulfur clusters of various enzymes in vitro [18–21]. We hypothesized that GlpE and PspE might be important for growth and survival in the presence of NO and RNS. To test this, we performed growth experiments of 4/74 wild type and mutant strains in the presence of GSNO and survival experiments after exposure to peroxinitrite. GSNO is a NO donor that primarily reacts with thiols, causing nitrosylation of proteins [9]. Peroxynitrite is a RNS that usually is formed in the cell by the reaction of NO with superoxide anion and which reacts with metal centers. Addition of GSNO at concentrations ranging from 0.1 to 1 mM lowered growth of the wild type strain in M9 compared to growth in the control medium without GSNO addition (Figure 1), showing that the growth reducing effect was indeed a result of GSNO addition. Growth inhibition was, however, similar between the wild type and the glpE and pseE mutant strains. From the experiments performed we cannot rule out that mutant specific responses would have been observed at higher concentrations. Furthermore, survival of the ΔglpE, ΔpseE and ΔglpE/ΔpseE strains in the presence of 360 μM peroxinitrite for 15 min likewise was similar to survival of the wild type strain (Figure 3). Altogether, GlpE and PspE were concluded not to be required for resistance of S. Typhimurium to NO stress in vitro within the concentration range tested.

glpE but not pseE Contributes Significantly to Resistance Towards H2O2

Like nitric oxide, H2O2 also affects the cell through damage of iron-clusters [56], and we found it indicated to investigate the role of GlpE and PspE in the protection against this oxidative stress molecule. We grew our mutants in the presence of 5 mM and 10 mM H2O2 in LB and M9 media and observed that the wild type strain was slightly affected in growth and that the ΔglpE, but not the ΔpseE mutant, was severely affected in growth under this condition in both media (growth in 10 mM H2O2 shown in Figure 4). The phenotype was fully complemented by addition of the wild type gene in trans. The role of GlpE in oxidative stress adaptation has not previously been investigated, and this
observation is the first clear phenotype associated with GlpE in S. Typhimurium. Unexpectedly, the double ΔglpEΔpspE mutant was not affected (Figure 4). The reason for this remains elusive, but the observation was very reproducible and may indicate that the lack of GlpE is only critical for resistance to H$_2$O$_2$ in the presence of a fully functional PspE.

**pspE and glpE are not Important for S. Typhimurium Resistance Towards Cyanide**

Another possible physiological role of sulfur transferases is the detoxification of cyanide as shown for the RhdA rhodanese in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* [37]. In a standard biochemical classification, *S. enterica* serovars are classified as non-detoxifying bacteria of cyanide at a concentration of 75 mg/l KCN [38]. However, we speculated that *glpE* and *pspE* might contribute to cyanide resistance at concentrations below this threshold. To test this, S. Typhimurium wild type, *glpE* and *pspE* single and double mutant strains were grown in the presence of KCN at concentrations ranging from 0.3 mg/l to 75 mg/l. The wild type and the Δ*glpE*, Δ*pspE* and Δ*glpE*Δ*pspE* strains showed similar sensitivity towards KCN with the expected growth inhibition at 75 mg/l poor growth at 15 mg/l and normal growth at 3 mg/l, 0.6 mg/l and 0.3 mg/l (data not shown), indicating that GlpE and PspE proteins are not involved in cyanide tolerance in S. Typhimurium.

**Intracellular Survival and Cytotoxicity Towards Macrophages is Independent of GlpE and PspE**

Virulence of S. Typhimurium in the mouse model of systemic disease was decreased in the absence of *glpE* and *pspE* (Table 3). In order to determine what might have caused this reduction, we tested the ability of *glpE* and *pspE* deficient and complemented strains to infect and survive inside J774 macrophages. This was considered relevant as these features play a role in the development of systemic disease of S. Typhimurium [1–2] and as both genes are expressed during infection of cultured macrophages [31]. Survival replication inside J774 macrophages 1h p.i., 4h p.i. and 24 h p.i. was found to be similar to the wild type strain (Figure 5). A mutant in the SPI-2 gene *cosV* which is attenuated for macrophage survival [49] was included as control, and showed the expected phenotype, as it was taken up to the same extend as the wild type strain, but showed reduced intracellular propagation. Theoretically, since cytotoxic effects results in exposure to gentamicin in such cell culture experiments, a strain with increased multiplication ability could be masked by an increase in cytotoxicity. However, the mutated strains did not differ significantly from the wild type in cytotoxicity 24 hours post infection (data not shown). Thus, S. Typhimurium intracellular survival and replication in macrophages was independent of the presence of the two putative TSTs GlpE and PspE. A possible explanation for the discrepancies in the *in vivo* and *in vitro* virulence data could be the limitations in use of cell culture experiments to study the complex interaction of S. Typhimurium with host cells and tissues [59–60].

**GlpE and PspE are also Dispensable for Invasion of Epithelial Cells**

Infection of the intestinal epithelial layer is the first critical step in *Salmonella* virulence. This aspect of infection was bypassed in our mice experiments, since we used intra peritoneal challenge. The ability of S. Typhimurium to infect epithelial cells largely depends on expression of the SPI-1 encoded T3SS (T3SS1) and release of effector molecules through this system [1]. During infection of epithelial cells, *glpE* is constitutive and *pspE* is highly expressed [32]. We therefore tested the role of GlpE and PspE in invasion in an epithelial cell infection model. Moreover, we tested the ability of *glpE* and *pspE* mutant strains to express genes encoding regulatory, structural and effector molecules of the T3SS1. Single and double deletion of *glpE* and *pspE* genes did not change the ability of S. Typhimurium to invade epithelial INT-407 cells compared to the wild type, whereas the control strain Δ*pspH*, an S. Typhimurium strain with a deficiency in T3SS1 [37], was decreased in this phenotype (p<0.01) (Figure 6). In line with these findings, single or double deletion of *glpE* and *pspE* genes in S. Typhimurium 4/74 did not change expression of *hilA*, *invG* and *sopB* genes compared to the wild type as determined from qPCR experiments (data not shown). The growth conditions we used to demonstrate this were not optimal for induction of SPI-1, but the genes have previously been demonstrated to be expressed under this condition [42]. Overall, *glpE* and *pspE* are dispensable for *in vitro* invasion of S. Typhimurium and expression of genes that are associated with the T3SS1.

**Conclusion**

This work revealed that parallel deletion of *glpE* and *pspE* genes decreased virulence of S. Typhimurium in the mouse model of typhoid fever, suggesting a role of TST activity in systemic infection. Deletion of *glpE* but not *pspE* significantly affected H$_2$O$_2$ resistance, but since the double mutant was not affected in this assay we found it unlikely that reduced oxidative stress was the reason for the virulence phenotype. Thus the mechanism by which GlpE and PspE contribute to virulence in S. Typhimurium remains to be characterized in future research.

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**Author Contributions**

Conceived and designed the experiments: IW LJ LET JEO. Performed the experiments: IW LJ SL LT. Analyzed the data: IW LT JEO. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: IW LJ LT SL. Wrote the paper: IW JEO.

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