Decoding and blocking the bacterial lipid flippase MprF yields a novel anti-virulence

strategy

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Conflict of interest statement

Antibodies disclosed in the manuscript are part of active patent "Anti-staphylococcal antibodies"

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Abstract

The pandemic of antibiotic resistance represents a major human health threat demanding new

antimicrobial strategies. MprF is synthase and flippase of the phospholipid lysyl-phosphatidylglycerol

that increases virulence and resistance of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) and

other pathogens. With the aim to design an anti-virulence strategy for staphylococci causing minimal

antibiotic selection pressure, we developed MprF-targeting monoclonal antibodies which bound and

inhibited the MprF flippase. Antibody M-C7.1 targeted a loop in the enigmatic flippase domain that

proved to be exposed at both sides of the bacterial membrane, thereby providing mechanistic

insights into bacterial lipid translocation. M-C7.1 rendered MRSA susceptible to host antimicrobial

peptides and antibiotics such as daptomycin. Moreover, it impaired MRSA survival in human

phagocytes and virulence in a murine infection model, which recommends MprF inhibitors for new

anti-MRSA approaches. MprF-directed monoclonal antibodies provide a proof of concept for

development of precisely targeting anti-virulence drugs which block bacterial defense mechanisms.

Introduction

The continuous increase of antibiotic resistance rates undermines the significance and efficacy of

available antibiotics against bacterial infections (Ardal, Balasegaram et al., 2020). Several

opportunistic antibiotic-resistant bacterial pathogens including methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus*

aureus (MRSA), vancomycin-resistant enterococci, and extended-spectrum beta-lactam or

carbapenem-resistant proteobacteria impose a continuously growing pressure on modern healthcare

systems (Tacconelli, Carrara et al., 2017). MRSA is responsible for a large percentage of superficial

and severe bacterial infections and the available last-resort antibiotics are much less effective than

beta-lactams (Lee, de Lencastre et al., 2018). Unfortunately, no new class of antibiotics has entered

the clinical phase since the introduction of the lipopeptide antibiotic daptomycin in 2003 (Ardal et al.,

2020). Novel anti-infective strategies that would circumvent on one hand the difficulties in

identifying new microbiota-preserving small-molecule antimicrobials and, on the other hand, the

enormous selection pressures exerted by broad-spectrum antibiotics, are discussed as potential

solutions against a looming post-antibiotic era (Dickey, Cheung et al., 2017). Such strategies could be

based for instance on therapeutic antibodies or bacteriophages, which usually have only a narrow

activity spectrum. A possible direction could be the inhibition of bacterial targets that are of viable

importance only during infection (Lakemeyer, Zhao et al., 2018). Blocking such targets by so-called

anti-virulence or anti-fitness drugs would preserve microbiome integrity and create selection

pressure for resistance-conferring mutations only on invading pathogens. Interfering with bacterial

virulence factors should ameliorate the course of infection and enable more effective bacterial

clearance by the immune system or by antibiotics.

While anti-virulence and anti-fitness therapies are discussed for several of the notoriously antibiotic-

resistant bacterial pathogens, none has passed an early experimental stage, probably because most

of the major pharmaceutical companies have strongly reduced their investments into new

antibacterials (Ardal et al., 2020, Theuretzbacher, Outterson et al., 2019). A recent approach showed

promising effects reducing host colonization and invasion in meningococcal disease using

phenothiazines, a family of compounds applied for treatment of psychotic disorders, to target Type

IV pili, important bacterial adhesion and virulence factors (Denis, Le Bris et al., 2019). Most of the

documented anti-virulence approaches appear to rely on small-molecule inhibitors, which are

difficult to identify and often have problematic pharmacological, toxicological, and resistance-

inducing properties (Theuretzbacher et al., 2019). Monoclonal antibodies (mABs) directed against

anti-virulence targets could be interesting alternatives provided the target can be reached by

comparatively large antibody molecules. Therapeutic mABs are used in several malignant and

inflammatory diseases(Qu, Tang et al., 2018) and have proven efficacy in toxin-mediated bacterial

infections such as anthrax or clostridial toxin-mediated diseases (Chen, Moayeri et al., 2011, Dickey

et al., 2017, Posteraro, Pea et al., 2018). Apart from toxin neutralization, however, mABs have hardly

been applied in antimicrobial development programs.

The Multiple Peptide Resistance Factor (MprF), a large integral membrane protein, is crucial for the

capacity of bacterial pathogens such as *S. aureus* to resist cationic antimicrobial peptides (CAMPs) of

the innate immune system and CAMP-like antibiotics such as daptomycin (Ernst & Peschel, 2011,

Peschel, Jack et al., 2001, Slavetinsky, Kuhn et al., 2016). MprF is highly conserved and can be found

in various Gram-positive or Gram-negative pathogens (Slavetinsky et al., 2016). MprF proteins

proved to be crucial for *in vivo* virulence of various pathogens in infection models and when exposed

to human phagocytes(Slavetinsky et al., 2016). Some parts of the protein are located on the outer

surface of the cytoplasmic membrane and could in principle be reached by mABs (Ernst, Kuhn et al.,

2015, Ernst, Staubitz et al., 2009). MprF forms oligomers and it is a bifunctional enzyme, which can

be separated into two distinct domains (Ernst et al., 2015). The C-terminal domain synthesizes

positively charged lysyl-phosphatidylglycerol (LysPG) from a negatively charged phosphatidylglycerol

(PG) acceptor and a Lys-tRNA donor substrate, while the N-terminal domain translocates newly

synthesized LysPG from the inner to the outer leaflet of the cytoplasmic membrane (Ernst et al.,

2009, Roy & Ibba, 2009). The exposure of LysPG at the outer surface of the membrane reduces the

affinity for CAMPs and other antimicrobials (Ernst et al., 2009). Notably, *mprF* is a major hot spot for

point mutations that lead to daptomycin resistance acquired during therapy of *S. aureus* infections

(Ernst, Slavetinsky et al., 2018).

In order to assess the suitability of MprF as a target for anti-virulence agents we developed mABs

targeting several epitopes of potential extracellular loops of its transmembrane part and analyzed

their capacity to bind specifically to *S. aureus* MprF. We identified a collection of mABs, which did not

only bind to but also inhibited the LysPG flippase domain of MprF. Our results suggest that a specific

loop between two of the transmembrane segments (TMS) of MprF is exposed at both sides of the

membrane suggesting an unusual, potentially flexible topology of this protein part, which may be

involved in LysPG translocation. Accordingly, targeting this loop with a specific mAB inhibited the

MprF flippase function, rendered *S. aureus* susceptible to killing by antimicrobial host peptides and

daptomycin, and reduced *S. aureus* survival when challenged by human CAMP-producing

polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMNs). Notably, it attenuated *S. aureus* virulence in a mouse

infection model.

Results

1.   Generation of mABs binding to putative extracellular loops of MprF

The hydrophobic part of *S. aureus* MprF appears to include 14 TMS connected by loops with

predicted lengths between two and 56 amino acids (Ernst et al., 2015). Several of the loops are

located at the outer surface of the cytoplasmic membrane, accessible to mABs (Figure 1A). Peptides

representing four loops with a minimum length of 13 amino acids were synthesized with N- and C-

terminal cysteine residues to allow cyclization (Table S1). The peptides corresponded to three loops

predicted to be at the outer membrane surface (loops one, nine, and thirteen) and loop seven, the

location of which has remained ambiguous due to conflicting computational and experimental

findings (Ernst et al., 2015). The N-terminal amino groups of cyclized peptides were linked to biotin

to facilitate their recovery and detection. The antigen peptides were incubated with MorphoSys´s

Human Combinatorial Antibody Library (HuCAL), a phage display library expressing single-chain

human Fab fragments with highly diverse variable regions at the phage surface (Prassler, Thiel et al.,

2011). Antigen-binding phages were enriched in three iterative rounds of panning in solution and

antigen-phage complexes were captured with streptavidin-coated beads. The bound phages were

extensively washed to remove unspecifically binding phages, eluted, and propagated in *Escherichia*

coli for a subsequent panning round. Washing steps were prolonged and antigen concentrations

reduced from round one to round three to increase stringency and discard antibodies with low

specificity and affinity. DNA of the eluted, antigen-specific phages was isolated and subcloned in

specific *E. coli* expression vectors to yield His-tagged Fab fragments. 368 individual colonies per

antigen were picked and Fab fragments were expressed and purified. A representative selection of

24 unique Fabs against all four peptides were converted to human IgG by cloning in an IgG1

expression vector system and expression in human HKB11 cells and IgGs were purified via protein A

chromatography, as recently described (Prassler et al., 2011) (see graphical workflow in Fig. S1).

The IgGs were analyzed for binding to the corresponding antigen peptides and also to the three non-

cognate peptides to assess their selectivity, by ELISA with streptavidin-coated microtiter plates (Fig.

S2). Antibodies directed against the four targeted MprF loops were selected based on affinity and

selectivity and analyzed for binding to *S. aureus* SA113 cells expressing or not expressing MprF. Both,

the wild-type (WT) and *mprF* deletion mutant strains lacked the gene for protein A (*spa*), which

would otherwise unspecifically bind to IgG (Kim, Thammavongsa et al., 2012). Bacteria were

adsorbed to microtiter plates, blocked with bovine serum albumin (BSA), and incubated with IgGs,

which were then detected with goat anti-human IgG after extensive washing. Antibodies M-C1, M-

C7.1, M-C7.3, M-C9.1, M-C13.1, and M-C13.2 bound significantly stronger to MprF-expressing *S.*

aureus compared to MprF-deficient *S. aureus*, while the humanized isotype control mAB L-1, directed

against chicken lysozyme, showed no specific binding (Fig. 1B). These findings are in agreement with

the location of the loops one, nine, and thirteen at the outer surface of the cytoplasmic membrane,

confirming the overall topology of MprF (Fig. 1A). Of note, loop seven between potential TMS 7 and 8

whose location had previously remained controversial was detected by antibodies M-C7.1 and M-

C7.3 (Fig. 1B) indicating that loop seven is accessible from the outside. Antibodies M-C1, M-C7.1, M-

C9.1, and M-C13.1 showed the strongest binding to MprF according to mean fluorescence intensities.

2. The MprF epitope bound by M-C7.1 is located at both outer and inner surface of the

cytoplasmic membrane

The MprF loop seven between TMS 7 and 8 bound by M-C7.1 seemed to have an ambiguous position

within the cytoplasmic membrane because the flanking TMS have a comparatively low content of

hydrophobic amino acids. Accordingly, only some topology analysis algorithms predict its location at

the outer surface of the cytoplasmic membrane and a previous experimental topology investigation

using a set of translational fusions with enzymes that are active only at intracellular or extracellular

location has revealed a preferential location at the inner cytoplasmic membrane surface in *E. coli*

(Ernst et al., 2015). Since our M-C7.1, and M-C7.3 binding experiments indicated accessibility of loop

seven from the outside, we revisited its location in *S. aureus* with two experimental strategies.

To confirm that M-C7.1 has access to its cognate MprF antigen epitope at the outer surface of the

cytoplasmic membrane in intact bacterial cells, the *S. aureus* SA113 *spa mprF* double deletion

mutant expressing MprF (pRB-MprF) was grown in the presence of M-C7.1. Cells were then

disrupted, membranes were solubilized by treatment with the mild non-ionic detergent n-dodecyl-ß-

D-maltoside (DDM), and proteins were separated in non-denaturing PAGE gels (blue native PAGE). If

M-C7.1 bound before cell disruption and remained tightly attached to MprF, it should shift the MprF

bands in Western blots of the blue native gels and be detectable after Western blotting of the blue

native gels with a human IgG-specific secondary antibody. In order to detect MprF independently of

M-C7.1 an MprF variant translationally fused to green-fluorescent protein (pRB-MprF-GFP), which is

detectable by a GFP-specific primary antibody (Ernst et al., 2015), was also used and treated in the

same way. To detect potential non-shifted MprF proteins in the native MprF variant (pRB-MprF), M-

C7.1 was used as additional primary antibody. *S. aureus* SA113 *spa mprF* double deletion mutant

bearing the empty vector (pRB) was used as a negative control. In addition to M-C7.1, all three *S.*

aureus strains were also incubated with the control antibody L-1. *S. aureus* cells expressing either

unmodified MprF or MprF-GFP yielded a protein band migrating at a molecular weight of around 900

kilodaltons (kDa) when preincubated with M-C7.1 but not with L-1 or in the empty vector control

(pRB) (Fig. 2A; Fig. S5). In contrast, the empty vector control (pRB) showed an unspecific band at 300

kDa when preincubated with M-C7.1 or at 150 kDa when preincubated with L-1 but no MprF-specific

band (Fig. 2A; Fig. S5). The 900 kDa band of MprF-GFP was co-detected by M-C7.1 and anti-GFP

confirming the identity of MprF (Fig. 2A; Fig. S5). We could recently show that MprF forms oligomers

in the staphylococcal membrane, which were migrating at ca. 300 and 600 kDa (Ernst et al., 2015).

Bands migrating at similar heights (ca. 250 and 500 kDa) were detected specifically in the MprF-GFP

lanes after preincubation with either M-C7.1 or L-1 and only by anti-GFP primary antibodies but not

by M-C7.1 as primary antibody (Fig. 2A; Fig. S5) suggesting to represent the oligomerized but not

mAB-complexed MprF proteins which were recently shown (Ernst et al., 2015). Therefore, the 900

kDa bands represent a shift caused by complex formation with M-C7.1 which confirms that M-C7.1

specifically binds MprF loop seven in live *S. aureus* cells. The fact, that M-C7.1 as primary antibody

was not able to detect 250 and 500 kDa bands of non-complexed MprF proteins either after

preincubation with M-C7.1 or L-1 suggests that the MprF folding structure as in the living

staphylococcal cell membrane is changed upon solubilization preventing antibody detection by

Western blot. Even more likely, a conformational change that makes loop seven accessible to M-C7.1

could only occur in the actively flipping MprF protein which would prevent Western blot detection

after solubilization. Thus, MprF loop seven would become accessible for M-C.7.1 only during the Lys-

PG translocation process in live *S. aureus*. Of note, the MprF-mAB complex migrating at around 900

kDa further indicates that higher-order MprF multimers were shifted by complex formation with M-

C7.1. Preferential binding of M-C7.1 to a putative MprF multimer but not monomer suggests that

such multimers may represent the active flipping MprF state *in vivo*.

The position of MprF loop seven was further investigated by inserting a cysteine residue into the loop

and analyzing the capacity of the membrane-impermeable agent Na*-(3-maleimidylpropionyl)-

biocytin (MPB) to label cysteines covalently, using the Substituted Cysteine Accessibility Method

(SCAM) (Bogdanov, Zhang et al., 2005). MPB treatment of intact *S. aureus* cells should only lead to

labelling of extracellular protein portions while blocking cysteines at the outside with 4-acetamido-4'-

maleimidylstilbene-2,2'-disulfonic acid (AMS), followed by cell homogenization and addition of MPB

should allow to label only protein parts at the inner surface of the membrane according to a previous

established method in *E. coli* (Bogdanov et al., 2005). An MprF variant lacking all native cysteine

residues was generated to exclude background signals. Cysteine residues in MprF were exchanged

against serine or alanine residues to minimize structural or functional changes. Native *S. aureus* MprF

contains six cysteines none of which is conserved in MprF proteins from other bacteria suggesting

that they do not have critical functions. The cysteine-deficient mutant protein was found to be

indeed functional because it conferred an increased level of basic daptomycin non-susceptibility

compared to the *S. aureus mprF* deletion mutant (Fig. S3), which depends on intact MprF synthase

and flippase activities (Ernst et al., 2009). Cysteines were then inserted into MprF loop seven (T263)

and, as a control, into the first intracellular loop (loop two, A99) and the last extracellular loop (loop

thirteen, T480), the localization of which had been consistently confirmed by previous computational

and experimental analyses (Ernst et al., 2015) (Fig. 1A & 2C). Amino acids for exchange were chosen

according to weak effect prediction for functional changes by https://predictprotein.org. The SCAM

approach further confirmed the topology of intracellular loop two and extracellular loop thirteen

(Fig. 2B), thereby demonstrating that the technique can lead to reliable results in *S. aureus*. Notably,

MprF loop seven was found in both locations, at the inner and outer surface of the membrane. This

finding corroborates the ambiguous position of loop seven and suggests that this loop may have

some degree of mobility in the membrane, which may reflect the lipid translocation process. The

finding also clarifies why M-C7.1 has the capacity to bind MprF loop seven at the outer surface of the

cytoplasmic membrane.

3. MABs binding to putative extracellular loops of MprF render *S. aureus* susceptible to CAMPs

MprF confers resistance to cationic antimicrobials such as the bacteriocin nisin by reducing the

negative net charge of the membrane outer surface (Ernst et al., 2009, Peschel et al., 2001). If the

mABs would not only bind to but also inhibit the function of MprF, *S. aureus* should become more

susceptible to nisin. The six mABs with confirmed specific binding to MprF and the lysozyme-specific

control mAB L-1 were analyzed for their capacity to increase the susceptibility of *S. aureus* SA113 to

nisin. Bacteria were grown in the presence of one of the mABs and then incubated with nisin at the

IC$_{50}$ followed by quantification of viable bacterial cells. Two of the MprF-specific mABs targeting

loops seven or thirteen increased the sensitivity of SA113Δ*spa* to nisin while the other mABs and the

control mAB L-1 had no significant impact (Fig. 3A). MAB M-C7.1 caused the strongest sensitization

and was selected for further analysis using the highly prevalent and virulent community-associated

methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (CA-MRSA) USA300 clone (Otto, 2013).

M-C7.1 was found to also increase the susceptibility of USA300 to the human CAMP LL-37, a host

defense peptide produced by epithelial and phagocyte cells (Pinheiro da Silva & Machado, 2017), and

to daptomycin, a lipopeptide antibiotic in clinical use sharing physicochemical and antibacterial

properties with CAMPs (Bayer, Schneider et al., 2013), in addition to nisin (Fig. 3B-D). Of note, M-

C7.1 also increased the antimicrobial activity of daptomycin against the daptomycin-resistant clinical

MRSA isolate DAP-R 703 (Jones, Yeaman et al., 2008) (Fig. 3E), suggesting that M-C7.1 may

potentially be able to overcome daptomycin resistance during therapy. M-C7.1 but not the control

mAB L-1 was able to inhibit growth of USA300 in the presence of subinhibitory concentrations of

nisin (Fig. 3F). Thus, mABs specific for certain extracellular loops of MprF may not only bind to MprF

but also inhibit its function.

4.   M-C7.1 inhibits the flippase function of MprF

M-C7.1 binds MprF at the junction between the LysPG synthase and flippase domains (Fig. 1). The

lipid patterns of SA113 treated with M-C7.1 at concentrations that increased the susceptibility to

nisin or with the control mAB L-1 were compared but showed no differences indicating that the

synthase function of MprF was not inhibited by M-C7.1 (Fig. 4A). The flippase activity of MprF

promotes the exposure of positively charged LysPG at the outer surface of the cytoplasmic

membrane thereby reducing the affinity for the small cationic protein cytochrome C (Peschel, Otto et

al., 1999), which binds preferentially to negatively charged PG, or for calcium-bound annexin V

(Yount, Kupferwasser et al., 2009). These model proteins have been shown to allow a sensitive

assessment of changes in the surface charge of *S. aureus* in several previous studies (Ernst et al.,

2018, Ernst et al., 2009, Slavetinsky, Peschel et al., 2012). Treatment of SA113 with M-C7.1 at

concentrations that increased the susceptibility to nisin led to a significant increase in the capacity to

bind cytochrome C or annexin V compared to treatment with the control mAB L-1 (Fig. 4B, C) thereby

indicating that M-C7.1 inhibits the flippase function of MprF. It is tempting to speculate that the

protein region of MprF loop seven and adjacent TMSs may accomplish a crucial function in the

process of phospholipid translocation, as suggested by the dynamic localization of loop seven on the

cytoplasmic and external faces of the membrane.

5. M-C7.1-treatment abrogates *S. aureus* survival in phagocytes and attenuates its virulence in a
skin abscess model

The capacity of PMNs to kill phagocytosed bacteria does not only rely on the oxidative burst but also

on the activity of LL-37 and other CAMPs and antimicrobial proteins (Spaan, Surewaard et al., 2013).

The increased susceptibility of M-C7.1-treated *S. aureus* to CAMPs should therefore alter its survival

ability in PMNs. CA-MRSA strain USA300 was pretreated with mABs, opsonized with normal human

serum, and exposed to human PMNs. Treatment with M-C7.1 or the control mAB L-1 did not alter

the rate of PMN phagocytosis, but M-C7.1-treated USA300 cells were significantly more rapidly killed

by PMNs than those treated with the control antibody (Fig. 5A, B). This finding reflects our previous

reports on reduced survival of MprF-deficient *S. aureus* in PMNs (Kristian, Durr et al., 2003, Peschel

et al., 2001) and it suggests that *S. aureus* treatment with M-C7.1 might reduce the capacity to

persist in infections. To assess this assumption, CA-MRSA strain USA300 treated with M-C7.1 or

control mAB L-1 were injected subcutaneously into the flanks of mice and the abscesses were

compared after 1.5 days. Notably, the abscesses of M-C7.1-treated infections were smaller, showed

less dermonecrosis, and contained significantly less viable bacteria than those of animals with

bacteria treated with control antibody (Fig. 5 C, D & Fig. S4). Thus, treatment with M-C7.1 may help

to blunt the virulence of *S. aureus* in invasive infections.

Discussion

Monoclonal therapeutic antibodies have proven efficacy for neutralization of bacterial toxins such as *Clostridium botulinum* or *Clostridioides difficile* toxins, and mAB-based therapies targeting the *S. aureus* alpha toxins and leukotoxins are currently developed (Dickey et al., 2017, Tabor, Yu et al., 2016). Moreover, therapeutic mABs binding to *S. aureus* surface molecules to promote opsonic phagocytosis have been assessed in preclinical and clinical trials (Missiakas & Schneewind, 2016). In contrast, mABs inhibiting crucial cellular mechanisms of bacterial pathogens have hardly been assessed so far (Zheng, Shang et al., 2019). We developed specific mABs, which can block the activity of *S. aureus* MprF, the first described bacterial phospholipid flippase. Our mABs did not mediate increased internalization of *S. aureus* cells, most probably because the bacterial cell wall is too thick to allow binding of the mAB FC part to phagocyte FC receptors. However, the inhibition of MprF by M-C7.1 sensitized *S. aureus* to CAMPs and daptomycin and promoted killing by human PMNs, which use CAMPs as an important component of their antimicrobial arsenal. Of note, M-C7.1 could decrease bacterial load in murine skin abscesses and prevent the abscesses from progressing into dermonecrosis, which could potentially lead to systemic spread. Specific inhibition of MprF could therefore promote the capacity of human host defense to clear or prevent a *S. aureus* infection and would, at the same time, increase the susceptibility of *S. aureus* to CAMP-like antibiotics such as daptomycin. Thus, targeting bacterial defense mechanisms provides a promising concept for anti-virulence therapy.

Specific binding of MprF antibody M-C7.1 to the extracellular loop seven inhibited the flippase function of MprF, which indicates that this loop plays a crucial role in the lipid translocation process. Loop seven is located between predicted TMS 7 and 8, and its presence at the outer surface of the cytoplasmic membrane had remained elusive since computational and experimental analyses had yielded conflicting results (Ernst et al., 2015). Surprisingly, we found loop seven to be accessible from both, the outside and inside of the cytoplasmic membrane. This suggests that the protein part formed by loop seven and adjacent TMS 7 and 8 may change its position in the protein complex,

moving between the two membrane surfaces to accomplish LysPG translocation (Fig. 6), or it could

be in a unique position of the large MprF protein complex that allows access from both sides. This

protein part might represent the center of the MprF flippase establishing the previously reported

MprF-dependent distribution of charged LysPG in the inner and outer leaflet of the cytoplasmic

membrane of *S. aureus* (Ernst et al., 2009) (Fig. 6). Interestingly, in living staphylococcal cells, M-C7.1

bound to putative higher-order MprF multimers as shown via blue native Western blotting

suggesting that such multimers might represent the active lipid translocating state of MprF.

Replacement of conserved amino acids in the M-C7.1-targeted protein part has been shown to

inhibit the flippase function of MprF (Ernst et al., 2015), which underscores the crucial function of

this domain. Notably, one of the conserved and essential amino acids in TMS 7, D254, is negatively

charged. It is tempting to speculate that D254 may interact with the positively charged head group of

LysPG during the translocation process. Mutations on loop seven and adjacent TMS have recently

been found to cause specific resistance to the structurally related lipopeptide antibiotics daptomycin

and friulimicin B but not to other antimicrobials (Ernst et al., 2018). Indirect evidence has suggested

that these mutations allow the flippase to translocate these lipopeptide antibiotics instead of or

together with LysPG (Ernst et al., 2018), which is in agreement with a direct role of loop seven in the

translocation process. A mAB binding loop thirteen also sensitized *S. aureus* to nisin in a similar but

less pronounced way as M-C7.1 suggesting that this loop may also have a critical role for MprF

activity.

With the severe shortage of new antibiotic target and drug candidates, crucial cellular machineries

conferring fitness benefits during infection rather than accomplishing essential cellular functions

should be considered as targets for the development of new therapeutics. The phospholipid synthase

and flippase MprF may become a role model for further targets for such anti-fitness or anti-virulence

drugs. Compared to other potential targets, MprF has the advantage that essential parts of it are

exposed at the external surface of the cytoplasmic membrane. Moreover, MprF is found in many

other bacterial pathogens for which similar therapeutic mABs could be developed (Ernst et al., 2009).

On the other hand, only a few amino acids in loop seven are conserved in other bacteria, which

would limit the impact of loop-seven-directed mABs on other microbiome members thereby

minimizing the resistance selection pressure and the risk of dysbiosis.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial strains, maintenance and mutagenesis of mprF

We used commonly used strains, the methicillin-susceptible laboratory strain *S. aureus* SA113 (ATCC

35556), methicillin-resistant clinical clone *S. aureus* USA300, and the SA113 *mprF* knock-out

derivative SA113Δ*mprF*, which has been described recently (Peschel et al., 1999, Wang, Braughton et

al., 2007) (Tab. S2).

For the construction of a protein A mutant (Δ*spa*) the E. coli/S. aureus shuttle vector pKOR1 (Bae &

Schneewind, 2006) was used, which allows allelic replacement with inducible counter-selection in

staphylococci. Flanking regions of *spa* were amplified from chromosomal DNA of *S. aureus* COL with

primer   pairs   Spa-del_attB1   (ggggacaagtttgtacaaaaaagcaggc**caatattccatggtccagaact; bold: spa**

sequence) and Spa-del for BglII (gtcg*agatct*ataaaaacaaacaatacacaacg, restriction site italic) as well as

Spa-del_attB2 (ggggaccactttgtacaagaaagctggg**atcagcaagaaaacacacttcc; bold: spa flanking sequence)**

and Spa-del rev BglII (aaa*agatct*aacgaattatgtattgcaata, restriction site italic). Both PCR products were

digested with BglII and subsequently ligated. Without further purification, the ligation product was

mixed with equimolar amounts of pKOR1 and *in vitro* recombination was performed with BP clonase

Mix (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The recombination mixture was

transferred to chemically competent *E. coli* DH5α and isolated plasmids from the resulting

transformants were analyzed by restriction digest. The correct plasmid was isolated from *E. coli*

DH5α and used to electroporate competent *S. aureus* RN4220 from which it was again isolated and

transferred into *S. aureus* SA113 by electroporation. Allelic replacement was essentially conducted as

previously described (Bae & Schneewind, 2006) and resulting deletion mutants were confirmed by

PCR.

The *S. aureus* SA113 *spa mprF* double mutant was constructed by transducing the gene deletion

cassette of the *S. aureus* SA113 *mprF* deletion mutant to the marker-less *spa*-deficient *S. aureus*

SA113 mutant using standard transduction protocols. The resulting *S. aureus* SA113 *spa mprF* double

deletion mutant was identified by screening for erythromycin resistance conferred by the gene

deletion cassette and confirmed by PCR of the deleted genome section. Bacteria were maintained on

tryptic soy agar plates.

Cysteine substitutions in *mprF* were accomplished by site-directed mutagenesis in *Escherichia coli*

using *E. coli*/*S. aureus* shuttle vector pRB474 bearing *mprF,* using the QuickChange II Site-Directed

Mutagenesis Kit (Agilent), as described recently (Ernst et al., 2018). Mutated *mprF* derivatives in

pRB474*mprF* were transferred into SA113Δ*mprF* and *mprF* expression was mediated by the plasmid-

encoded constitutive *Bacillus subtilis* promoter *vegII*. 10 µg/ml chloramphenicol served for

maintenance in all plasmid-based studies. A99, T263, and T480 were chosen for exchange against a

cysteine residue because of prediction of a weak effect on protein structure in an analysis of

functional changes given a single point mutation according to https://predictprotein.org.

Plasmids and primers used in this study are given in Table S3 and S4, respectively. Unless otherwise

stated, bacteria were cultivated in Mueller-Hinton Broth (MHB, Sigma-Aldrich) with appropriate

antibiotics for all experiments.

Antigen selection and antibody production

MprF-derived peptides of interest (Fig. 1 and Tab. S1) were custom-synthesized by JPT Peptide

Technologies GmbH (Berlin). An N-terminal and a C-terminal cysteine were added to enable

cyclization. Biotin was coupled to the peptide via a 4,7,10-trioxa-1,13-tridecanediamine succinic acid

(Ttds)-linker (Ieronymaki, Nuti et al., 2017). Cyclization and coupling of linker and biotin were

performed by JPT Peptide Technologies.

Recombinant antibodies were generated from the HuCAL PLATINUM® library, as described recently,

by three iterative rounds of panning on the antigen peptides in solution and antigen-antibody-phage

complexes were captured with streptavidin-coated beads (Dynal M-280) (Prassler et al., 2011, Tiller,

Schuster et al., 2013). Fab-encoding inserts of the selected HuCAL PLATINUM phagemids were cloned

and expressed in *E. coli* TG1 F-cells, purified chromatographically by IMAC (Bio-Rad) and subcloned in

an IgG1 expression vector system to obtain full-length IgG1s by expression in eukaryotic HKB11 cells,

as described recently (Prassler et al., 2011). IgGs were purified by protein A affinity chromatography

(MabSelect SURE, GE Healthcare) (Prassler et al., 2011).

The humanized antibody against chicken lysozyme MOR03207 (Neuber, Frese et al., 2014) served as

IgG negative control and was called L-1 in this manuscript.

Peptide and whole-cell ELISAs of MprF specific mABs

Overnight *S. aureus* SA113*Δspa* or SA113*ΔspaΔmprF* cultures grown in MHB were adjusted to OD_{600}

0.1 in fresh MHB and grown to OD_{600} of at least 1.0. Cells were harvested, adjusted to OD_{600} 0.5 with

0.9% NaCl, and used to coat 96 well NUNC Maxisorp Immuno Plates for 1 hour (50 µl/well). After

three washing steps with Tris-buffered saline (TBS; 50 mM Tris, 150 mM NaCl in 800 mL of H_2O, pH

7.4) containing 0.05% Tween 20 (TBS-T), the cells were blocked with PBS containing 1 x ROTI®Block

(Carl Roth) for 1 h. Primary antibodies were added after three washing steps with TBS-T at an

indicated final concentration of 1, 10 or 100 nM and incubated for 1 h. After three more washing

steps with TBS-T, anti-human IgG conjugated to alkaline phosphatase (Sigma-Aldrich A8542) diluted

1:10,000 in TBS-T was applied. Finally, after three washing steps with 2x TBS-T and 1x TBS, the cells

were incubated with 100 µl p-nitrophenyl phosphate solution as advised by the manufacturer

(Sigma-Aldrich N1891). Fluorescence was measured at an excitation of 440±25 nm and an emission

of 550±35 nm.

Detection of antibody binding to MprF by blue native Western blotting

To detect binding of the anti-MprF antibody to MprF we performed blue native polyacrylamide gel

electrophoresis (BN-PAGE) as previously described (Ernst et al., 2015) with slight modifications.

Briefly, 20 ml of *S. aureus* cells grown in MHB with anti-MprF antibodies (100 µg/ml) to OD_{600} 1 were

incubated with 750 µl of lysis buffer (100 mM EDTA [pH 8.0], 1 mM $MgCl_2$, 5 µg/ml lysostaphin, 10

µg/ml DNase, proteinase inhibitor [cocktail set III from Calbiochem] diluted 1:100 in PBS) for 30 min

at 37°C and homogenized three times with 500 µl zirconia-silica beads (0.1 mm diameter from Carl-

Roth) using a FastPrep 24 homogenizer (MP Biomedicals) for 30 s at a speed of 6.5 m/s. After

removing the beads, cell lysate was centrifuged 20 min at 14,000 rpm and 4°C to sediment cell debris

and supernatant was transferred to microcentrifuge polypropylene tubes (Beckman Coulter) and

cytoplasmic membranes were precipitated by ultracentrifugation for 45 min at 55,000 rpm and 4°C

(Beckman Coulter rotor TLA 55). Membrane fractions resuspended in resuspension buffer (750 mM

aminocaproic acid, 50 mM Bis-Tris [pH 7.0]) were incubated with the MprF- or lysozyme-specific

humanized IgG mAB and/or a GFP-specific rabbit IgG mAB (Invitrogen) for 30 min shaking at 37°C.

Dodecyl maltoside was added to a final concentration of 1% for 1 h at 4°C to solubilize MprF-

antibody complexes. Insoluble material was removed by ultracentrifugation for 30 min at 40,000 rpm

and 4°C. 20 µl supernatant was mixed 1:10 with 10 × BN loading dye (5% [wt/vol] Serva Blue G, 250

mM aminocaproic acid, 50% glycerol) and run on a Novex NativePAGE 4 to 16% Bis-Tris gel

(Invitrogen). Separated proteins were transferred to a polyvinyl difluoride membrane and detected

via either, goat anti-human IgG DyLight 700 (Pierce) or goat anti-rabbit IgG DyLight 800 (Pierce) as

secondary antibodies in an Odyssey imaging system from LI-COR.

Substituted cysteine accessibility method (SCAM) to localize MprF loops in inner and/or outer

membrane leaflet

SCAM was adapted for use in *S. aureus* from the protocol recently established for *E. coli* (Bogdanov

et al., 2005). Variants of *S. aureus* SA113Δ*mprF* were expressing cysteine-deficient and/or -altered

MprF derivatives bearing a FLAG® tag at the C-terminus via the plasmid pRB474. Bacteria were grown

at 37°C to an OD_{600} 0.7-0.8 in 100 ml TSB, split into two equal aliquots, and harvested. Pellets were

resuspended in a mixture of buffer A (100 mM HEPES, 250 mM sucrose, 25 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.1 mM KCl

[pH 7.5]) supplemented with 1 mM $MgSO_4$, 1 mM EDTA, 2.1 µg lysostaphin, 0.7 µg DNase and 1% of a

protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche) and incubated for 45 min at 37°C. For staining of cysteine residues

in the outer leaflet of the cytoplasmic membrane, cells of the first aliquot were treated with N*-(3-

maleimidylpropionyl) biocytin (MPB, Thermo Scientific) at a final concentration of 107 µM for 20 min

on ice. In the second aliquot, external cysteine residues were blocked with 107 µM 4-acetamino-4´-

maleimidylstilbene-2,2´-disulfonic acid (AMS, Thermo Scientific) for 20 min on ice, bacterial cells

were subsequently disrupted in a bead mill as described above and internal cysteines were labeled

with MPB for 5 min. MPB labeling was quenched in both aliquots by the addition of 21 mM β-

mercaptoethanol. Cell debris was removed by several centrifugation and washing steps, membrane

fractions were collected via ultracentrifugation at 38,000 x g, and labeled membrane samples were

stored at -80°C.

For protein enrichment and precipitation, labeled membrane samples were thawed on ice and

suspended in 20 mM β-mercaptoethanol containing buffer A. Proteins were solubilized by the

addition of an equal volume of solubilization buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl [pH 9], 1 mM EDTA, 2% SDS) and

vigorous vortexing for 30 min at 4°C, followed by an incubation step of 30 min at 37°C and vortexing

for 30 min at 4°C. After solubilization, one and a half volumes of immunoprecipitation buffer 1 (50

mM Tris-HCl [pH 9], 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 2% Thesit, 0.4 % SDS [pH 8.1]) was added and

samples were incubated for 2.5 h with magnetic FLAG®beads (Sigma-Aldrich) in a rotation wheel at

4°C. After several washing steps with immunoprecipitation buffer 1 and immunoprecipitation buffer

2 (50 mM Tris-HCl [pH 9], 1 M NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 2% Thesit, 0.4 % SDS [pH 8.1]), FLAG®-tagged MprF

was eluted by the addition of 0.1 M glycine-HCl (pH 2.2) and neutralized by adding Tris-HCl (pH 9).

For detection of cysteine-labelled MprF, samples were analyzed by denaturing SDS-PAGE and

Western blotting. To this end, 12-μl samples were mixed with 4 x Laemmli sample buffer (Bio-Rad),

loaded onto a 10%-polyacrylamide gel, and separated via electrophoresis. Proteins were transferred

onto a polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membrane (Immobilon-PSQ PVDF membrane, Merck) by

semi-dry turbo Western blot procedure (Trans-Blot Turbo Transfer System, Bio-Rad). FLAG®-tagged

MprF was detected both by a mouse anti-FLAG® primary antibody (Sigma-Aldrich) and goat anti-

mouse secondary antibody (LI-COR) at 700 nm, while MBP-labelled cysteine residues were detected

with streptavidin DyLight conjugate (Thermo Scientific) at 800 nm in an Odyssey imaging system from

LI-COR.

Determination of susceptibility to antimicrobial agents

Overnight cultures of *S. aureus* SA113*Δspa* or USA300 WT were diluted in fresh MHB and adjusted to

OD_{600} 0.25 (~1.5 x 10^7 cells). Antibodies were adjusted to a concentration of 1 mg/ml and 10 μl per

well of a 96 well plate were added to 90 μl of the adjusted cell suspension (final antibody

concentration: 100 μg/ml). Cells were grown in the presence of the lysozyme-specific control

antibody L-1 or with the respective anti-MprF antibodies. After 3 hours of incubation at 37°C under

shaking, optical density was determined, and cells were adjusted to OD_{600} 0.025 in 500 μl cold PBS.

80 μl of the adjusted cell suspension were mixed with 20 μl of antimicrobial substances to final

concentrations of 22.5 μg/ml nisin for SA113*Δspa* or of 5 μg/ml nisin for USA300, 1.5 μg/ml

daptomycin for USA300, 11 μg/ml daptomycin for daptomycin resistant CA-MRSA strain 703, and 45

μg/ml LL-37 for USA300 or 20 μl PBS as control. After incubation for 2 hours under shaking at 37°C,

the cell suspensions were diluted 1:2,000 and 100 μl of each duplicate was plated in triplicates on

TSB agar plates to obtain a representative value of bacterial survival.

MICs of daptomycin were determined using MIC test strips (Liofilchem) according to the

manufacturer's advice.

To analyze the capacity of mAB M-C7.1 to inhibit *S. aureus* growth, overnight cultures of CA-MRSA

strain USA300 grown in MHB medium were diluted to OD_{600} 0.01 with fresh MHB medium containing

1 µM of antibodies and 4 µg/ml nisin (Sigma-Aldrich) or PBS as a control in 96 well plates. Plates were

incubated for 24 hours at 37°C under shaking conditions using a Bioscreen C (Oy Growth Curves Ab

Ltd). Optical density at 600 nm was determined and compared to growth without nisin.

Isolation and quantification of polar lipids

S. aureus cultures (1 ml in MHB) were grown to the exponential phase (OD_{600} 1) in the presence of

antibodies (final concentration: 100 µg/ml) as described above for the determination of susceptibility

to antimicrobials. Polar lipids were extracted using the Bligh-Dyer method (Bligh & Dyer, 1959), with

chloroform/methanol/sodium acetate buffer (20 mM) (1:1:1, by vol.), vacuum-dried, and

resuspended in chloroform/methanol (2:1, by vol.). Extracts were filled into a 100-µl Hamilton

syringe and spotted onto silica gel 60 F254 high-performance thin-layer chromatography (HPTLC)

plates (Merck) with a Linomat 5 sample application unit (Camag) and run in a developing chamber

ADC 2 (Camag) with a running solution composed of chloroform-methanol-water (65:25:4, by vol.).

Phosphate group-containing lipids were detected by molybdenum blue staining and phospholipids

were quantified in relation to total phospholipid content by determining lipid spot intensities

densitometrically with ImageJ (http://rsbweb.nih.gov/ij/docs/guide/index.html) as described

recently (Slavetinsky et al., 2012).

Determination of S. aureus cell surface charge

For analysis of the cytochrome C repulsion capacity of *S. aureus*, bacterial cells were grown in the

presence of antibodies (100 µg/ml) as described above for the analysis of antimicrobial susceptibility.

Bacteria were adjusted to OD_{600} 1 in 1 ml PBS, pelleted, resuspended in 100 µl 0.05 mg/ml

cytochrome C (Sigma-Aldrich) followed by incubation at $37^{o}C$ under shaking. The cells were then

pelleted by centrifugation and absorption of the supernatant containing unbound cytochrome C was

determined at OD_{410}

To determine annexin V binding to *S. aureus,* bacterial cells were grown in the presence of antibodies

(100 µg/ml) as described above at 37°C with shaking for 3 hours, harvested, washed twice in PBS

buffer, and resuspended in PBS containing $CaCl_2$ to OD_{600} 0.5 in 1 ml. Bacteria were gently mixed with

5 µl of allophycocyanin (APC)-labeled annexin V (Thermo Scientific) and incubated at room

temperature for 15 min in the dark, as described recently (Ernst et al., 2018). At least 50,000

bacterial cells per antibody were analyzed by flow cytometry to quantify surface-bound fluorophore

(FL-4).

Phagocytosis and killing of S. aureus by human polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMNs)

Human PMNs are the major human phagocytes to counteract bacterial infection and form the largest

subgroup (~95%) of PMNs (Spaan et al., 2013). PMNs were isolated from fresh human blood of

healthy volunteers by standard Ficoll/Histopaque gradient centrifugation as described recently

(Hanzelmann, Joo et al., 2016). Cells were resuspended in HBSS containing 0.05% human serum

albumin (HBSS-HSA; HBSS with 0.05% Albiomin®, Biotest AG).

CA-MRSA strain USA300 was prepared for PMN experiments as described for the determination of

susceptibility to antimicrobials, grown in the presence of antibodies (100 µg/ml) at 37°C under

shaking for 3 hours, harvested, washed twice in HBSS, and adjusted to a density of 5×10^7 CFU/ml.

Pooled serum from healthy human volunteers (blood bank of the University Hospital Tübingen) was

added to a final concentration of 5% and bacteria were opsonized for 10 min at 37°C, as described

recently (Peschel et al., 2001). Prewarmed bacteria and PMNs were mixed to final concentrations of 5×10^6 CFU/ml and 2.5×10^6 PMNs/ml in flat-bottom 96 well plates together with antibodies (final concentration 100 μg/ml). Samples of 50 μl were shaken at 37°C.

For analysis of the PMN killing capacity, incubation was stopped at different time points by the addition of 100-fold volumes of ice-cold distilled water to disrupt the PMNs. Triplets of appropriate sample volumes were spread on LB agar plates and colonies were counted after 24 h incubation at 37°C. Numbers of live bacteria did not change during the 60-min incubation period in the absence of PMNs compared to the initial bacteria counts.

For phagocytosis studies, overnight cultures of bacteria were labeled with 0.1 mg/ml fluorescein-5-isothiocyanate (FITC) at 37°C for 1 h, as described previously (Peschel et al., 2001). After washing with PBS, the bacteria were resuspended in HBSS-HSA, adjusted to 5×10^6 CFU/ml, mixed with PMNs (2.5×10^6 PMNs/ml), and opsonized as described above (shaking at 37°C). Incubation was stopped by addition of 100 μl ice-cold 1% paraformaldehyde. The percentage of PMNs bearing FITC-labeled bacteria was determined by flow cytometric analysis of 20,000 cells.

Murine CA-MRSA skin abscess infection model

Male Swiss-Webster mice (5-6 weeks old) were obtained from Harlan Sprague-Dawley, Inc. Mice were housed at four animals per cage. Food and water were provided to the mice ad libitum. CA-MRSA strain USA300 was grown in the presence of antibodies (100 μg/ml) as described above for determination of susceptibility to antimicrobials, and bacteria were suspended in PBS. Bacterial suspensions were mixed with equal volumes of dextran bead solution (Cytodex-1 microcarriers; Sigma-Aldrich) and antibodies at final concentration of 100 μg/ml, and adjusted to a final bacterial load of 10^6 CFU in 0.2 ml PBS / dextran beads (1:1). Groups of four mice per antibody were injected subcutaneously in each flank with 0.2 ml of *S. aureus* suspensions. The numbers of CFU per milliliter of inoculum were verified by plate counts. 36 hours after abscess induction, mice were euthanized

and abscesses were excised and homogenized in 1 ml of PBS. Serial dilutions of the homogenates

were plated in triplicates on tryptic soy agar plates.

Study approval

Animal experiments were performed in strict accordance with the German regulations of the Society

for Laboratory Animal Science (GV-SOLAS) and the European Health Law of the Federation of

Laboratory Animal Science Associations (FELASA). The protocol was approved by the

Regierungspräsidium Tübingen (permit no. H2/10).

Statistics

Statistical analyses were performed with the Prism 5.0 package (GraphPad Software) and Group

differences were analyzed for significance with the two-tailed Student's t test. A P value of ≤0.05 was

considered statistically significant.

Author contributions

C.J.S, A.K., S.W., M.T., C.W., B.K., C.M.E., and A.P. conceived and designed the experiments. C.J.S. (all

methods), J.N.H. (SCAM), C.G. (antimicrobial agent susceptibility analysis), J.S. (skin abscess model),

A.G. (SCAM), D.H. (antigen selection and antibody production, ELISAs, growth curves), B.K. (cloning

and mutagenesis), and C.M.E. (cloning and mutagenesis, antimicrobial agent susceptibility testing)

performed the experiments. C.J.S., J.N.H., J.S., A.G., A.K., S.W., S.K., C.M.E., and A.P. analyzed the

data. S.W., M.T., C.W., and A.P. contributed material / analysis tools. C.J.S., J.N.H., S.W., C.M.E., and

A.P. wrote the paper.

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Figures

Figure 1. MprF topology and binding of mABs to targeted MprF-expressing *S. aureus* cells. (A) MprF

membrane topology is given according to our recent study (Ernst et al., 2015) showing synthase and

flippase domains in gray and black, respectively. Amino acid (aa) positions of TMS and the C-terminal

hydrophilic domain are indicated. TMSs from aa 245-265 and aa 278-298 are shown transparently as

computational and experimental results of transmembrane topology were contradictory (Ernst et al.,

2015). Localizations of MprF's TMS-connecting loops are numbered starting from the N-terminus,

antibody targeted loops are indicated by red circles and antibody symbols. (B) Specific binding of

mABs (100 nM) to *S. aureus* SA113 WT and *ΔmprF* analyzed by ELISA. Both, SA113 WT and *ΔmprF*

were deficient in the IgG-binding protein A (Spa). The red line indicates the mean fluorescence

measured at A 440 nm (affinity) of the control mAB L-1 bound to *S. aureus* SA113*Δspa.* Means and

SEM of at least three experiments are shown. Significant differences between WT and *ΔmprF* were

calculated by Student's paired t-test (ns, not significant; *, $P < 0.05$; ***, $P < 0.0001$).

Figure 2. Binding of M-C7.1 to MprF and membrane localization of the M-C7.1-targeted MprF loop

seven. (A) Detection of M-C7.1 binding to MprF. Plasmid-encoded native and GFP-tagged MprF

variants were expressed in *S. aureus* SA113Δ*spa*Δ*mprF* and living cells were preincubated with M-

C7.1 or the control mAB L-1 (in order to form MprF-mAB complexes). MprF variants/complexes were

detected by blue native Western blotting via primary (anti-GFP and M-C7.1) and secondary

antibodies (red for secondary antibody detection of M-C7.1; green for secondary antibody detection

of anti-GFP). SA113Δ*spa*Δ*mprF* expressing the empty vector (pRB) served as negative control.

Molecular masses in kDa of marker proteins are given on the left of the gel. (B) Cellular localization of

the antigen epitope of M-C7.1 using the substituted cysteine accessibility method (SCAM) for specific

loops between the MprF TMSs. The substituted cysteine T263C is localized in M-C7.1´s target peptide

sequence in MprF. Substitution of A99C served as inside control, substitution of T480C served as

outside control (see topology model, part C). *S. aureus* SA113Δ*mprF* expressing the empty vector

(pRB) and an MprF variant lacking all native cysteines (WT (-Cys)) served as additional negative

controls. All MprF variants were plasmid-encoded, FLAG®-tagged at the C-terminus to allow

immunoprecipitation and detection, and were expressed in *S. aureus* SA113Δ*mprF*. Substituted

extracellular cysteine residues were labeled with Na*-(3-maleimidylpropionyl)-biocytin (MPB) (outer

leaflet signal, green in overlay), while labeling of substituted internal cysteine with MPB was

performed after the blocking of external cysteines with 4-acetamino-4'-maleimidylstilbene-2,2'-

disulfonic acid (AMS) (inner leaflet signal, green in overlay). MprF was detected via antibody staining

by an anti-FLAG® antibody (red in overlay). (C) MprF topology showing location and amino acid

exchanges of artificial cysteine residues for SCAM detection in green.

Figure 3. Killing and growth inhibition of *S. aureus* by antimicrobial peptides and antibiotics in the

presence of M-C7.1. (A) Survival of *S. aureus* SA113Δ*spa* in the presence of nisin and anti-MprF

antibodies compared to control mAB L-1. Surviving CFU of each antibody (and nisin) containing

sample were analyzed after 3 h incubation and the negative control (mAB L-1) was set to 100 %

survival. (B) Survival of CA-MRSA strain USA300 in the presence of nisin and M-C7.1 compared to the

control mAB L-1. (C) Survival of USA300 in the presence of LL-37 and M-C7.1 compared to the control

mAB L-1. (D) Survival of USA300 in the presence of daptomycin and M-C7.1 compared to the control

mAB L-1. (E) Survival of daptomycin-resistant CA-MRSA strain 703 (Jones et al., 2008) in the presence

of daptomycin and M-C7.1 compared to the control mAB L-1. (F) Growth inhibition of USA300 in the

presence of subinhibitory nisin concentrations and M-C7.1 compared to the control mAB L-1. Wells

without nisin and/or antibodies served as additional negative controls. The means plus SEM of

results from at least three independent experiments are shown in A-E. Technical duplicates were

employed for each analysis. F shows means plus SEM of technical triplicates from a representative

experiment of three independent experiments. Values for M-C7.1 or other anti-MprF antibodies that

were significantly different from those for the control mAB L-1, calculated by Student's paired t-test

are indicated (*, P < 0.05; **, P < 0.01; ***, P < 0.0001).

Figure 4. M-C7.1 inhibits the MprF LysPG flippase but not the LysPG synthase. (A) Detection of phospholipids from *S. aureus* SA113Δ*mprF* and WT treated or not treated with M-C7.1 or the control mAB L-1. Polar lipids were separated by TLC and stained with the phosphate group-specific dye molybdenum blue to detect the well-documented PG and LysPG pattern of *S. aureus* WT and *mprF* deletion mutant (Slavetinsky et al., 2012). Percentages of LysPG in relation to total phospholipid content are given below respective LysPG spots. (B) The repulsion of positively charged cytochrome C corresponds to MprF LysPG synthase plus flippase activity while the synthase activity alone does not affect repulsion. To assess MprF flippase efficiency, unbound cytochrome C in the supernatant was quantified photometrically after incubation with the *S. aureus* SA113 WT pretreated with M-C7.1 or the control mAB L-1 (the latter set to 100%). SA113Δ*mprF* treated with M-C7.1 served as negative

control. The means plus SEM of results from three independent experiments are shown. (C) Annexin

V binding to *S. aureus* SA113 WT after incubation with M-C7.1 or the control mAB L-1 was quantified

by measuring cell-bound annexin V by FACS and L-1 treated samples were set to 100%. Data are

expressed in relative fluorescence units. The means plus SEM of results from three independent

experiments are shown in B and C. Significant differences between M-C7.1 and L-1-treated samples

were calculated by Student's paired t-test (*, $P < 0.05$; ***, $P < 0.0001$).

Figure 5. M-C7.1 supports *S. aureus* clearance by isolated human PMNs and in an *in vivo* abscess

model. (A) Kinetics of killing of CA-MRSA strain USA300 WT treated with M-C7.1 compared to control

mAB L-1 by freshly isolated human PMNs. Viable bacteria (CFU) after incubation with PMNs are

shown as percentage of initial CFU counts. The means plus SEM of results from three independent

experiments are shown. (B) Kinetics of phagocytosis of USA300 WT treated with M-C7.1 compared to

control mAB L-1 by freshly isolated human PMNs. Percentages of PMNs bearing FITC-labeled USA300

are given. Means of three counts from a representative experiment are shown. (C) Skin abscess

formation by USA300 WT treated with M-C7.1 compared to control mAB L-1 in mice. Abscesses were

induced by 10^6 CFUs of antibody-treated bacterial cells mixed with dextran beads (1:1) and injected

s.c. in both flanks of mice. Mice were euthanized after 36 h, abscesses were excised and viable

bacteria in homogenized samples were quantified. Eight abscesses from four mice per antibody are

shown together with medians. Significant differences were calculated by Student's t-test (**,

P < 0.01) (D) Visual phenotype of two representative skin abscesses induced by M-C7.1 or control

mAB L-1 treated USA300 WT in the flanks of mice. Abscesses are indicated by black arrows.

Figure 6. Proposed model for MprF inhibition by M-C7.1. Flipping of positively charged LysPG

probably by TMS 7 and 8 of MprF results in a more positively charged staphylococcal membrane able

to repulse AMPs or daptomycin (DAP). Binding of M-C7.1 to MprF loop seven blocks the flippase

which results in a more negatively charged staphylococcal membrane and subsequently in an

increased *S. aureus* membrane disruption by AMPs and daptomycin.

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Supplemental figures

Workflow

24 unique Fabs against MprF target loops were converted to human IgG1 in HBK-11 cells and chromatographically purified

Target loop-specific Fab fragments were subcloned in *E. coli* expression vectors for purification (368 CFUs picked per antigen)

Supplemental Figure S1. Workflow for the development of MprF specific mABs. Biotinylated MprF peptide loops were incubated with the HuCal phage display library expressing single-chain human Fab fragments, antigen-binding phages were enriched in three iterative panning rounds, bound antigen-specific phages were isolated and subcloned in *E. coli* expression vectors to yield His-tagged Fab fragments, 24 unique Fabs against all peptides were converted to human IgG by cloning in an IgG1 expression vector system for human HKB11 cells, and IgGs were purified via protein A chromatography.

Supplemental Figure S2. Specific binding of selected mABs to cyclic MprF-derived target peptides

was analyzed by ELISA. Biotinylated cyclic peptides corresponding to the MprF loops 1, 7, 9, and 13

were incubated with eight anti-MprF IgGs in PBS compared to the control mAB L-1. (A-D) show

binding of mABs at increasing concentrations to cyclic MprF loops 1, 7, 9, and 13, respectively. Mean

fluorescence measured at A 440 nm and SEM of three independent experiments are shown.

Supplemental Figure S3. Effects of cysteine replacement and insertion on MprF function, assessed by

measuring daptomycin susceptibility. Minimal inhibitory concentrations (MICs) of daptomycin

against the indicated *S. aureus* strains are shown. The *mprF* deletion mutant with empty pRB474

plasmid served as a negative control. The means plus SEM of results from three independent

experiments are shown. Values that are significantly different from the values determined for the *S.*

aureus ΔmprF mutant bearing pRB474 (pRB), calculated by Student´s paired t-test, are indicated (**,

P < 0.01; ***, *P* < 0.0001).

Supplemental Figure S4A. Visual phenotypes of all mouse skin abscesses caused by USA300 WT

treated with the control mAB L-1. Abscesses indicated by black arrows, abscess 1 represents the

opened right abscess, abscess 2 represents the opened left abscess.

Supplemental Figure S4B. Visual phenotypes of all mouse skin abscesses caused by USA300 WT

treated with M-C7.1. Abscesses indicated by black arrows, abscess 1 represents the opened right

abscess, abscess 2 represents the opened left abscess.

Supplemental Figure S5. Detection of M-C7.1 binding to MprF. Single channels are showed in black

and white from figure 3A. Further explanations are found in figure legend of figure 3A.

Supplemental tables

Table S1. MprF-directed antibodies and its target peptides.

Antibody	Antigen	Peptide sequence	Framework
M-C1	Cyclic peptide, loop TMS 1-2	ELSGINFKDTLVEFSKINR	VH3-23 kappa 3
M-C7.1	Cyclic peptide, loop TMS 7-8	LGFKTLGVPEEKV	VH1A kappa 1
M-C7.2	Cyclic peptide, loop TMS 7-8	LGFKTLGVPEEKV	VH3-23 kappa 1
M-C7.3	Cyclic peptide, loop TMS 7-8	LGFKTLGVPEEKV	VH1A kappa 1
M-C9.1	Cyclic peptide, loop TMS 9-10	DALYDGNHLT	VH1A kappa 1
M-C9.2	Cyclic peptide, loop TMS 9-10	DALYDGNHLT	VH3-23 kappa 1
M-C13.1	Cyclic peptide, loop TMS 13-14	DIYTIEMHTSVLR	VH1A kappa 1
M-C13.2	Cyclic peptide, loop TMS 13-14	DIYTIEMHTSVLR	VH1A kappa 1

860   **Table S2.** Bacterial strains used in this study.

Strain name	Characteristics
S. aureus SA113 WT (ATCC 35556)	Restriction-deficient *S. aureus* strain derived from NCTC 8325 (Iordanescu & Surdeanu, 1976)
S. aureus SA113Δ*mprF*	MprF deletion mutant of SA113, Erm[r] (Peschel et al., 2001)
S. aureus SA113Δ*spa*	Spa deletion mutant of SA113. Constructed in this study. Markerless.
S. aureus SA113Δ*spa*Δ*mprF*	Spa and MprF double deletion mutant of SA113. Constructed in this study. Erm[r]
S. aureus DAP-R MRSA 703	Daptomycin resistant clinical MRSA isolate possessing a single point mutation in *mprF* (S295L) (Jones et al., 2008)
S. aureus USA300 LAC	CA-MRSA wild type strain (Wang et al., 2007)
E. coli TG1	Strain for phage display usage (Prassler et al., 2011)

862   **Table S3.** Plasmids used in this study.

Plasmid	Characteristics	Short name in figures
pKOR1	*E. coli/S. aureus* shuttle vector to allow allelic replacement with inducible counter-selection in staphylococci (Bae & Schneewind, 2006)	-
pRB474	*E. coli/S. aureus* shuttle vector pRB474 (Bruckner, 1992)	pRB
pRB474mprF	*mprF* cloned in *E. coli/S. aureus* shuttle vector pRB474 (Peschel et al., 2001)	pRB-MprF
pRB474mprF-GFP	N-terminally GFP tagged *mprF* cloned in *E. coli/S. aureus* shuttle vector pRB474 (Ernst et al., 2015)	pRB-MprF-GFP
pRB474mprFdelCys flag	C-terminally FLAG tagged, cysteine depleted *mprF* cloned in *E. coli/S. aureus* shuttle vector pRB474; constructed in this study	WT (-Cys)
pRB474mprFdelCys T263C flag	C-terminally FLAG tagged, cysteine depleted *mprF* with artificial cysteine insertion cloned in *E. coli/S. aureus* shuttle vector pRB474; as indicated, each plasmid bears another amino acid substituted against cysteine (e.g. T263C)	pRB-T263C
pRB474mprFdelCys A99C flag		pRB-A99C
pRB474mprFdelCys T480C flag		pRB-T480C

Table S4. Primers used in this study.

Primer	5' → 3' sequence	Usage
A99C fw	GCATTGAATTGTATTGTAGGTTTCGGTGGCTTTATTGGTGCAGGCG	Forward primer for construction of pRB-A99C by site-directed mutagenesis
A99C rev	CCGAAACCTACAATACAATTCAATGCATTGATGATATAACTTACTC	Reverse primer for construction of pRB-A99C by site-directed mutagenesis
T263C fw	GTTGTATTACTAGGATTTAAATGTTTAGGTGTCCCTGAGGAAAAAG	Forward primer for construction of pRB-T263C by site-directed mutagenesis
T263C rev	CTTTTTCCTCAGGGACACCTAAACATTTAAATCCTAGTAATACAAC	Reverse primer for construction of pRB-T263C by site-directed mutagenesis
T480C fw	GGAACGTTATATGCATTAGATATTTATTGTATTGAAATGCATACATCTGTATTGCG	Forward primer for construction of pRB-T480C by site-directed mutagenesis
T480C rev	CGCAATACAGATGTATGCATTTCAATACAATAAATATCTAATGCATATAACGTTCC	Reverse primer for construction of pRB-T480C by site-directed mutagenesis
mprF C199+204S fw	TACTCTACTTTAGTGTCGTCTGTTGAATGGTTAGCAG	Primer for cysteine depletion of pRB474 encoded native *mprF* by site-directed mutagenesis
mprF C199+204S rev	AACAGACGACACTAAAGTAGAGTACAATCCTACAAAACG	
mprF C217A fw	TTCGCTGGTGTAATTGTTGACGC	
mprF C217A rev	ACCAGCGAAATATAATACAACTGC	
mprF C380A fw	GCTGCTTTATTACTTTTACTGAATGTAGTTGG	
mprF C380A rev	TAAAGCAGCACTAGTATGAATTGCC	
mprF C526S fw	GATAGCGAGGAGATTATTAATCAG	
mprF C526S rev	CTCGCTATCTTCAATTTTAGAAG	
mprF C717S fw	GTAATTGCATTTAGTAGTTTAATGCCAACATACTTTAATGATG	
mprF C717S rev	CTACTAAATGCAATTACTTCATTTTCTTCATTTCGCATTACACC	
Spa-del_attB1	GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCCAATATTCCATGGTCCAGAACT	Construction of a markerless *spa* knockout mutant using the pKOR1 vector system (Bae & Schneewind, 2006)
Spa-del	GTCGAGATCTATAAAAACAAACAATACACAACG	
Spa-del_attB2	GGGGACCACTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGATCAGCAAGAAACACACTTCC	
Spa-del rev	AAAAGATCTAACGAATTATGTATTGCAATA	

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