Cell surface vimentin is involved in matrix stiffness-dependent infection of endothelial cells by *Listeria monocytogenes*

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ABSTRACT

Vascular endothelial cells (VECs) line the inner lumen of vessels forming a protective barrier

against spread of bacterial infection from the bloodstream into underlying tissue. VECs display

remarkable phenotypic heterogeneity in part due to the different mechanical stimuli transmitted

from their extracellular environment. Although VEC response to mechanical signals has been

studied extensively, how bacterial uptake occurs in VECs residing on substrates of varying

stiffness has not been explored. We use *Listeria monocytogenes*, a facultative intracellular

bacterial pathogen, to determine the biophysical relationships between the stiffness of the

matrix underlying VECs and bacterial infection. We report that adhesion of *L. monocytogenes* to

human microvascular endothelial cells (HMEC-1), and therefore subsequent infection of the

host cells, increases monotonically with increasing matrix stiffness, an effect that requires the

activity of focal adhesion kinase (FAK). We identified cell surface vimentin as a candidate

surface receptor mediating stiffness-dependent adhesion of *L. monocytogenes* to HMEC-1 and

found that bacterial infection of these host cells is inhibited when surface vimentin is blocked

with an antibody or pharmacologically, or when vimentin expression is knocked down. Although

the interaction between the host cell receptor Met and the bacterial virulence factor InlB

contributes to invasion of HMEC-1 by *L. monocytogenes*, this interaction does not affect initial

adhesion of bacteria to the host cell surface and is not sensitive to substrate stiffness. Our

results identify a novel pathway wherein increased extracellular matrix stiffness sensed by

VECs leads to enhanced FAK activity that augments the amount of vimentin exposed at the

surface of VECs, that in turn increases adhesion and uptake of *L. monocytogenes*.

INTRODUCTION

Vascular endothelial cells (VECs) line the inner lumen of blood vessels forming a physical barrier that tightly regulates the movement of vascular components from the bloodstream into underlying tissues. Despite the restrictive nature of the endothelium, certain bacterial pathogens can invade VECs and bypass the endothelial barrier to eventually infect surrounding tissues (1).

VECs throughout the body reside in highly variable environments that are rich and diverse in mechanical cues, such as extracellular matrix (ECM) stiffness, shear stresses due to blood flow and topography (2-5). VECs can both sense and adapt to the physical cues they experience which can vary in space (location within the vascular tree), in time (aging) and in pathophysiological conditions (e.g. arteriosclerosis) (6-10). For example, the local compliance of the basement membrane of VECs in the brain tissue is as soft as 1 kPa, while porcine aortas have been shown to have a stiffness of approximately 60-70 kPa (11-15). VECs express integrins, transmembrane receptors that allow attachment of the cells to their matrix through direct binding to ECM ligand proteins allowing them to probe features of their environment including its stiffness (16, 17). Integrin binding to the ECM leads to recruitment of additional proteins and to formation of focal adhesions that in turn relay information to the actin cytoskeleton and to various signaling molecules, modulating cellular adhesion, shape, contractility, gene expression and fate in general (18). Focal adhesion kinase (FAK) is a non-receptor tyrosine kinase that has been established as a key component of the signal transduction pathways triggered by integrins. The expression and/or activity of FAK is dependent on ECM rigidity, showing decreased expression and/or activation on softer matrices for certain cell types (19-22). Although it has long been known that ECM stiffness has a profound effect on VEC mechanics, motility, and interaction with circulating cells (6-8, 23, 24), little work has addressed mechanical effects on bacterial infection in these cells.

Listeria monocytogenes (Lm) is a ubiquitous food-borne facultative bacterial pathogen

that can move from the initial site of infection, the intestinal epithelium, to distant organs

protected by different types of vascular endothelium (25). When it crosses the microvasculature

of the brain it causes meningitis and encephalitis, while when it crosses the placenta it causes

spontaneous abortion (25, 26). Lm has a broad range of susceptible host animals, and uses

multiple pathogenic strategies to achieve infection of a wide variety of tissues within each host.

It can directly invade intestinal epithelial cells and hepatocytes, using bacterial surface proteins

belonging to the internalin family, such as InlA, InlB and InlF, which interact with host cell

receptors (27-30). Once internalized into a membrane-bound compartment, Lm expresses the

pore-forming toxin listeriolysin O (LLO), which promotes release of the bacterium into the

cytosol, where it replicates (31, 32). Lm then expresses the ActA protein, which triggers host cell

actin polymerization enabling intracellular bacterial propulsion and cell-to-cell spread (33-35).

Although epithelial infection by Lm and actin-based spread have been studied in depth,

relatively less is known about how this bacterium can access, directly infect and bypass the

endothelium, and the effect of the matrix stiffness of VECs on Lm infection has not been

explored (36, 37).

Bacterial adhesion to the surface of cells is typically the initial event in the pathogenesis

of infection and can occur through receptor-mediated interactions between the host cell and the

pathogen (38). Vimentin is generally an intracellular cytoskeletal protein that forms intermediate

filaments in many mesoderm-derived cells (39). Vimentin can also be localized on the surface of

cells for a variety of cell types, although the precise mechanism whereby vimentin is delivered to

the surface of cells is not yet fully understood (40-44). Recent studies have shown that various

bacteria as well as viruses use surface vimentin as attachment receptor to facilitate entry into

host cells (44-51). However, little is known about what modulates the amount of vimentin

exposed on the surface of cells and whether regulation of its surface presentation potentially

mediates bacterial uptake.

We examined Lm infection in endothelial cells derived from the microvasculature (human

microvascular endothelial cells, HMEC-1) cultured on matrices of varying stiffness to explore

how the stiffness of the local ECM of these cells affects their susceptibility to infection. We found

a two-fold increase in bacterial adhesion when cells reside on stiff as compared to soft matrices.

We also found that Tyr397 phosphorylation of FAK was higher for VECs residing on stiff

matrices, and furthermore that treatment of VECs with FAK inhibitors led to a dose-dependent

decrease in bacterial infection. When we searched for candidate VEC surface receptors

differentially modulated depending on FAK activity, we identified surface vimentin as a

candidate, and found that decreasing the amount of host surface vimentin leads to a

concomitant decrease in Lm infection. Taken together, our findings provide evidence that

environmental stiffness of VECs, a previously unappreciated factor, plays an important role in

regulating infection susceptibility to Lm through differential activity of FAK that in turn affects the

amount of surface vimentin.

RESULTS

Uptake of *Listeria monocytogenes* by HMEC-1 is more efficient when cells reside on stiff substrates.

Substrates on which vascular endothelial cells (VECs) are cultured *in vitro*, commonly glass or tissue culture (TC) polystyrene, are approximately six orders of magnitude stiffer than the natural ECM of human VECs (52, 53). To be able to recapitulate *in vivo* conditions and determine in a systematic way the effect of the VECs' matrix stiffness on the efficiency of *Listeria monocytogenes* (Lm) infection, we developed an assay based on manufacturing thin polyacrylamide hydrogels of varying stiffness ranging from 0.6 to 70 kPa on multi-well glass-bottom plates (54-56) (Suppl. Fig. 1A). To enable cell adhesion, hydrogels were surface-coated with collagen I, using a consistent density of collagen independent of hydrogel stiffness, as reported in previous studies (57-59). Human microvascular endothelial cells (HMEC-1) seeded for 24 h on the hydrogels formed monolayers with comparable densities regardless of substrate stiffness, similar to growth of these cells on TC polystyrene (Suppl. Fig. 1B)

In order to measure the efficiency of bacterial infection quantitatively, we infected HMEC-1 with a strain of Lm lacking expression of the ActA protein, thereby disabling actin-based bacterial cell-to-cell spread, so that changes in the number of infected cells could be directly attributable to the initial invasion event. This strain also expresses a fluorescent protein under a promoter that is activated several hours after exposure of the bacteria to the host cell cytosol (actAp::mTagRFP) (60), allowing reliable fluorescence-based detection only of bacteria that have successfully invaded the host cells. We determined the fraction of HMEC-1 infected with Lm in each well using flow cytometry (Fig. 1A-D). At a constant multiplicity of infection (MOI) and constant host cell density, we found a monotonic increase in the number of VECs infected by Lm with increasing hydrogel stiffness that was highly reproducible among biological replicates (Fig. 1E-F). The overall efficiency of infection on the stiffest hydrogel substrates tested, 70 kPa, was comparable to the efficiency of infection for the same cells grown on TC

polystyrene, suggesting that above a certain level of stiffness the infection efficiency does not

change (Fig. 1F). Compared to this maximum level of infection for HMEC-1 cultured on the

stiffest substrates, infection efficiency on the softest substrates decreased about two-fold (Fig.

1E-F).

HMEC-1 on soft hydrogels show decreased FAK activity and decreased FAK activity

leads to less efficient Lm infection.

Focal adhesion kinase (FAK) has been established as a key component of the signal

transduction pathways triggered by integrins binding to the ECM, and for some cell types FAK

expression and/or phosphorylation on residue Y397 have been shown to depend on mechanical

cues sensed by cells, such as shear stresses imposed by fluid flow and/or ECM rigidity (19-22,

61). We therefore sought to determine whether FAK expression or activity could be modulated

depending on the substrate stiffness where HMEC-1 reside. To that end, HMEC-1 were grown

on soft 3 kPa hydrogels, stiff 70 kPa hydrogels and TC polystyrene substrates treated with

vehicle control or PF573228 FAK inhibitor. Cells were then harvested and total amounts of FAK

as well as pY397-FAK were determined using Western blot analysis. We found that increasing

the stiffness of the underlying substrate from 3 kPa to 70 kPa resulted in increasing levels of

pY397-FAK, but the levels of total FAK remained largely unchanged (Fig. 2A-C). In addition, the

levels of pFAK-Y397 were similar for cells residing on stiff 70 kPa hydrogels as compared to TC

polystyrene substrates (Fig. 2A-C). Treating cells residing on polystyrene with the specific FAK

inhibitor PF573228 led to a significant decrease of pY397-FAK while total FAK levels remained

unchanged as compared to controls (Fig. 2A-C). Our results suggest that FAK phosphorylation

at Y397 is modulated by the stiffness of the substrate on which HMEC-1 reside and therefore by

different levels of cell–ECM interaction-induced focal adhesion signaling.

To address whether reduced Lm uptake as observed for HMEC-1 residing on soft

matrices can be attributed at least in part to reduced FAK activity, we treated HMEC-1 residing

on polystyrene substrates with FAK inhibitors FAK-14 or PF573228 for one hour prior to

infection. We then measured the efficiency of infection with Lm as described above, and found

that both FAK inhibitors caused a similar dose-dependent inhibition of Lm infection (Figs. 2D).

Taken together these results are consistent with the hypothesis that decreased bacterial

infection of HMEC-1 residing on highly compliant soft matrices may be in part due to decreased

FAK activity.

Adhesion but not invasion efficiency is increased when Lm infect HMEC-1 residing on

stiff substrates.

Decreased infection efficiency of Lm in HMEC-1 residing on soft matrices or treated with

FAK inhibitors could be due to quantitative changes at several different steps in the infection

process, for example decreased bacterial adhesion onto HMEC-1, or decreased invasion of the

adhering bacteria into the HMEC-1, or a combination of both. To help identify the exact step in

infection that is sensitive to substrate stiffness, we used a constitutively GFP-expressing strain

of Lm to infect HMEC-1 residing on either soft 3 kPa hydrogels or stiff 70 kPa hydrogels, and

treated with vehicle control or PF573228. Samples were fixed shortly after infection and bacteria

that were attached to the cell surface but not yet internalized were specifically labeled with

antibodies under non-permeabilizing conditions. This inside/outside labeling method allows us

to distinguish between bacteria that are adhered but not internalized (GFP-positive and labeled

with the antibody) and those that are fully internalized by the HMEC-1 (GFP-positive but not

labeled with the antibody). We found that both the total number of bacteria per host cell and the

number of internalized bacteria per cell are significantly increased when HMEC-1 reside on stiff

70 kPa hydrogels as compared to soft 3 kPa hydrogels (Fig. 3A-B). However, importantly, the

invasion efficiency (ratio of internalized bacteria to total bacteria) did not differ between HMEC-1

residing on stiff as compared to soft matrices, suggesting that it is specifically the adhesion of

bacteria to the surface of host cells that is increased when the matrix stiffness is elevated and

which leads to increased Lm infection efficiency for cells residing on stiffer matrices (Fig. 3C).

Interestingly, we found a decrease in both Lm adhesion and invasion efficiency irrespective of

hydrogel stiffness for the cells treated with the FAK inhibitor (Fig. 3), suggesting that FAK

activity levels modulate both adhesion and invasion efficiency of Lm in HMEC-1, while substrate

stiffness affects adhesion only.

InlB contributes to Lm infection of HMEC-1 but is not modulated by substrate stiffness.

Our data indicate that lower FAK activity as it occurs when HMEC-1 are seeded on

softer hydrogels leads to decreased Lm adhesion onto the surface of HMEC-1. This finding led

us to hypothesize that a receptor at the surface of cells could be differentially regulated

depending on substrate stiffness, leading to decreased bacterial adhesion. To examine whether

any of the Lm internalins known to play a role in adhesion or invasion of other cell types,

including VECs, is implicated in infection of HMEC-1 and responsible for the matrix stiffness

dependent susceptibility to infection, we infected HMEC-1 with mutant strains deficient in each

of the internalin-encoding genes *inlA*, *inlB* or *inlF* (Fig. 4A and Table S1). We found a two-fold

decrease in bacterial infection when InlB was not present, suggesting that InlB is one of possibly

multiple bacterial factors that contribute to Lm infection of HMEC-1. In contrast to the effect of

the deletion in the *inlB* gene, deletion of *inlF* had no effect in bacterial infection of HMEC-1.

Deletion of *inlA* resulted in very modest but reproducible reduction in infection as reported

previously for human brain microvascular endothelial cells infected with Lm (62).

The importance of InlB for initial invasion of Lm into HMEC-1 was further confirmed by

infecting HMEC-1 with a different strain that had deletions in both *inlB* and *actA* so that bacteria

could not spread from cell to cell. Consistent with our previous findings, we observed a two-fold

decrease in bacterial uptake for a series of different multiplicities of infection (MOI) when *inlB*

was knocked out (Fig. 4B). Importantly, bacteria carrying a deletion of *inlB* still exhibited a

strong monotonic dependence of infection efficiency on substrate stiffness (Fig. 4C and Suppl.

Fig. 2A). This finding indicates that, while InlB contributes to some step in the infection of

HMEC-1 by Lm, it is not governing the step that is sensitive to substrate stiffness.

We confirmed this conclusion using three different lines of experimentation. First, we

directly assessed the effect of *inlB* deletion on bacterial adhesion and invasion of HMEC-1 using

inside/outside labeling as described above. We found that the total number of bacteria

associated with HMEC-1 cells was the same for wild-type bacteria as compared to an isogenic

ΔinlB strain (Fig. 4D), that is, adhesion to the host cell surface is indeed unchanged. However,

the number of internalized bacteria per cell and therefore the overall invasion efficiency was

significantly decreased for the *ΔinlB* strain (Fig. 4E-F). Second, we examined the effect of

inhibiting the host cell binding partner for InlB, the receptor tyrosine kinase Met (also known as

the hepatocyte growth factor receptor), on bacterial invasion. We confirmed that HMEC-1

express Met (Suppl. Fig. 1C), and then treated the cells with varying concentrations of the highly

selective Met inhibitor SGX-523 prior to infection (63). We found that only uptake of the control

ΔactA strain of Lm decreased with increasing concentration of SGX-523, while uptake of the

isogenic *ΔactA/ΔinlB* Lm did not change substantially as a function of SGX-523 concentration

(Fig. 4G). These results confirm that InlB contributes to Lm invasion into HMEC-1 by interacting

with host Met as has been shown for other cell types (27, 28). However, Lm invasion into

HMEC-1 treated with SGX-523 still retains a strong dependence on substrate stiffness (Fig. 4H

and Suppl. Fig. 2B). Third, we found that infection of HMEC-1 with the *ΔactA/ΔinlB* strain of Lm

is still highly sensitive to inhibition of FAK with PF573228, showing a dose-response curve that

parallels that of the control *ΔactA* strain (Fig. 4I).

So far we can conclude that substrate stiffness affects the adhesion of Lm to the surface

of HMEC-1 such that bacterial adhesion to host cells residing on soft substrates is about two-

fold less than to host cells residing on stiff substrates. The well-characterized InlB-Met

interaction contributes to invasion of adherent bacteria into HMEC-1, and is responsible for

about half of the invasion efficiency for Lm infecting these cells, however this interaction does

not govern bacterial adhesion per se and is not sensitive to substrate stiffness. We therefore

sought to identify alternative possible host cell receptors for adhesion of Lm to the surface of

HMEC-1 that might be responsible for the stiffness-dependent effects we consistently observe.

Inhibiting FAK activity leads to reduced amount of cell surface vimentin for HMEC-1.

Since the decreased FAK activity associated with growth of HMEC-1 on softer hydrogels

leads to decreased Lm adhesion onto the surface of host cells, we attempted to identify

candidate host surface receptors whose amount is modulated by FAK activity and which

mediate bacterial adhesion. Since manufacturing soft and stiff PA hydrogels with large

dimensions is both technically challenging and costly, we instead grew cells on large TC

polystyrene plates and treated them with vehicle control or the FAK inhibitor PF573228. We

then biotinylated the cell surface-exposed proteins using membrane-impermeable EZ-Link

Sulfo-NHS-SS-Biotin and isolated them by affinity chromatography with streptavidin-agarose

beads (64, 65). Isolated surface proteins were then run in 2D-PAGE gels to allow separation of

proteins according to both their isoelectric points and their molecular weight (66). Gels were

silver stained and comparison between gels was performed by marking the spots that differed in

intensity (Fig. 5A-B). We found a spot at approximately 55 kDa consistently differing in two

independent experiments between the control sample and the sample treated with the FAK

inhibitor PF573228 (see circles in Fig. 5A-B). In a third replicate experiment of surface protein

isolation, 2D-PAGE gels were Coomassie stained and that specific 55 kDa spot that differed as

a function of FAK inhibitor treatment was excised and further analyzed by nanoliquid

chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (nanoLC-MS/MS). We identified this spot as the

protein vimentin (accession number: gi|340219, Mascot identification score: 788, number of

identified peptides: 87, mass: 53752, isoelectric point: 5.05, sequence coverage: 61%).

Vimentin is a major component of the cytoskeleton forming intermediate filaments, but exists

also in soluble form and has been previously found to localize at the cell surface for a wide

variety of cells including VECs (41, 47, 50, 51, 67).

Given the high validity of identification, we sought to confirm whether vimentin is

expressed at the surface of HMEC-1 by performing immunostaining of non-permeabilized

HMEC-1 seeded on collagen I-coated glass substrates followed by epifluorescence imaging

(Fig. 6). For negative controls, cells were incubated with secondary antibody alone. The anti-

vimentin H-84 antibody stained the vimentin intermediate filaments of permeabilized cells very

well (Fig. 6A-C). Non-permeabilized cells showed surface staining of vimentin near cell-cell

junctions, while staining was less prominent for cells treated with the FAK inhibitor PF537228

and very low background staining was observed for cells incubated with secondary antibody

alone (Fig. 6D-F). This localization confirmed that cell surface vimentin could be a plausible

candidate responsible for adhesion of Lm to HMEC-1.

HMEC-1 surface vimentin contributes to Lm uptake.

To determine whether surface vimentin specifically contributes to Lm adhesion and

thereby infection of HMEC-1, we used three independent methods to decrease the availability of

cell surface vimentin for bacterial adhesion. First, we pretreated HMEC-1 with varying

concentrations of H-84 anti-vimentin antibody prior to infection with Lm, and found a dose-

dependent decrease in infection efficiency (Fig. 7A). We found a maximum two-fold decrease in

Lm infection when incubating cells with 80 μg/ml anti-vimentin antibody, while increasing further

the concentration of the antibody did not lead to further decrease in Lm uptake (Suppl. Fig. 3A).

Second, HMEC-1 were transfected with commercial non-targeting control siRNA (siNT)

or siRNA targeting vimentin (siVIM) and total vimentin expression was found to be five-fold

reduced for the vimentin knockdown cells as compared to controls through RT-PCR (Suppl. Fig.

4E and Tables S2-S3). We found a significant decrease (about 30%) in Lm infection efficiency

for the vimentin knockdown cells as compared to control cells, while confirming that cell

confluency under both conditions was similar (Fig. 7B; Suppl. Fig. 3A-D).

Third, we treated HMEC-1 cells with varying concentrations of withaferin, a natural

product known to bind the soluble form of vimentin (68-70). We found a dose-dependent

decrease in infection efficiency for Lm in withaferin-treated cells, again finding a maximum two-

fold decrease when cells were treated with 5-10 µM of withaferin prior to infection (Fig. 7C).

Higher concentrations of withaferin disrupted HMEC-1 cell-substrate adhesion. Overall these

results are consistent with the hypothesis that cell surface vimentin is responsible for about half

of the amount of adhesion of Lm to the HMEC-1 surface, and that vimentin presentation on the

cell surface is sensitive to substrate stiffness.

To examine any possible interaction between the contribution of vimentin-based

adhesion and the contribution of InlB/Met-based invasion of Lm infecting HMEC-1, we

pretreated HMEC-1 with withaferin or vehicle control and then infected with either ΔactA or

ΔactA/ ΔinlB Lm over a range of multiplicities of infection (MOI). Consistent with our results

described above, we found a two-fold decrease in Lm uptake when cells were pretreated with

withaferin and infected with ΔactA Lm or when cells were not treated with withaferin but were

infected with ΔactA/ ΔinlB Lm (Fig. 7D). When cells were both pretreated with withaferin and

infected with ΔactA/ ΔinlB Lm, infection was decreased four-fold relative to control (Fig. 7D), i.e.

InlB/Met and vimentin contribute independently to infection efficiency. However, under all

conditions there was still residual infection, suggesting that Lm uses additional strategies to

achieve uptake by HMEC-1, other than interactions with surface vimentin for bacterial adhesion

and with Met for increased bacterial internalization.

Uptake of *Listeria innocua* but not carboxylated latex beads by HMEC-1 depends on cell

surface vimentin.

Our results demonstrate that the vimentin-dependent adhesion of Lm to HMEC-1 is

sensitive to substrate stiffness and is not mediated by the bacterial internalins InlA, InlB, or InlF.

In order to gain insight into whether vimentin-based bacterial adhesion is a result of a non-

specific stickiness or a specific host-bacterium interaction, we measured the influence of cell

surface vimentin on adhesion of other bacteria and of non-biological particles. *Listeria innocua*

(Li) is a bacterium closely related to Lm that is considered non-pathogenic in that it lacks the

putative internalin family members and other virulence factors that Lm carries (71). When we

infected HMEC-1 with comparable loads of Lm and Li, we found that adhesion of both bacteria

is comparable (Fig. 8A). We also found that treating HMEC-1 with FAK inhibitor PF537228 or

blocking HMEC-1 with anti-vimentin antibody H-84 reduces adhesion of both Lm and Li onto

HMEC-1 by similar amounts (Fig. 8A). Next, to examine whether a bacterial factor common in

Lm and Li could responsible for surface vimentin mediated adhesion, we blocked HMEC-1 with

anti-vimentin antibody and exposed cells to 2 μm carboxylated latex beads, which are efficiently

taken up by VECs. We found that uptake of beads did not vary with antibody concentration and

was identical to uptake of cells treated with isotype control (Fig. 8B). Our results suggest that

cell surface vimentin is a common receptor for both Lm and Li in the context of adhesion to

HMEC-1, but uptake of nonbiological particles such as carboxylated latex beads does not

depend on surface vimentin.

DISCUSSION

Bacterial infection of VECs depends on the stiffness of the matrix on which cells reside.

Our data demonstrate that susceptibility of HMEC-1 cells to Lm infection depends on the

stiffness of the matrix on which cells reside. Mechanosensitive cells, such as VECs, can "feel" a

variety of physical cues such as fluid shear stresses, cyclic strains, matrix stiffness and respond

to them by altering their morphology, gene expression and function (72). Interestingly, many

signaling pathways involved in mechanotransduction are common irrespective of the exact

mechanical stimulus (73, 74). For instance, exposure of VECs to laminar shear stress leads to

recruitment of FAK at focal adhesions and to an increase in the phosphorylation at Y397 (73).

Consistent with FAK activity being sensitive to mechanical stimuli, we found that FAK activity is

increased when cells reside on stiffer PA hydrogels. Concurrently, we observe a decrease in Lm

uptake when FAK activity is reduced or inhibited. It is possible that enhanced FAK activity for

VECs exposed to high shear stresses, might also lead to increased Lm uptake, but this still

remains to be investigated (73). Our findings also suggest that the stiffness of the environment

where cells reside is an additional variable worth exploring since it affects cellular behavior and

susceptibility to bacterial infection and it is not taken into account in traditional studies of

bacterial infection of host cells that are commonly performed on non-physiological glass or

polystyrene surfaces. We speculate that additional mechanical cues sensed by VECs might also

affect susceptibility of cells to infection. Therefore, the development of organotypic models for

studying bacterial infection, that take into account the *in vivo* mechanical cues sensed by cells is

pertinent and will aid our emerging understanding of the biomechanics of host-bacteria

interactions as well as the design of more effective therapeutic interventions that take into

consideration the local cellular mechanical micro-environment.

Surface vimentin is a receptor for Listeria infection of VECs.

We found that lower FAK activity as occurs when HMEC-1 are seeded on softer

hydrogels leads to decreased Lm and Li adhesion onto the surface of HMEC-1 and that is

attributable to lower levels of cell surface vimentin. The role of cell surface vimentin as an

attachment receptor facilitating bacterial or viral entry has been previously documented for other

pathogens (44-51). VEC surface vimentin in particular has been shown to be the receptor for

attachment of *E. coli* K1 and multiple viruses (47, 49, 51, 75, 76). We speculate that matrix

stiffness of VECs might possibly also affect uptake of the above viruses and bacteria, since the

amount of surface vimentin is reduced when FAK activity is decreased as in the case of cells

residing on highly compliant matrices.

Bacterial adhesion to the surface of cells is commonly required as a precursor to

invasion (77, 78). Our finding that both Lm and Li adhesion is reduced when HMEC-1 are

blocked with anti-vimentin antibodies suggests that the possible bacterial binding partner of

vimentin might be expressed in both bacterial species. Surface vimentin has been shown to

possess lectin-like activity binding N-acetylglucosamine (GlcNAc), a sugar that is also

commonly found as a component of bacterial cell envelopes (79, 80). Specifically, GlcNAc is

found decorating the wall teichoic acids of Lm serotype 1/2a strains, such as the 10403S strain

used in this study (81). That implies that bacterial carbohydrate-binding to host cell surface

vimentin might also be a plausible specific interaction.

Lm uses multiple pathogenic strategies to infect VECs, some of which are independent

of ECM stiffness.

We identified that the Lm virulence factor InlB interacts with HMEC-1 receptor Met and

that Lm uptake is decreased by two-fold when Met is inhibited, however this interaction is not

sensitive to matrix stiffness. When we infected HMEC-1 with Δ*actA*/Δ*inlB* Lm after treating host

cells with withaferin that binds to soluble vimentin, we found a four-fold decrease in infection

relative to controls, indicating that the vimentin-dependent and InlB-dependent pathways

contribute to infection independently of one another; however, even when both pathways were

blocked there was still residual Lm infection. This residual Lm infection suggests that there are

additional InlB-independent and vimentin-independent mechanisms that Lm leverage to infect

HMEC-1.

Increased Lm adhesion onto HMEC-1 residing on stiff matrices could be attributed to

multiple factors. In this work we investigated the possibility of a receptor at the surface of host

cells being differentially regulated when FAK activity is increased, as in stiff matrices, and

identified cell surface vimentin as a well-supported candidate receptor. However, it is also

possible that additional factors might also lead to the decreased adhesion of Lm onto HMEC-1

residing on softer matrices. It is plausible that the cell surface glycans of HMEC-1 might be

differentially regulated depending on the stiffness of the environment. For example previous

studies have suggested both a positive correlation between FAK activity and the heparan

sulfate portion of the glycocalyx (82, 83) and between the heparan sulfate portion of the

glycocalyx and Lm adhesion onto enterocytes (84). Another possibility could be the differential

regulation of biophysical or mechanical properties of the host cells depending on matrix stiffness

(e.g. cell cortical stiffness, surface roughness, membrane tension). For instance, studies on

adhesion of bacteria onto hydrogel surfaces have shown that adherence is increased on stiffer

hydrogels (85), suggesting that if cells become stiffer on stiffer hydrogels, cellular stiffness alone

could lead to increased bacterial adhesion (22, 86).

VEC origin and physical cues might explain discrepancy between previous studies on

VEC infection by Lm.

The endothelial lining of blood vessels displays remarkable spatiotemporal heterogeneity

and the basis of these morphological and functional differences are still unclear (87-89). It is

well documented that mechanical and chemical cues relayed to VECs by their environment can

alter both function and gene expression of VECs found at different tissues (72, 90). However,

even when VECs from different origins are placed *in vitro* in the same biochemical and

mechanical environment, they can still exhibit unique characteristics and behaviors that are

intrinsic to the cells themselves and are not determined by differential culture or environmental

conditions (5, 91-93). For example, the response of human umbilical cord endothelial cells

(HUVEC) to changes in curvature or shear stress is completely distinct as compared to that of

human brain microvascular endothelial cells (HBMEC) (91). In accordance with the differences

these two cell types exhibit in response to geometrical constraints or mechanical stimuli, studies

have also shown differences with respect to Lm infection. Past studies suggest that HBMEC

infection by Lm depends on InlB (62), while HUVEC uptake of Lm appears to be independent of

both the internalins InlA and InlB (94, 95). These studies are not necessarily conflicting but

suggest that bacterial infection of VECs depends upon both the environment and the particular

origin of VECs and therefore conclusions should refer to the exact cell type and not to

endothelial cells in general. Since many pathological processes occur at the microvascular level

of organs (i.e. Lm infection of the brain microvasculature), we chose in this study to use HMEC-

1 as our model for VECs. However, extrapolation from results obtained for HMEC-1 infection by

Lm to other VECs should be performed with caution.

In conclusion, our results provide the first strong evidence that the local mechanical

environment and in particular the matrix stiffness of VECs regulates susceptibility of VECs to Lm

infection. The novel mechanosensitive pathway we identified suggests that increased ECM

stiffness sensed by VECs leads to enhanced FAK activity that augments the amount of vimentin

exposed at the surface of VECs. Increased amount of surface vimentin in turn increases Lm

adhesion and subsequent uptake by VECs. Our studies on the effect of ECM stiffness in

bacterial uptake of VECs can have other significant implications, since they provide an example

of how mechanotransduction can be exploited in biology and medicine facilitating the

development of therapeutic interventions against bacterial infections and other diseases.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Fabrication of thin two-layered polyacrylamide (PA) hydrogels on 24-well glass-bottom dishes

PA hydrogel fabrication was done as previously described with a few modifications for

the specific experiments (56, 96-98). 24-well glass bottom plates (MatTek, P24G-1.5-13-F) were

incubated for 1 h with 500 µl of 2 M NaOH. Wells were rinsed with distilled water, and 500 µl of

2% 3-Aminopropyltriethoxysilane (Sigma, 919-30-2) in 95% ethanol were added to each well for

5 min. Wells were rinsed again with water and 500 µl of 0.5% gluteraldehyde was added in each

well for 30 min. Wells were rinsed with water and dried at 60°C. To prepare hydrogels of varying

stiffness, mixtures containing 3–10% acrylamide (Sigma, A4058) and 0.06–0.6% bis-acrylamide

(Fisher, BP1404-250) were prepared. Specifically, 0.6 kPa hydrogels contained 3% acrylamide

and 0.06% bis-acrylamide, 3 kPa hydrogels contained 5% acrylamide and 0.1% bis-acrylamide,

20 kPa hydrogels contained 8% acrylamide and 0.26% bis-acrylamide, and 70 kPa hydrogels

contained 10% acrylamide and 0.6% bis-acrylamide. For each stiffness, two mixtures were

prepared the second of which contained 0.03% 0.1 µm diameter fluorescent beads (Invitrogen,

F8803). Mixtures were then degassed for 15 min to remove oxygen, which inhibits acrylamide

polymerization.

First, 0.06% APS and 0.43% TEMED were added to the solutions containing no beads

to initiate polymerization and then 3.6 µl of the mixture was added at the center of each well,

capped with 12 mm untreated circular glass coverslips and allowed to polymerize for 20 min.

The coverslips were then lifted with a syringe needle with a small hook at its tip and then 2.4 µl

of the mixture containing tracer beads was added, sandwiched again with a 12 mm untreated

circular glass coverslip, gently pressed downwards by means of forceps, and allowed to

polymerize for 20 min. 50 mM HEPES pH 7.5 was added in the wells, and coverslips were

removed using the syringe needle and forceps. PA hydrogels were UV-sterilized for 1 h.

Hydrogels were then activated by adding 200 µl 0.5% w/v heterobifunctional crosslinker Sulfo-

SANPAH (ProteoChem, c1111) in 1% DMSO and 50 mM HEPES pH 7.5 on the upper surface

of the hydrogels and exposing to UV light for 10 min. After activation, the hydrogels were

washed with 50 mM HEPES pH 7.5 to remove excess crosslinker and were coated with 200 µl

of 0.25 mg/ml rat tail collagen I (Sigma-Aldrich, C3867) in 50 mM HEPES overnight at room

temperature. Prior to seeding cells, hydrogels were incubated with cell media to allow

equilibration for 30 min.

HMEC-1 culture and infection with *Listeria monocytogenes* (Lm)

Human microvascular endothelial cells (HMEC-1, generous gift from Welch lab, UC

Berkeley) were maintained in MCDB 131 medium (Fisher Sci Co, 10372-019) supplemented

with 10% FBS (GemBio, 900-108), 10 ng/mL epidermal growth factor (Sigma, E9644), 1 µg/mL

hydrocortisone (Sigma, H0888), and 2mM L-glutamine (Sigma, 56-85-9).

HMEC-1 were infected as previously described with the following modifications (94).

The day prior to infection, host cells were seeded at a density of 4×10^5 cells/well for cells

residing on wells of 24-well plates or at a density of 1×10^5 cells/well for cells residing on wells of

48-well plates, and grown for 24 h. Lm liquid cultures were started from a plate colony, and

grown overnight, shaking, at 30°C in Brain Heart Infusion (BHI) media (BD, 211059)

supplemented with 200 µg/mL streptomycin and 7.5 µg/mL chloramphenicol. The day of the

infection, the O.D.600 of the overnight cultures was measured and diluted to 0.1. Samples were

incubated for 2 h shaking, in the dark at 30°C in BHI media supplemented with 200 µg/mL

streptomycin and 7.5 µg/mL chloramphenicol to allow the O.D. 600 to reach 0.2-0.3 and let

bacteria enter the logarithmic growth phase. Bacteria were then washed 3 times with PBS to

remove any soluble factors and infections were performed in normal growth media (99).

To synchronize invasion, Lm diluted in normal growth media were added on the HMEC-1

cells and samples were spun for 10 min at 200 x g prior to incubation. After 30 min of incubation

at 37 degrees, samples were washed 4 times in PBS and after an additional 30 min, media was

replaced with media supplemented with 20 µg/mL gentamicin. Multiplicity of infection (MOI) was

determined by plating bacteria at different dilutions, on BHI agar plates with 200 µg/mL

streptomycin and 7.5 µg/mL chloramphenicol and measuring the number of colonies formed 2

days post-infection. A similar approach was followed when HMEC-1 were infected with *Listeria*

innocua (Li), except that BHI plates with no antibiotics were used. All bacterial strains used in

these studied are indicated in Table S1.

Analysis of infection via flow cytometry was performed at 7-8 h after exposure, unless

otherwise stated. For drug exposure experiments, unless otherwise indicated, media was

removed from the cells and replaced with media containing either the drug or vehicle control 1 h

prior to infection or 30 min prior to infection for the case of withaferin. Cells were cultured in the

drug-containing media for 1 h after infection. 1 h post-infection cells were washed four times and

drug-free gentamicin-containing media was added to the cells.

Antibodies and reagents

Hoechst (Thermofisher, D1306) was dissolved at 1 mg/mL in dimethyl formamide

(DMSO) and used at 1:1000. Drugs were dissolved in DMSO (Sigma, D2650) at the stock

concentrations indicated: 10 mM FAK inhibitor-14 (FAK-14) (Tocris Bioscience, 3414), 100 mM

PF573228 (Tocris Bioscience, 3239), 20 mM SGX 523 (Tocris Bioscience *5356*), 42 mM

withaferin (Sigma-Aldrich, W4394). Primary antibody used for staining of extracellular Lm was

rabbit polyclonal anti-*Listeria* genus specific antibody (ABCAM, ab35132). Primary antibody

used for staining Li was goat polyclonal BacTrace anti-*Listeria* genus specific antibody

(SeraCare Life Sciences Inc., 01-90-90). For incubation of cells with vimentin antibodies prior to

infection or immunostaining of surface vimentin, rabbit polyclonal H-84 vimentin antibody (Santa

Cruz Biotechnologies, sc-5565) was used. For isotype controls, cells were incubated with rabbit

IgG (Sigma, I5006). For western blotting the following antibodies were used: rabbit polyclonal

phospho-FAK Tyr397 (ThermoFisher, 44-624G), mouse monoclonal anti-FAK (EMD Millipore,

05-182), rabbit monoclonal anti-Met (cMet) antibody (Abcam, ab51067), anti-GAPDH antibody

(Cell signaling, 140C10).

Flow cytometry of HMEC-1 cells infected with Lm

7-8 h post-infection, infected HMEC-1 cells were detached from the substrate by

incubating them for 10 minutes with a mixture of 200 µl of 0.25% trypsin-EDTA and 0.05%

collagenase (Sigma, C0130). Solutions in each well were pipetted up and down 6 times to

ensure single cell suspensions, and 200 µl of complete media was added to inactivate trypsin in

each well. Solutions were transferred into 5 ml polystyrene tubes with a 35 µm cell strainer cap

(Falcon, 352235) and then samples were immediately analyzed by flow cytometry on the

Scanford FACScan analyzer (Custom Stanford and Cytek upgraded FACScan). 10,000-20,000

cells were analyzed per each replicate.

Immunostaining of extracellular adherent bacteria

HMEC-1 cells residing on either PA hydrogel substrates or glass collagen I-coated

coverslips were infected as described above with a Lm strain that constitutively expresses GFP.

20 min post-infection, 1 µg/ml Hoechst (Thermofisher, D1306) was added in each well to stain

the cells' nuclei. 30 min post-infection cells were washed 4 times in PBS and fixed with a non-

permeabilizing fixative for differential immunostaining for 20 min at room temperature (100).

Fixative contained 0.32 M sucrose, 10mM MES pH 6.1, 138 mM KCl, 3 mM $MgCl_2$, 2 mM EGTA

and 4% formaldehyde EM grade. Following a wash with PBS, samples were blocked for 30

minutes with 5% BSA in PBS and then incubated with anti-Lm primary antibody (Abcam

ab35132) diluted 1:100 in PBS containing 2% BSA for 1 h. Samples were washed in PBS 3

times and then incubated with Alexa Fluor 546 goat anti-rabbit secondary antibody (Invitrogen

A-11035) diluted 1:250 in PBS containing 2% BSA for 1 h. Samples were washed 3 times in

PBS and stored in 1 ml PBS for imaging. N > 1000 cells were analyzed per condition. For

imaging, we used an inverted Nikon Diaphot 200 with a CCD camera (Andor Technologies) and

a 40X air Plan Fluor NA 0.60 or a 100X oil objective. The microscope was controlled by the

MicroManager software package (101). For differential immunostaining, all "green" bacteria

associated with individual cells were counted as adherent; bacteria that were both "green" and

"red" (due to antibody binding) were counted as non-internalized. Nuclei number was identified

running a custom-made script in MATLAB (Mathworks Inc.) and the CellC software was used for

enumeration of the bacteria (102). For characterization of total bacteria adhering to host cells

(Lm or Li), same procedure was followed with the exception that cells were permeabilized for 5

min in 0.2% Triton-X in PBS. Primary antibody used was goat polyclonal BacTrace anti-*Listeria*

genus specific antibody.

Immunostaining of surface vimentin

HMEC-1 cells residing on glass collagen I-coated coverslips were incubated at 37°C for

30 min with H-84 anti-vimentin antibody in 1:10 dilution in media. Cells were then washed three

times in PBS and fixed in 4% formaldehyde (EM grade) in PBS for 10 min at room temperature.

A blocking step with 5% FBS in PBS was followed for 30 min and then cells were incubated with

secondary goat anti-rabbit AlexaFluor-546 antibody diluted 1:250 in PBS containing 2% BSA for

1 h. For negative controls to ensure label is specific to primary antibody, cells with no primary

antibody were fixed and incubated for 1 h with secondary goat anti-rabbit AlexaFluor-546

antibody. As an additional control, cells were also fixed, permeabilized and stained for

intracellular vimentin. For imaging, we used an inverted Nikon Diaphot 200 with a CCD camera

(Andor Technologies) and a 100X oil objective.

HMEC-1 cell transfection with siRNA

For each well of a 24-well plate, 6×10^4 HMEC-1 cells suspended in serum free media

were reverse-transfected with siRNAs at 20 nM final concentration using 0.25 µL lipofectamine

RNAiMAX (Invitrogen 13778075). The transfection mix was replaced by full media 8 h later.

Synthetic siRNA to target vimentin was purchased from Dharmacon. . HMEC-1 cells were

treated with control (non-targeting, siGLO and Kif11) or experimental siRNA as described in S2

Table. Specifically, to demonstrate that transfection performed was sufficient to get siRNAs into

the cells, we transfected cells with synthetic siRNA, siGLO, that makes cell exposed to it

fluorescent 24 h post-transfection (Table S2). In addition to track a cell cycle phenotype to verify

that knockdown has occurred with our protocol, we transfected cells with siKif11 that results in

substantial cell death of transfected cells, approximately 24-48 h post-transfection and can be

verified on the TC scope (Table S2). Infections were performed approximately 72 h after

transfection

RT-qPCR

HMEC-1 cells were treated with control or experimental siRNA as described above.

mRNA was harvested using the RNeasy Micro Kit (Qiagen, 74004) and cDNA was prepared

using the Superscript III First-strand Synthesis SuperMix (ThermoFisher, 18080–400). qPCR

was performed using TaqMan PreAmp Master (Thermofisher, 4331182). Genes of interest

were amplified using primers Hs00958113_g1 for Vimentin (ThermoFisher, 4331182) and

Hs99999905_m1 for GAPDH (ThermoFisher, 4333764) on a StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR

System. Normalized relative quantity (NRQ) and error were calculated as previously described

[92]. GAPDH was used as control gene.

Western blotting of FAK and Met for HMEC-1 lysates coming from cells residing on

different substrates

For assessing FAK and Met phosphorylation and expression levels, cells were seeded

on different substrates for 24 h, and then lysed with a buffer containing 1% Nonidet P-40, 0.5%

sodium deoxycholate, and a protease inhibitor mixture (PMSF, leupeptin, aprotinin, and sodium

orthovanadate). The total cell lysate was separated by SDS/PAGE (10% running, 4% stacking)

and transferred onto a nitrocellulose membrane (Immobilon P, 0.45-µm pore size). The

membrane was then incubated with the designated antibodies. Immunodetection was performed

using the Western-Light chemiluminescent detection system (Applied Biosystems).

Cell surface protein isolation

The isolation of cell surface proteins was adapted according to (103) and (104). Cells

were plated on 10 x 15 cm cell culture dishes until reaching confluency for each condition. Cells

from 10 dishes were incubated with vehicle control (DMSO) containing media and cells from

other 10 dishes with 2 µM PF537228 FAK inhibitor for 1 h. Cells were then washed three times

with DPBS+ (PBS, 0.901 mM CaCl2, 0.492 mM $MgCl_2$, 2.667 mM KCl, 1.47 mM KH_2PO_4,

137.931 mM NaCl, 8.060 mM Na_2HPO_4-$7H_2O$, 5.555 mM D-Glucose, 0.327 mM Sodium

Pyruvate), and incubated for 30 min with 0.5 mM EZ-Link Sulfo-NHS-SS-Biotin (APExBIO,

21331) in DPBS+ at $4^{o}C$. To quench any non-reacted biotinylation, 1 M Tris pH 8.0 at a final

concentration of 50 mM was added on each plate for 10 min at $4^{o}C$. The solution was then

discarded and plates were rinsed twice in 1X TBS (50 mM Tris-Cl pH 7.2, 150 mM NaCl). 2 ml

of TBS pH 7.2 with 1X protease inhibitor cocktail (1 mM EDTA, 10 µM E-64, 2 µg/ml leupeptin,

15 µg/ml benzamidine, 0.1 mM PMSF) and with 1X phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (1 mM

Na_3VO_4, 1 mM NaF) were added to each dish and cells were scraped into 40 ml falcon tubes.

Tubes were spun at 400 x g for 5 min and the supernatant was discarded. 10 ml of lysis buffer

(50 mM Tris-HCL pH 8.5, 150 mM NaCl, 2% NP-40, 0.25% Deoxycholate, 2x protease inhibitor

cocktail, 1x osphatase inhibitor cocktail) were added to each single pellet obtained from 10 x 15

cm plates, and cells were passed through a 25 G needle attached to a 10 ml syringe 3

times. Lysates were then sonicated for 5 min in a bioruptor with 30 sec ON/OFF cycle. 1 mM

$MgCl_2$ and 50 U/ml benzonase (Sigma, 9025-65-4) were added to the samples that were then

incubated at 4 °C for 2 h on a rotator. EDTA to a final concentration of 5 mM was added to each

sample and samples were spun in an ultracentrifuge (Rotor type 70.1 Ti; 33,000 rpm) at

100,000 x g for 60 min at 4 °C. Supernatants were then transferred into fresh 15 ml Falcon

tubes and protein concentration was estimated by the BCA protein assay (Thermo Fisher

Scientific, Pierce Rockford). Equal amounts of protein (~5 mg) from each extract were used for

cell surface protein isolation.

Streptavidin agarose beads (Pierce, 20347) were washed three times with lysis buffer.

50 µl per 5 mg/lysate were added for 2 h or overnight at 4 °C on a rotator. Samples were then

transferred to 2 ml gravity flow columns (BioRad) pre-equilibrated with 2 ml wash buffer I (50

mM Tris-HCL pH 8.5, 150 mM NaCl, 2% NP-40, 0.25% Deoxycholate, 0.5% SDS). The flow-

through was collected and stored at -80 °C. Columns were washed once with 2 ml lysis buffer

(excluding protease and phosphatase inhibitors), then with 2 ml wash buffer I, followed by a 2

ml wash with wash buffer II (50 mM Tris-HCL pH 8.5, 300 mM NaCl, 2% NP-40, 0.25%

Deoxycholate, 0.5% SDS) and then again with 2 ml wash buffer I. Beads were then transferred

to a fresh 1.5 ml Eppendorf tube and 3x volume of elution buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.5, 2%

SDS, 100 mM DTT) was added and samples were incubated at 37 °C for 1 h on a thermomixer.

Beads were then spun down and supernatant was collected and 5% aliquoted for gel-analysis

(2.5% elution for Western Blot and 2.5% elution for Silver staining of 1D-PAGE gels) and the

rest was put in a fresh 1.5 ml Eppendorf tube and stored at -80°C.

2D SDS-PAGE electrophoresis and staining

Two-dimensional electrophoresis was performed according to the carrier ampholyte

method of isoelectric focusing (105, 106) by Kendrick Labs, Inc. (Madison, WI) as follows:

Isoelectric focusing was carried out in a glass tube of inner diameter 2.3 mm using 2% pH 3-10

Isodalt Servalytes (Serva, Heidelberg, Germany) for 9600 volt-h. 1 µg of an IEF internal

standard, tropomyosin, was added to the sample. This protein migrates as a doublet with lower

polypeptide spot of MW 33,000 and pI 5.2. The enclosed tube gel pH gradient plot for this set of

Servalytes was determined with a surface pH electrode. After equilibration for 10 min in Buffer

'O' (10% glycerol, 50 mM dithiothreitol, 2.3% SDS and 0.0625 M Tris, pH 6.8), each tube gel

was sealed to the top of a stacking gel that overlaid a 10% acrylamide slab gel (0.75 mm thick).

SDS slab gel electrophoresis was carried out for about 4 h at 15 mA/gel. The following proteins

(Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO and EMD Millipore, Billerica, MA) were used as molecular

weight standards: myosin (220,000), phosphorylase A (94,000), catalase (60,000), actin

(43,000), carbonic anhydrase (29,000) and lysozyme (14,000). These standards appear along

the basic edge of the silver-stained (107) 10% acrylamide slab gel. The gels were dried

between sheets of cellophane with the acid edge to the left.

Manual comparisons of patterns of silver-stained 2D gels

Each gel for comparison was overlaid with a transparent sheet for labeling polypeptide

spot differences without marking the original gel. Two experienced analysts manually compared

protein patterns and polypeptide spots that were unique to or differed between controls and

PF537228 samples were outlined.

Protein digestion and peptide extraction

Proteins that were separated by SDS-PAGE/2D-PAGE and stained by Coomassie dye

were excised, washed and the proteins from the gel were treated according to published

protocols (108-110). Briefly, the gel pieces were washed in high purity, high performance liquid

chromatography HPLC grade water, dehydrated and cut into small pieces and de-stained by

incubating in 50 mM ammonium bicarbonate, 50 mM ammonium bicarbonate/50% acetonitrile,

and 100% acetonitrile under moderate shaking, followed by drying in a speed-vac concentrator.

The gel bands were then rehydrated with 50 mM ammonium bicarbonate. The procedure was

repeated twice. The gel bands were then rehydrated in 50 mM ammonium bicarbonate

containing 10 mM DTT and incubated at 56°C for 45 minutes. The DTT solution was then

replaced by 50 mM ammonium bicarbonate containing 100 mM Iodoacetamide for 45 minutes in

the dark, with occasional vortexing. The gel pieces were then re-incubated in 50 mM ammonium

bicarbonate/50% acetonitrile, and 100% acetonitrile under moderate shaking, followed by drying

in speed-vac concentrator. The dry gel pieces were then rehydrated using 50 mM ammonium

bicarbonate containing 10 ng/ml trypsin and incubated overnight at 37°C under low shaking.

The resulting peptides were extracted twice with 5% formic acid/50 mM ammonium

bicarbonate/50% acetonitrile and once with 100% acetonitrile under moderate shaking. Peptide

mixture was then dried in a speed-vac, solubilized in 20 ml of 0.1% formic acid/2% acetonitrile.

Liquid chromatography and tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS)

The peptide mixture was analyzed by reverse phase liquid chromatography (LC) and MS

(LC-MS/MS) using a NanoAcuity UPLC (Micromass/Waters, Milford, MA) coupled to a Q-TOF

Ultima API MS (Micromass/Waters, Milford, MA), according to published procedures (108, 111-

113). Briefly, the peptides were loaded onto a 100 mm x 10 mm NanoAquity BEH130 C18 1.7

mm UPLC column (Waters, Milford, MA) and eluted over a 150 minute gradient of 2-80%

organic solvent (ACN containing 0.1% FA) at a flow rate of 400 nL/min. The aqueous solvent

was 0.1% FA in HPLC water. The column was coupled to a Picotip Emitter Silicatip nano-

electrospray needle (New Objective, Woburn, MA). MS data acquisition involved survey MS

scans and automatic data dependent analysis (DDA) of the top three ions with the highest

intensity ions with the charge of 2+, 3+ or 4+ ions. The MS/MS was triggered when the MS

signal intensity exceeded 10 counts/second. In survey MS scans, the three most intense peaks

were selected for collision-induced dissociation (CID) and fragmented until the total MS/MS ion

counts reached 10,000 or for up to 6 seconds each. The entire procedure used was previously

described (108, 111, 112). Calibration was performed for both precursor and product ions using

1 pmol GluFib (Glu1-Fibrinopeptide B) standard peptide with the sequence

EGVNDNEEGFFSAR and the monoisotopic doubly-charged peak with m/z of 785.84.

LC-MS/MS data processing and protein identification

The raw data were processed using ProteinLynx Global Server (PLGS, version 2.4)

software as previously described (111). The following parameters were used: background

subtraction of polynomial order 5 adaptive with a threshold of 30%, two smoothings with a

window of three channels in Savitzky-Golay mode and centroid calculation of top 80% of peaks

based on a minimum peak width of 4 channels at half height. The resulting pkl files were

submitted for database search and protein identification to the public Mascot database search

(www.matrixscience.com, Matrix Science, London, UK) using the following parameters:

databases from NCBI (bacteria), parent mass error of 1.3 Da, product ion error of 0.8 Da,

enzyme used: trypsin, one missed cleavage, propionamide as cysteine fixed modification and

Methionine oxidized as variable modification. To identify false negative results, we used

additional parameters such as different databases or organisms, a narrower error window for

the parent mass error (1.2 and then 0.2 Da) and for the product ion error (0.6 Da), and up to two

missed cleavage sites for trypsin. In addition, the pkl files were also searched against in-house

PLGS database version 2.4 (www.waters.com) using searching parameters similar to the ones

used for Mascot search. The Mascot and PLGS database search provided a list of proteins for

each gel band. To eliminate false positive results, for the proteins identified by either one

peptide or a mascot score lower than 25, we verified the MS/MS spectra that led to identification

of a protein.

Atomic force microscopy force-distance measurements for hydrogel stiffness

characterization

AFM force-distance beating were performed on PA hydrogel samples in 50mM HEPES

pH 7.5 buffer with a Park NX-10 AFM (Park Systems, Santa Clara, CA) using commercial silicon

nitride cantilevers CP-PNP-SiO with a sphere tip (sQube, 0.08 N/m stiffness, sphere radius ~ 1

micron) and gold coating on the reflective side. Temperature has been kept at 37 ˚C throughout

the experiment. Tip calibration curves were performed on glass substrate surface, which was

considered infinitely hard for the soft tips used. Two approach-withdraw cycles were performed

per cell. Data analysis of FD curves and calculation of Young's modulus was performed using

XEI software (Park Systems, Santa Clara, CA) and SPIP software (Image Metrology, Hørsholm,

Denmark).

Visualization and comparison of distributions

Distributions were visualized by using boxplots with the features indicated below. Bold

black line parallel to the x-axis indicates the median (second quartile) of the distribution and

boxplot's notched section shows the 95% confidence interval around the median (Wilcoxon–

Mann–Whitney nonparametric test). Regular black lines extended vertically below and above

the medians represent the first and third quartiles of the distribution. Lines extending vertically

from the boxplot (whiskers) represent the lowest datum within 1.5 IQR (interquartile range) of

the lower quartile and the highest datum within 1.5 IQR of the upper quartile. Outliers are

represented by circles. To assess whether the differences between the medians of two

distributions are significant we run a nonparametric Wilcoxon rank sum test since the

distributions are not normal. One or two asterisks denote statistically significant differences

between the medians of two distributions (< 0.05 or < 0.01, respectively).

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS:

E.E.B. and J.A.T. conceived the project and designed the experiments. E.E.B. performed

experiments and analyzed data. Y.Y. performed experiments. E.E.B. and J.A.T. wrote the

paper.

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performed at the Stanford Shared FACS Facility and RT-qPCR was performed at Stanford PAN

Facility.

 FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Uptake of Lm by HMEC-1 depends on the stiffness of the matrix on which cells reside.

HMEC-1 residing on PA hydrogels of varying stiffness coated with collagen I were infected with ΔactA Lm (actAp::mTagRFP). Infection was analyzed by flow cytometry 7–8 h post infection. Bacteria were added at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) between 30 to 50 bacteria per host cell. **(A-D)** Histograms of the logarithm of bacterial fluorescence intensity per cell for HMEC-1 plated on 0.6 kPa **(A)**, 3 kPa **(B)**, 20 kPa **(C)** and 70 kPa **(D)** PA hydrogels. Histograms for N=5 replicates are shown in different colors. Histogram of control uninfected cells is shown in purple. Based on the autofluorescence of the control group a gate is defined (see black and red lines) showing what is considered uninfected (left, black line) and infected (right, red line). **(E)** Boxplots of percentage of HMEC-1 infected with ΔactA Lm versus hydrogel stiffness for the data shown in panels A-D. Circles represent outliers, and the boxplots' notched sections show the 95% confidence interval around the median (Wilcoxon–Mann–Whitney test, for details about boxplots see Materials and Methods). One or two asterisks denote statistically significant differences between the medians of two distributions (<0.05 or <0.01, respectively; Wilcoxon rank sum test). **(F)** Boxplots of normalized fraction of HMEC-1 infected with ΔactA Lm for cells residing on PA hydrogels of varying stiffness or TC polystyrene. Stiffness (kPa) of each substrate is indicated. Boxplots refer to data from 3 independent experiments, with N = 5-6 replicates per experiment. For each experiment values have been normalized relative to the mean infection level of cells residing on polystyrene substrates.

Figure 2. FAK activity of HMEC-1 residing on soft PA hydrogels is decreased, as is Lm uptake.

(**A**) Western blots from whole HMEC-1 lysates showing expression of phosphorylated FAK (Tyr397) and total FAK for cells residing on soft gels (3 kPa), stiff gels (70 kPa) and TC

polystyrene substrates with or without 2 µM PF537228 FAK inhibitor. In each Western blot, equal quantities of protein were loaded and equal loading was confirmed in relation to glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) expression. In each case, the Western blots shown are representative of 3 independent experiments. (**B-C**) Normalized ratio of FAK/GAPDH (**B**) and pFAK (Tyr397)/GAPDH (**C**) for HMEC-1 residing on varying stiffness substrates and treated or not with 2 µM PF537228 FAK inhibitor. Different color circles correspond to data from 3 independent experiments. Black bars represent the mean of the 3 independent experiments. For each experiment values have been normalized relative to the ratio for cells residing on polystyrene substrates. (**D**) Inhibition of bacterial uptake by FAK inhibitors. FAK-14, PF573228 or vehicle control was added 1 h before addition of bacteria to HMEC-1 residing on polystyrene substrates. Percentage of HMEC-1 infected with Δ*actA* Lm (actAp::mTagRFP) as a function of inhibitor concentration (mean +/- SD, N = 4 replicates). Inset shows the same data with concentration on a log scale. Infection was analyzed by flow cytometry, 7–8 h after infection. MOI is 80. Representative data come from 1 of 3 independent experiments.

Figure 3. Lm adhesion but not invasion efficiency is increased when HMEC-1 reside on stiff hydrogels.

HMEC-1 residing on soft (3 kPa) or stiff (70 kPa) PA hydrogels and treated with vehicle control or 2 µM PF537228 FAK inhibitor were infected with Lm (constitutively expressing GFP) at an MOI between 1.5 to 15. 30 min post-infection samples were fixed, and immunostained, and infection was analyzed by microscopy followed by image processing. Boxplots showing the distribution of the normalized fraction of: (**A**) total bacteria per cell; (**B**) internalized bacteria per cell; (**C**) invasion efficiency (ratio of internalized bacteria to total bacteria); (**D**) cells in the field of view. For each experiment, values have been normalized relative to the mean value for cells residing on stiff PA hydrogels without drug treatment. Boxplots refer to data from 3 independent

experiments and 2600-2900 cells were analyzed for each condition. Two asterisks denote

statistically significant differences between the medians of two distributions (<0.01; Wilcoxon

rank sum test).

Figure 4. Infection of HMEC-1 by Lm is in part mediated by InlB in a manner independent

of matrix stiffness.

(**A**) Percentage of HMEC-1 infected with Lm as a function of the logarithm of MOI (mean +/- SD,

N = 4 replicates). HMEC-1 were infected with the indicated strains: wild type (circle); Δ*inlA*

(square); Δ*inlB* (cross); Δ*inlF* (diamond) (actAp::mTagRFP). The frequency of infected HMEC-1

was determined by flow cytometry 7–8 h post infection. Representative data come from 1 of 3

independent experiments. (**B**) Percentage of HMEC-1 infected with Lm as a function of the

logarithm of MOI (mean +/- SD, N = 4 replicates). HMEC-1 were infected with the indicated

strains: Δ*actA* (black circle); Δ*actA/ΔinlB* (gray square) (actAp::mTagRFP). The frequency of

infected HMEC-1 was determined by flow cytometry 7–8 h post infection. Representative data

come from 1 of 3 independent experiments. **(C)** Boxplots of percentage of HMEC-1 infected with

Lm as a function of substrate stiffness (N = 5-6 replicates). HMEC-1 were infected with the

indicated Lm strains: Δ*actA* (gray); Δ*actA/ΔinlB* (black) (actAp::mTagRFP) at an MOI of 20.

Infection was analyzed by flow cytometry, 7–8 h after infection. Representative data come from

1 of 3 independent experiments. One or two asterisks denote statistically significant differences

between the medians of two distributions (<0.05 or <0.01, respectively; Wilcoxon rank sum test).

(**D-F**) HMEC-1 residing on collagen I-coated glass substrates were infected with Lm

(constitutively expressing GFP) or Δ*inlB* Lm at an MOI of 3.5. 30 min post-infection samples

were fixed, immunostained and infection was analyzed by microscopy followed by image

processing. Boxplots showing: (**D**) total bacteria per cell; (**E**) internalized bacteria per cell; (**F**)

invasion efficiency (ratio of internalized bacteria to total bacteria). For each condition, 500-550

cells were analyzed in total. (**G**) Percentage of HMEC-1 infected with Lm as a function of SGX-

523 Met inhibitor concentration (mean +/- SD, N = 4 replicates). SGX-523 or vehicle control was

added 1 h before addition of bacteria. HMEC-1 were infected with the indicated strains: Δ*actA*

(black circle); Δ*actA/*Δ*inlB* (gray square) (actAp::mTagRFP) at an MOI of 75. Infection was

analyzed by flow cytometry, 7–8 h after infection. Representative data come from 1 of 3

independent experiments. **(H)** Boxplots of percentage of HMEC-1 infected with Lm as a function

of substrate stiffness (N = 5-6 replicates). HMEC-1 were treated with vehicle control or 1 μM

SGX-523 Met inhibitor for 1 h prior to infection and then infected with Δ*actA* Lm

(actAp::mTagRFP). Infection was analyzed by flow cytometry, 7–8 h after infection. MOI is 20.

Representative data come from 1 of 3 independent experiments. **(I)** Percentage of HMEC-1

infected with Lm as a function of PF537228 inhibitor concentration (mean +/- SD, N = 4

replicates). PF537228 or vehicle control was added 1 h before addition of bacteria (see Suppl.

Fig. 1D). HMEC-1 were infected with the indicated strains: Δ*actA* (black circle); Δ*actA/*Δ*inlB*

(gray square) (actAp::mTagRFP) at an MOI of 75. Infection was analyzed by flow cytometry, 7–

8 h after infection. Representative data come from 1 of 3 independent experiments. Inset shows

the same data with concentration on a log scale.

Figure 5. Lower FAK activity leads to reduced amount of cell surface vimentin.

(**A-B)** 2D-PAGE gels of plasma membrane proteins of HMEC-1 grown on TC polystyrene

substrates treated for 1 h with vehicle control (**A**) or 2 μM PF537228 FAK inhibitor (**B).** pH

increases from left to right. Gels were silver stained and one isoelectric point marker

(tropomyosin), added to each sample as an internal standard, is marked with a black arrow. The

one spot that differed consistently between 3 independent experiments is indicated with a black

circle and corresponds to vimentin (55 kDa).

Figure 6. Surface vimentin is localized along the periphery of HMEC-1.

Cells were stained for vimentin using the rabbit anti-vimentin H-84 antibody. For negative

controls, cells were stained with secondary anti-rabbit IgG antibody alone. Representative

phase image of cells (Phase, left column), image of the nuclei (DAPI, middle column) and

antibody fluorescence (AF-546, right column) are shown for: (**A**) Permeabilized HMEC-1 treated

with vehicle control and strained for intracellular vimentin; (**B**) Permeabilized HMEC-1 treated

with 2 µM PF537228 FAK inhibitor and strained for intracellular vimentin. (**C**) Permeabilized

HMEC-1 treated with vehicle control and incubated with anti-rabbit IgG alone as negative

controls. (**D**) Non permeabilized HMEC-1 treated with vehicle control and stained for surface

vimentin; (**E**) Non permeabilized HMEC-1 treated with 2 µM PF537228 FAK inhibitor and

stained for surface vimentin. (**F**) Non permeabilized HMEC-1 treated with vehicle control and

incubated with anti-rabbit IgG alone as negative controls. Scale bar shown in white is 20 µm.

White arrows point at the localization of surface vimentin at cell-cell junctions.

Figure 7. Surface vimentin of HMEC-1 is implicated in Lm uptake. (**A**) Decrease in bacterial

uptake after blocking HMEC-1 with anti-vimentin antibody H-84. Barplots of normalized fraction

of HMEC-1 infected with Δ*actA* Lm (actAp::mTagRFP) as a function of antibody concentration

(means +/-S.D., 3 independent experiments and N=4 replicates per experiment). For each

experiment, values have been normalized relative to the mean infection level of cells treated

with isotype control. Infection was analyzed by flow cytometry, 7–8 h after infection. (**B**) Barplots

of normalized fraction of HMEC-1 infected with Δ*actA* Lm (actAp::mTagRFP) and treated either

with non-targeting siRNA (siNT) or vimentin siRNA (siVIM) (means +/-S.D., 3 independent

experiments and N=4-6 replicates per experiment). For each experiment values have been

normalized relative to the mean infection level of cells treated with siNT. (**C**) Decreased uptake

of Lm when HMEC-1 are treated with withaferin that captures soluble vimentin 30 min prior to

infection. Barplots show normalized fraction of HMEC-1 infected with Δ*actA* Lm

(actAp::mTagRFP) as a function of withaferin concentration (means +/-S.D., 3 independent

experiments and N=4 replicates per experiment). For each experiment, values have been

normalized relative to the mean infection level of cells treated with vehicle control. Infection was

analyzed by flow cytometry, 7–8 h after infection. One or two asterisks denote statistically

significant differences between the medians of infection fraction of control versus all other

groups (<0.05 or <0.01, respectively; Wilcoxon rank sum test). **(D)** Percentage of HMEC-1

infected with Lm as a function of the logarithm of MOI (mean +/- SD, N = 4 replicates). HMEC-1

were infected with the indicated strains: Δ*actA* (black); Δ*actA/*Δ*inlB* (gray) (actAp::mTagRFP)

and HMEC-1 were treated with vehicle control (circle) or withaferin (diamond) for 30 min prior to

infection. The frequency of infected HMEC-1 was determined by flow cytometry 7–8 h post

infection. Representative data come from 1 of 3 independent experiments. MOI if not indicated

ranged from 50 to 120.

Figure 8. Blocking HMEC-1 with anti-vimentin antibody reduces Li adhesion onto HMEC-1

but not uptake of beads.

(A) Boxplots showing the number of bacteria per cell, for HMEC-1 residing on glass substrates

and treated with vehicle control, 2 µM PF537228 FAK inhibitor, or 80 µg/ml H-84 anti-vimentin

antibody prior to infection. Cells were infected with Lm or Li at an MOI of 4. 30 min post-infection

samples were fixed, immunostained and adhesion of bacteria was analyzed by microscopy

followed by image processing. For each condition, 2300-2600 cells were analyzed in total and

data refer to 1 of 2 independent experiments. Two asterisks denote statistically significant

differences between the median values of control cells versus all other groups <0.01; Wilcoxon

rank sum test). **(B)** HMEC-1 residing on TC polystyrene substrates and blocked for 1 h with

varying concentrations of H-84 anti-vimentin antibody or isotype control were "infected" with 2

µm beads at different concentrations. The frequency of micro-bead uptake by HMEC-1 was

determined by flow cytometry 2 h post addition of beads. Plot shows percentage of cells that

internalized beads as a function of the log of beads/cell added for different H-84 antibody

concentrations (mean +/- SD, N = 4 replicates).

SUPPORTING INFORMATION CAPTIONS

Figure S1. Lm infection of VECs residing on hydrogels of varying stiffness.

(A) Young's moduli of hydrogels. Plot showing the expected Young's modulus of the hydrogels

given the amount of acrylamide and bis-acrylamide used versus the Young's modulus

measured through AFM (N=6). Stiffness of the 0.6 kPa could not be measured, as the

hydrogels were very soft and adhered to the AFM tip. **(B)** Fraction of cells passed through the

flow cell in 20 s for HMEC-1 residing on varying stiffness substrates. HMEC-1 were seeded on

0.6 kPa, 3 kPa, 20 kPa and 70 kPa PA hydrogels as well as TC polystyrene substrates for 24 h

at a starting concentration of 4×10^5 cells per well for 24 h. Cells were then detached from their

matrix and number of cells per well passed through the flow cell in 20 s was measured using a

flow cytometry for cells coming from N=5-6 wells for each substrate stiffness. Results from 3

independent experiments were combined and for each experiment values were normalized

relative to the mean number of cells passed through the flow cell for cells residing on TC

polystyrene substrates. No significant differences were detected. **(C)** Western blot from whole

HMEC-1 lysates showing expression of Met for cells seeded on soft (3 kPa), stiff (70 kPa) and

TC polystyrene substrates treated or not with 2 µM PF537228 FAK inhibitor. In each case, equal

quantities of protein were loaded and equal loading was also confirmed in relation to

glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) expression.

Figure S2. Substrate stiffness and FAK activity decrease in bacterial uptake independent

of InlB. (A) Boxplots of normalized fraction of HMEC-1 infected with Lm as a function of

substrate stiffness. Boxplots refer to data from 3 independent experiments, with N = 5-6

replicates per experiment. For each experiment, values have been normalized relative to the

mean infection level of cells residing on polystyrene substrates. HMEC-1 were infected with the

indicated Lm strains: Δ*actA* (gray); Δ*actA*/Δ*inlB* (black) (actAp::mTagRFP). Infection was

analyzed by flow cytometry, 7–8 h after infection. MOI is between 20 to 75. One or two asterisks

denote statistically significant differences between the medians of two distributions (<0.05 or

<0.01, respectively; Wilcoxon rank sum test). **(B)** Boxplots of normalized fraction of HMEC-1

infected with Lm as a function of substrate stiffness (N = 5-6 replicates). HMEC-1 were treated

with vehicle control (black) or 1 µM SGX-523 Met inhibitor (gray) for 1 h prior to infection and

then infected with Δ*actA* Lm (actAp::mTagRFP). Boxplots refer to data coming from 3

independent experiments, with N = 5-6 biological replicates per experiment. For each

experiment, values have been normalized relative to the mean infection level of cells residing on

polystyrene substrates. Infection was analyzed by flow cytometry, 7–8 h after infection. MOI is

between 25 to 50.

Figure S3. Blocking HMEC-1 with anti-vimentin antibody or treating HMEC-1 with

withaferin reduces Lm uptake up to two-fold. (A) Percentage of HMEC-1 infected with Δ*actA*

Lm (actAp::mTagRFP) when cells are blocked with varying H-84 anti-vimentin antibody

concentrations. Barplots represent means +/-S.D. and N=6 replicates. Isotype control (IgG) is

also shown. Infection was analyzed by flow cytometry, 7–8 h after infection. MOI is 90. Two

asterisks denote statistically significant differences between the medians of isotype control

versus all other groups (<0.01; Wilcoxon rank sum test). **(B)** InlB and surface vimentin both

contribute to uptake of Lm by HMEC-1. Barplots of normalized fraction of HMEC-1 infected with

either Δ*actA* (black) or Δ*actA/*Δ*inlB* (gray) Lm (actAp::mTagRFP) and treated with vehicle

control or 5 µM withaferin (means +/-S.D., 3 independent experiments and N=4 replicates per

experiment). For each experiment, values have been normalized relative to the mean infection

level of cells treated with vehicle control and infected with Δ*actA* Lm. The frequency of infected

HMEC-1 was determined by flow cytometry 7–8 h post infection. MOI if not indicated ranged

from 50 to 120.

Figure S4. Knocking down vimentin decreases Lm uptake. (**A-B**) Histograms of the

logarithm of Lm fluorescence intensity per cell for HMEC-1 treated with 20 nM of non-targeting

siRNA (siNT) **(A)** or vimentin siRNA (siVIM) **(B)**. HMEC-1 were infected with *ΔactA* Lm

(actAp::mTagRFP) and infection was analyzed by flow cytometry, 7–8 h after infection. MOI is

34. Histograms for N=6 replicates are shown in different colors. Control uninfected cells'

histogram is shown in purple. Based on the autofluorescence of the control group a gate is

defined (see black and red lines) showing what is considered uninfected (left, black line) and

infected (right, red line). **(C)** Number of HMEC-1 passed through the flow cell in 20 s, for N = 4

samples coming from wells treated with either siNT or siVIM. **(D)** Boxplots of percentage of

HMEC-1 infected with *ΔactA* Lm for the data shown in panels A-B. One or two asterisks denote

statistically significant differences between the medians of two distributions (<0.05 or <0.01,

respectively; Wilcoxon rank sum test). **(E)** Relative with respect to GAPDH gene expression of

vimentin obtained by RT-qPCR. The levels relative levels of expression in each siRNA treated

sample (#1-#3) are expressed relative to the control siNT treated sample #2 (normalized relative

quantity, NRQ). N=3 replicates are shown for each group treated with either siNT or siVIM.

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

Supplementary Table 1. Bacterial strains used in this study.

Supplementary Table 2. Synthetic siRNA pools used in this study.

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A

HMEC-1 on polystyrene, vehicle control

[kDa]

Increasing pH

B

HMEC-1 on polystyrene, PF573228

[kDa]

Increasing pH

A

B

C

A

μg/ml

	N/A	120	40	80	120
	No	IgG	anti-vimentin		

B

withaferin − + − +

ΔactA   ΔactA/ΔinlB