Title: Collaborative Cross mice have diverse phenotypic responses to infection with

Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* USA300.

Short Title: MRSA Infection in CC mice

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Abstract:

Staphylococcus aureus (*S. aureus*) is an opportunistic pathogen causing diseases

ranging from mild skin infections to life-threatening conditions, including endocarditis,

pneumonia, and sepsis. To identify host genes modulating this host-pathogen

interaction, we infected 25 Collaborative Cross (CC) mouse strains with methicillin-

resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA USA300) and monitored disease progression for seven

days. We identified eight 'susceptible' CC strains with high bacterial load, tissue

damage, and reduced survival. Among the surviving strains, six with minimal

colonization were classified as 'resistant', while the remaining six tolerated higher organ

colonization ('tolerant'). The kidney was the most heavily colonized organ, but liver

colonization was better correlated with reduced survival. We identified four CC strains

with sex differences: females survived the study period while males met our euthanasia

criteria earlier. In these CC strains, males had more baseline circulating monocytes and

red blood cells. We identified several CC strains that may be useful as new models for

endocarditis, myocarditis, pneumonia, and resistance to MRSA infection. Resistant

strains had higher pre-infection circulating neutrophils than susceptible and tolerant

strains. GM-CSF, IL-1-alpha, IL-15, IL-28, and IL-31 levels increased significantly in

tolerant strains after infection. Using RNA seq, we identified two pathways, IL-1 and

ERK1/ERK2, as potentially involved in the mechanism of tolerance. QTL analysis

identified two significant loci, on Chromosomes 18 and 3, involved in early and late

survival after infection. We prioritized *Npc1* and *Ifi44l* genes as the strongest candidates

influencing survival using variant analysis and mRNA expression data within these

intervals.

Importance:

Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) is a human opportunistic pathogen that can cause life-threatening diseases. To study the influence of host genetics on the outcome of MRSA infection, we infected a collection of genetically diverse mice. We identified different phenotypes for survival, organ colonization, and tissue damage, and classified CC strains into MRSA susceptible, tolerant, and resistant categories. Four CC strains had strong sex differences in infection outcome: females lived longer, and males had higher baseline circulating monocytes and red blood cells. Several of the CC strains we characterize may represent better animal models for diseases caused by MRSA. Resistant and tolerant strains appear to have different immunologic states both pre-infection and in response to infection. QTL analysis identified two genes, *Npc1* and *Ifi44l*, as strong candidates for involvement in early and late survival after MRSA infection. Our data suggests a strong involvement of host genetics in MRSA infection outcome.

Introduction

Staphylococcus aureus, a gram-positive pathogen, is a commensal organism and opportunistic pathogen that can cause severe morbidity and mortality [1, 2]. This organism colonizes 20-30% of humans permanently and another 50-60% intermittently [3, 4]. S. aureus is a multi-host pathogen that can colonize and cause disease in cows, chickens, pigs, sheep, and wild animals [5]. A range of conditions, from skin and soft tissue infections to severe life-threatening diseases, including sepsis and toxic shock syndrome, can result from S. aureus infection [6]. S. aureus is the leading cause of bacteremia, skin and soft tissue infections, bone and joint infections, and hospital-acquired infections [7].

Methicillin-resistant S. aureus (MRSA) is a strain of S. aureus resistant to β-lactam, fluoroquinolones, and macrolide antibiotics [8]. Resistance is conferred by the gene 'mecA', acquired by horizontal transfer of a mobile genetic element called Staphylococcal cassette chromosome mec (SCCmec) (Katayama, Ito, & Hiramatsu, 2000). MRSA was first described in the early 1960s and was primarily associated with hospital-acquired infections until the 1980s [9, 10]. In the 1990s, MRSA started spreading rapidly in the community and is now considered a global threat [7]. The World Health Organization (WHO) reported that people with MRSA are 64% more likely to die than people with drug-sensitive infections (WHO, 2018). MRSA causes more than 300,000 hospitalizations and 10,000 deaths in the US annually, at an estimated healthcare cost of 1.7 billion dollars (CDC, 2018).

USA300 is a highly successful community-acquired clone of MRSA. First reported in 1999, by 2011 USA300 had become the primary cause of severe skin and

soft-tissue infections, bacteremia, and community-onset pneumonia [11]. The increased

disease burden caused by MRSA USA300 is attributed to the presence of multiple

mobile genetic elements (MGEs) carrying virulence factors. These virulence factors

include Panton-Valentine Leukocidin (PVL) gene, Arginine-Catabolic Mobile Element

(ACME), Enterotoxins K and Q, Staphylococcal cassette chromosome *mec* type IV

(SCC mec IVa), and fluoroquinolone resistance acquired through mutations in *gyrA* and

grlA [12, 13]. In humans, USA300 infections are associated with increased mortality and

increased incidence of severe sepsis than hospital-acquired MRSA infections [14, 15].

This hypervirulence exhibited by USA300 over other strains has been repeatedly

demonstrated in several animal models [16-18].

Mouse models have helped identify susceptibility genes and understand the

mechanism of pathogenesis of many bacterial pathogens and diseases [19]. *S. aureus*

infections in mice induce a diverse spectrum of diseases similar to what is observed in

humans [20]. Mice lacking MyD88 (myeloid differentiation primary response protein), a

cytoplasmic adaptor involved in the IL-1R (Interleukin-1) and TLR-2 (Toll-Like Receptor

2) pathways, are highly susceptible to *S. aureus* intravenous infections [21]. Similarly,

mice deficient in NOD2 (nucleotide-binding oligomerization domain-containing protein 2)

are more susceptible to intraperitoneal infection with *S. aureus* [22].

Outcomes after infection with *S. aureus* differ depending on the strain of

laboratory mice used. In a bacteremia model, C57BL/6 mice are the most resistant in

controlling bacterial growth and survive, while A/J, DBA/2, and BALB/c mice are highly

susceptible [23]. This information has been used to map genetic loci involved in this

differential outcome. Using C57BL/6J and A/J Chromosomal substitution strains (CSS),

six genes on three different chromosomes (Chr 11 – *Dusp3*, *Psme3*; Chr 8 – *Crif1*,

Cd97; Chr 18 – *Tnfaip8, Seh1l*) have been implicated to susceptibility after infection with

S. aureus (sanger 476) strain [24-26].

Collaborative Cross (CC) mice have been successfully used to create disease

models and identify susceptibility genes for various infections [27]. The CC is a large

panel of recombinant inbred mouse strains created by interbreeding five classical inbred

strains (A/J, C57BL/6J, 129S1/SvlmJ, NOD/ShiLtJ, NZO/HlLtJ) and three wild-derived

inbred strains (CAST/EiJ, PWK/PhJ, and WSB/EiJ) using a funnel-breeding scheme

[28, 29]. CC strains have more than 30 million Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms

(SNPs), and their genomes are fully sequenced, making them an ideal population for

Quantitative Trait Locus (QTL) mapping [30, 31]. The CC has been heavily used to

identify susceptibility to viral pathogens, including Ebola virus [32], West Nile virus [33],

Influenza A virus [34], Coronaviruses [35, 36], Theiler's murine encephalomyelitis virus

[37], Cytomegalovirus [38] and Rift Valley fever virus [39]. The CC has also been used

to study infection with bacterial pathogens, including *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* [40,

41], *Klebsiella pneumonia* [42], *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* [43], *Borrelia recurrentis* [44],

Salmonella Typhimurium [45, 46] and *Salmonella* Typhi [47].

We infected 25 CC strains intravenously with MRSA USA300 to study disease

outcomes across diverse host genetics. We monitored infected mice for clinical

symptoms using telemetry and a manual health scoring method for up to one-week

post-infection. Organs and blood were collected at necropsy to quantify colonization,

tissue damage, complete blood counts (CBC), and cytokine levels. We observed a wide

range in survival and weight loss after infection. The kidney was the most highly

colonized organ, but liver colonization was more highly correlated with poor survival.

Four strains exhibited sex differences in survival: infected females lived until the end of

the experiment (day 7), but all the males met our euthanasia criteria much earlier.

Several CC strains we characterized could be used as new models for studying

endocarditis, myocarditis, pneumonia, and resistance to MRSA infection. We also

prioritized several blood, cytokines, and immune pathways that differentiated the

tolerance from resistance. QTL analysis identified two significant genomic loci involved

in early and late survival after infection. Shortlists of the strongest candidate genes

within these intervals were generated using variant analysis and mRNA expression

data.

Results

CC strains exhibit diverse responses to MRSA infection.

We infected twenty-five Collaborative Cross (CC) strains (three males and three

females per strain) with MRSA USA300 (Table S1). Animals were monitored for clinical

symptoms using a telemetry system and a manual health scoring method up to one-

week post-infection to identify those susceptible to MRSA infection. C57BL/6J (B6)

mice, known to survive MRSA infection, served as negative controls. At the time of

necropsy spleen, liver, heart, lung, and kidney were collected to enumerate the bacterial

load (Table S2).

All C57Bl6 mice survived until the end of the experiment (day 7) and were

classified as a surviving strain (Fig 1A). C57Bl6 mice lost a median of 8.90% of their

body weight and had high kidney colonization (Fig 1B and Fig 1C). CC strains that had

four or more mice of the six infected meeting our euthanasia criteria before day seven

were classified as 'susceptible'. Eight of the 25 CC strains we infected were classified in

this category (CC053, CC027, CC037, CC036, CC061, CC006, CC057, CC002, Fig

1A).

Five CC strains had three mice that met our euthanasia criteria before day 7. Of

these five strains, four showed sex-dependent survival: all the males met our

euthanasia criteria early in the experimental period, while all females of these strains

survived the full 7-day infection period. These four CC strains were classified as sex-

difference strains (CC013, CC058, CC043, CC015, Fig 1A). CC042 couldn't easily be

classified, as two females and one male survived MRSA infection.

We classified the remaining 12 surviving CC strains into tolerant and resistant

phenotypes. Tolerance was defined as surviving the infection with a high bacterial

burden. Surviving the infection by preventing colonization or clearing the pathogen was

defined as resistance. Six strains with higher organ colonization compared to the

inoculum dose were classified as tolerant (CC019, CC005, CC001, CC024, CC051,

CC038). The remaining six strains, with minimal or no colonization, were classified as

resistant (CC023, CC025, CC012, CC003, CC041, CC017) (Fig 1 and Fig S1).

Pre-infection weight did not influence survival (R = -0.05), while weight loss after

infection correlated with poor survival (R = -0.65) (Fig S2). Susceptible strains, on

average, lost 16% of their body weight, while tolerant and resistant strains lost 7% and

5%, respectively (Fig 1B). Colonization in all five organs was highly correlated (Fig S2).

10 mice belonging to 6 different strains had no colonization across the organs collected

(Fig 1 and Fig S1). We included them in the analysis based on disturbances in circadian

pattern following infection, suggesting that they did become infected as well as histology

scores. The kidney was the highest colonized organ across all CC strains and high

kidney colonization correlated with poor survival (R = -0.58) (Fig S2). Two susceptible

strains, CC027 and CC057, had median kidney colonization on the order of 10^9, ~100-

fold higher than the inoculation dose. Several resistant strains, including CC012,

CC025, CC003, and CC017, had lower or no MRSA colonization of the kidneys (Fig

1C).

The inability to limit bacterial growth in the kidney is associated with susceptibility

to intravenous *S. aureus* infections in mice [23]. In the CC strains we screened,

colonization in the liver (R = -0.78), spleen (R = -0.73), and lung (R = -0.67) was more

highly correlated with poor survival than colonization of the kidneys (Fig S2). Heart and

kidney colonization were similarly correlated with survival (R = -0.58) (Fig S2).

Furthermore, liver colonization had a high positive correlation with the spleen (R = 0.79),

lung (R = 0.78), and heart (R=0.67) colonization (Fig S2). These data suggest that

several CC strains tolerated high kidney colonization but reached our euthanasia criteria

when the pathogen load increased in other organs. The diverse response of CC strains

to MRSA infection is evident in the wide range of disease severity, survival, weight loss,

and organ colonization we observed.

<u>Survival is sex-dependent in four CC strains.</u>

A sex difference in survival was defined as only males or females within a strain

surviving the infection to day 7. Four strains, CC013, CC015, CC043, and CC058, met

this criterion for sex differences (Fig 1A). In these four strains, females lived until the

end of the experiment (day 7), but all the males met our euthanasia criteria much earlier

(Fig 2A). After removing these four strains and looking at the remaining CC mice (21

strains) as a population, there was no significant difference in survival (P = 0.51) and

weight change after infection (P = 0.13) between males and females.

In the four sex difference strains, males lost more weight than females (Fig 2B)

and had higher liver, spleen, and lung colonization (Fig 2C). The colonization did not

significantly differ between males and females in the kidneys, the highest colonized

organ in these strains (Fig 2C). Females in these CC strains appear to limit MRSA

spread from the kidneys and/or bacterial replication in other vital organs by an unknown

mechanism.

To assess baseline differences between males and females of the sex difference

strains, we evaluated pre-infection complete blood counts (CBC). Interestingly, males

had higher circulating levels of monocytes and red blood cells before infection than

females of these strains (Fig 2D). None of these blood parameters differed significantly

between males and females in the rest of the CC population (21 strains). Thus, this

difference in the starting blood parameters is unique to CC strains that displayed sex

differences in susceptibility to MRSA infection.

<u>Tissue damage correlates poorly with survival</u>

A board-certified pathologist scored each tissue blindly for damage using a scale

of 0 to 4 (0 = normal to 4 = severe damage) (Table S3 and Fig S3). Tissue damage in

three of the five organs we examined had a weak correlation with poor survival (Fig S2).

Spleen damage had the highest correlation with R = -0.23, followed by the kidney (R = -

0.18) and heart (R = -0.18) damage. This weak correlation may be due to the diverse

phenotypic responses exhibited by the CC strains to MRSA infection. Some infected CC

strains met our euthanasia criteria very early in infection, perhaps before extensive

tissue damage had time to occur. Other CC strains lived to the end of the experiment,

allowing time for severe tissue damage to occur and become cumulative (Fig 3).

However, high colonization in kidneys translated to more significant tissue

damage. Of the 25 CC strains we studied, 16 had a median score of 2.5 or above for

kidneys, indicating severe tissue damage. Two strains, CC017 and CC043, had no

kidney damage (Fig 3). CC017 is a resistant strain explaining minimal tissue damage in

the kidneys and other organs. But CC043 had high colonization across all organs and

lost more than 10% of their body weight, although this strain had a sex difference with

the females resistant to MRSA infection (Fig 1 and S1).

For tissue damage, across all the organs, resistant strains had significantly less

damage than tolerant strains (P < 0. 001) and susceptible strains (P < 0.010).

Interestingly, there was no significant difference in tissue damage as blindly scored by a

board-certified pathologist, between tolerant and susceptible strains (P = 0.57). CC042

and CC036 mice had severe damage in their hearts. Histologic examination revealed

that this damage was purulent bacterial myocarditis and myocardial necrosis. Sex

difference strains varied widely in tissue damage scores. Both males and females in

CC013 and CC058 had damage across all the tissues, despite the fact that females of

these strains survived while the males did not. CC043 did not have any damage in

either sex. In CC015, males had more significant kidney damage than females.

<u>Baseline body temperature and baseline activity did not correlate with survival.</u>

A surgically implanted telemetry device tracked body temperature and activity

levels every minute before and throughout the infection. Data from five days before

infection was used to create a baseline circadian pattern for each mouse using a

machine-learning algorithm. A machine learning algorithm was also used to predict

when infected mice deviated from their normal circadian pattern of body temperature

and activity after infection. No significant differences were identified in the elapsed time

between infection and deviation from the normal circadian pattern between surviving

and susceptible strains. 90% of the infected mice deviated from their normal circadian

pattern of body temperature and activity within 24 hours of infection (Fig S4). The first

health check performed by laboratory staff, 24 hours after infection, could only detect

56% of these mice. In the next two days, twice daily health checks detected all the

remaining mice as ill (Fig S4). These data suggest a significant lag time between

circadian pattern disruption detected by telemetry and signs of illness detected by

laboratory staff.

<u>Immune parameters that differ between phenotypes.</u>

Blood was collected from mice five weeks before the infection by cheek bleed,

and at necropsy, whole blood and serum were collected. Complete blood counts (CBC)

were determined using an automated CBC machine, and circulating cytokine levels

were determined from serum using a 36-plex cytokine/chemokine panel. To account for

baseline differences in CBC parameters across the CC strains, we determined the

change in each parameter after infection by subtracting post-infection CBC values from

pre-infection values from the same animal. Post-infection cytokine/chemokine values

were subtracted by values from age and sex-matched uninfected animals from the

same CC strains.

CC strains resistant to MRSA infection had a higher number of pre-infection

circulating neutrophils than susceptible and tolerant strains (Fig 4A). There were no

significant differences in other pre-infection CBC parameters. Post-infection, we only

looked at the differences between tolerant and resistant strains, as both groups were

euthanized at the same time point (Day 7 post infection). Platelet indices, platelet

distribution width (PDW), and mean platelet volume (MPV) increased in tolerant strains

after infection (data not shown). Increases in these platelet parameters suggest platelet

activation is occurring in MRSA tolerant CC strains [48, 49]. Among the 36 cytokines

and chemokines we measured, only five differed significantly between the tolerant and

resistant strains. GM-CSF, IL-1-alpha, IL-15, IL-28, and IL-31 were significantly elevated

in tolerant strains compared to resistant strains (Fig 4B).

Kidneys were collected during the necropsy and were used for RNA sequencing.

152 genes were differentially expressed between the tolerant and the resistant strains.

Of these, 88 were up-regulated in tolerant strains, and 64 were down-regulated (Fig

S5A). Differentially expressed genes were analyzed for the enrichment of biological

processes. Down-regulated genes were primarily involved in metabolism and electron

transport chain, significantly affecting normal cell activities. All up-regulated genes were

involved in immune-related pathways (Fig 4C). Homotypic cell-cell adhesion and

response to IL-1 were the top two enriched pathways. These processes, up-regulated in

tolerant strains, grouped into the ERK1/ERK2 cascade, response to IL-1, response to

cytokines, and innate and adaptive immune responses in enrichment tree analysis (Fig

S5B).

Two independent genomic regions influence survival.

We used a modified version of RQTL2 and qtl2qpi to identify chromosomal

regions associated with survival after MRSA infection [50, 51]. We used the number of

mice within a strain that survived at the end of each day as the phenotype. For a

successful QTL analysis, a phenotype needs to be highly heritable. Within the CC

strains we infected, survival was a highly heritable trait with a broad sense heritability

score of 0.38. When sex was included as a cofactor, heritability increased to 0.63. For

early survival on day 2, there was a highly significant peak on chromosome 18 (Fig 5A).

We named this QTL peak ESMI (Early Survival in MRSA Infection). This peak

disappeared after day 3 post-infection.

For survival until day 7 (late survival), there was a highly significant peak on

Chromosome 3 (Fig 5B). We named this peak LSMI (Late Survival in MRSA Infection).

To understand the impact of sex on survival, we performed the same analysis after

removing the four strains that exhibited sex differences in survival. The early survival

peak on Chr 18 and late survival peak on Chr 3 were retained (Fig S6), suggesting that

sex did not influence our QTL peaks. We compared the phenotype at the top SNPs in

both peaks for potential interaction. We did not identify any significant interactions,

suggesting that our QTL regions act independently of each other.

Npc1 is a candidate gene for early survival during MRSA infection.

The advantage of CC panel over other outbred mouse panels is the high number

of SNPs and structural variants present across the CC genomes [30, 31]. We used this

feature to shortlist the genes within the associated genomic regions to identify those of

most interest. The early survival QTL peak, ESMI, on chromosome 18 is a 5 Mb region

between 12-17 Mb with a peak around 14.67 Mb. This region contains 21 protein-coding

genes and 49 non-coding RNA genes. Because the CC strains are a mosaic of eight

inbred founder strains, we looked at the founder effect plot in this region to attempt to

identify each founder's contribution to survival. We found that the WSB allele

contributes to reduced survival, while A/J and NZO alleles contribute to prolonged

survival (Fig 6A). Using all the SNPs and indels that matched this allele effect pattern

using the Mouse Phenome Database (MPD), we identified 20,582 variants spread

across all 21 genes. We used Variant Effect Predictor (VEP) to further prioritize these

variants based on their predicted effect on protein structure and function, identifying 52

high and moderate-impact variants in 7 genes (Table S4). The highest impact variant

for each gene is listed (Fig. 6B). Four of the seven genes we shortlisted have previously

been associated with immune function in the Mouse Genome Informatics Portal

(highlighted in red) [52]. We sequenced mRNA from kidneys collected from CC strains

at necropsy (at least one male and one female per strain) to further prioritize genes.

Then, we looked for differentially expressed genes that matched the founder effect

pattern within this region. For the early survival QTL peak, two genes, *Npc1* and *Cdh2*,

matched the founder effect pattern (Fig 7C). *Npc1* is our top candidate in this region due

to its previous association with the immune system.

Ifi44l is a strong candidate for involvement in late survival after MRSA infection.

The late survival QTL peak, LSMI, on chromosome 3 is a 4 Mb region between

146-150 Mb with a peak near 146.66 Mb. This region contains 13 protein-coding genes

and 39 non-coding RNA genes. The A/J allele significantly reduced survival, while

CAST, NOD, NZO, and WSB alleles promoted longer survival (see founder effect plot,

Fig 7A). Using this founder effect pattern, we shortlisted five genes with variants

predicted to have a high impact on the function of the encoded proteins (Table S4). The

top variant for each gene is listed (Fig 7B). Gene expression data narrowed our shortlist

to *Ifi44I*, a gene that is highly expressed in strains with the A/J allele but not with the

alleles from the other founders (Fig 7C).

<u>QTL analysis for other phenotypes.</u>

We collected a large amount and variety of data throughout this experiment and

wanted to utilize as much of this data as possible. Therefore, in addition to using the

survival data, we performed QTL analysis for 188 other phenotypes. These phenotypes

included weight change, circadian parameters, nestlet scores, CBC, and

cytokine/chemokine values, before and after MRSA infection. At an 85% significance

level, we detected 39 QTL peaks for 36 parameters (Table S5). The median 1.8 drop

interval for these peaks was 6.12 Mb. We focused on the 15 peaks that passed the

significance at the 95 % level for variant shortlisting (Table S5). We generated the

founder effect and phenotype-genotype plot for each QTL peak (Fig S7). Using the

Mouse Phenome Database (MPD), we shortlisted high-impact genes in these intervals

that matched the founder effect pattern (Table S6).

Discussion

Staphylococcus aureus (*S. aureus*) is a highly successful organism that colonizes approximately one-third of the human population asymptomatically [3]. *S. aureus* colonization is a risk factor for subsequent infections ranging from mild skin and soft tissue infections to serious invasive infections and death [53, 54]. *S. aureus* has a complex repertoire of virulence factors, pathogenicity islands, and toxins and has developed resistance to multiple antibiotics [9]. Many studies have focused on understanding the genetics of *S. aureus* pathogenesis, but the host genetic factors that may modulate this host-pathogen interaction are poorly studied. We infected 25 genetically diverse CC mouse strains with MRSA USA300 to find the host genetic factors contributing to disease susceptibility or resistance over a 7-day infection.

CC strains vary widely in their response to MRSA sepsis. Survival ranged from 2.5 to 7 (end of the experiment) days. Weight loss ranged from strains losing 20% of their body weight (CC037, CC002) to strains losing less than 1% (CC017, CC003, CC024). The kidney is one of the primary organs for MRSA colonization in mice and was the highest colonized organ in our study [23, 55]. However, across CC strains, kidney colonization varied widely. Some strains (CC003, CC041, CC017) had minimal or no colonization, but others had very high colonization (CC057, CC027) (Fig 1C). In CC strains, high liver, spleen, and lung colonization correlated more closely with poor survival than did kidney colonization (Fig S2). Kupffer cells, specialized liver macrophages, are essential for the initial clearing of *S. aureus* from the bloodstream [56, 57]. Perhaps high MRSA colonization in the liver overwhelms the ability of resident

Kupffer cells to clear MRSA, contributing to the correlation between liver colonization

correlates and poor survival in CC strains.

We identified 8 CC strains that were susceptible to MRSA sepsis based on

reduced survival after infection. Within these susceptible strains, the phenotypic

response was diverse. Survival ranged from 2.5 to 4 days, and kidney colonization

ranged from 2 x10^8 to 2 x10^9 CFU/g of tissue (Fig 1A). CC061 (3.3 x10^8 CFU/g) and

CC036 (2.37 x10^8 CFU/g) had very similar kidney colonization, yet CC061 appeared to

have a more severe disease as they lost double the amount of body weight of CC036

(19% vs. 9%) (Fig 1B and 1C). We observed similar diversity in weight loss and

colonization within tolerant and resistant phenotypes as well. These data suggest CC

strains may each have a distinct mechanism leading to susceptibility or survival.

The majority of the CC strains used in this study were also used to define

susceptibility to non-typhoidal *Salmonella* infection [45, 46]. Of the eight MRSA

susceptible strains, six were also classified as susceptible or delayed susceptible to

Salmonella infection (CC053, CC027, CC037, CC036, CC061, CC006). The two

remaining MRSA susceptible strains, CC057 and CC002, were classified as resistant

and tolerant to *Salmonella* infection, respectively [46]. CC038 was classified as tolerant

to both MRSA and *Salmonella* infection. None of the other MRSA tolerant or resistant

strains matched the *Salmonella* classification.

We also compared MRSA infection outcome data to another study of

Mycobacterium tuberculosis (Mtb) infection in CC strains [41]. This study did not classify

survival phenotypes, so we used the median lung colonization values for each strain for

comparison to our survival data. For the 52 CC strains infected with Mtb, log lung CFU

ranged from 5.1 to 8.5, with a median of 6.7 CFU. Among the six MRSA-susceptible

strains, two strains, CC061 and CC006, had very low lung CFU (5.6 and 6.5 log CFU)

when infected with *Mtb*. On the other hand, three other susceptible strains, CC037,

CC027, and CC002, had very high lung colonization with *Mtb* (average – 8.2 log CFU).

Two of these strains, CC027 and CC037, were sensitive to both *Salmonella* and MRSA

infection and were also heavily colonized in the lung with *Mtb* [41, 45, 46]. These data

suggest that in these two CC strains, sensitivity to three different bacterial pathogens

may be occurring through a common mechanism.

All five MRSA-resistant CC strains when infected with *Mtb* had very high

colonization in the lung (average – 8.4 log CFU), suggesting these strains were likely

susceptible to *Mtb* infection. CC038, classified as tolerant to MRSA and *Salmonella*, is

also likely tolerant to *Mtb* infection with a lung CFU of 7.3, close to the median lung

colonization across all CC strains. The other MRSA-tolerant strains had variable *Mtb*

CFU in the lungs. This differential response of CC strains to different bacterial

pathogens suggests that most CC strains that we used do not have a significant general

dysfunction of immunity, where we would expect broad susceptibility to multiple

pathogens.

In both animals and humans, males are more susceptible than females to

bacterial infections [58]. Some of these differences can be attributed to the differences

in X-chromosome number and inactivation process between males and females. The X-

chromosome also encodes several critical immune genes, including interleukin-1 (IL-1)

receptor-associated kinase 1 (IRAK1), Colony-stimulating factor 2 receptor α (CSF2RA),

IL-2 receptor-γ chain, IL-3 receptor-α chain, IL-9 receptor, Toll-like receptor 7 (TLR7),

TLR8, and FOXP3, that could play important roles in sex differences in infection

outcome [59]. Males have a higher overall risk for MRSA carriage [60] and bloodstream

infections [61, 62]. However, there is no consensus on the role of gender in the mortality

rate. Several studies have found higher mortality in females [63-65], while other studies

have reported no association of mortality with gender [62, 66].

In our total study population, females survived longer than males (P < 0.01).

However, this survival difference was driven by 4 CC strains that exhibited strong sex

differences in survival. Within the strains with sex differences in survival, males lost

more weight and were colonized more heavily in the liver, spleen, and lung than females

(Fig 2C and 2D). We examined the blood parameters of male and female uninfected

mice of these CC strains to identify baseline differences. Two blood parameters,

circulating monocytes (MON) and red blood cells (RBC), were higher in males of these

strains prior to infection (Fig 2D) but were not significantly different between the sexes

in the rest of the CC population.

While the reason why these blood parameters vary must be further investigated,

S. aureus has a repertoire of virulence factors to take advantage of these parameters in

males. *S. aureus* persists within monocyte-derived macrophages and can use these

cells as a vehicle for further dissemination [67, 68]. Similarly, S *aureus* can bind directly

to both RBCs [69-71] and hemoglobin [72] and possesses multiple virulence factors to

lyse erythrocytes [73]. Additionally, heme iron is the preferred source of iron for *S.*

aureus during infection [74]. Increased pre-infection levels of monocytes may serve as a

mechanism for more efficient MRSA dissemination and increased RBC and hemoglobin

may serve as nutrient source during infection in males of some CC strains.

One of the advantages of using a panel of genetically diverse inbred mice is the

ability to identify mouse strains for model generation. MRSA is well adapted to multiple

hosts and can cause diverse diseases but studying these diseases in humans is heavily

confounded by environmental factors and comorbidities [20, 75, 76]. Thus, studies

investigating the pathogenesis of *S. aureus* have relied heavily on mouse models [77].

The four sex-difference strains we identified are ideal candidates for investigating the

role of sex/gender in MRSA infection outcomes.

S. aureus is the leading cause of infective endocarditis (IE), which results in high

mortality (40-50%) [78, 79]. Current mouse models of IE involve anesthetizing mice and

physically damaging the heart valve using a catheter prior to *S. aureus* infection [80].

C57BL6 mice are typically used as background strains for the IE model [81]. *S. aureus*

is also the most common cause of rare bacterial myocarditis, with fatal outcomes in

some cases [82-84]. Currently, there are no murine models to study MRSA induced

myocarditis. In our study, three CC strains, C0042, CC013, and CC036, had over 200-

fold greater colonization in the heart compared to C57BL6 mice (Fig S1C). CC042 and

CC013 also had severe tissue damage in the heart (Fig 3). On histological examination,

we observed systemic embolic bacterial purulent myocarditis (Fig S3). CC042 and

CC013 may make better, simpler inbred mouse models for studying cardiac disease

due to MRSA without the need to physically damage heart valves prior to infection.

Similarly, pneumonia caused by *S. aureus* has a high mortality rate [85]. In our

study, three strains, CC013, CC058, and CC061, had significant damage in the lung

(Fig 3) and could be used for studying *S. aureus* pneumonia. C57BL6 mice are the most

resistant mouse strain to *S. aureus* infection in the literature [23, 26], but do not clear

the pathogen completely. We identified six resistant CC strains that both survive MRSA

infection and have lower bacterial colonization than C57BL6 mice (Fig 1 and S1). Most

of these strains also had less tissue damage than C57BL6 mice (Fig 3). These resistant

strains are ideal candidates for future studies investigating the mechanisms of

resistance to *S. aureus* infections.

Changes in body temperature and activity are important clinical signs for disease

diagnosis and prognosis. During the recent COVID-19 pandemic, there was an

increased emphasis on using changes in body temperature to detect illness all over the

world [86, 87]. The reliability of using body temperature to screen patients with COVID-

19 illness has been questioned [88, 89]. Using an implanted telemetry device, we

measured the core body temperature and activity of each animal in our study. Daytime

baseline body temperature strain medians varied from 35.81 C to 37.14 C (96.46 F-

98.85 F), and nighttime temperature varied from 36.41 C to 37.61 C (97.54 F - 99.70 F)

(Table S2). Similarly, the difference between the night (active) and day (resting)

temperatures varied from 0.3 C to 0.9 C (0.5 F - 1.6 F). The diversity in these thermal

regulation patterns across CC strains should prompt caution when interpreting a single

measurement of body temperature as an indicator of illness in mice. Both pre-infection

temperature and activity were highly heritable (Temperature – day = 0.59, night = 0.60,

Activity – day = 0.72, night = 0.61), suggesting the involvement of a genetic component.

Unfortunately, we did not identify significant peaks in our QTL analysis for these

parameters. In the future, adding more CC strains to this analysis may help identify the

genetic loci that influence body temperature and activity. Accounting for genetic

variation in body temperature measurements should improve the accuracy of using

body temperature as a screening tool for detecting illnesses particularly in laboratory

animals.

Pre-infection inflammation and immune parameters play a role in disease

prediction and progression [36, 90]. Among all the CBC parameters we compared, pre-

infection circulating neutrophil numbers were significantly higher in MRSA resistant

strains than in the tolerant and susceptible strains (Fig 4A). Neutrophils are the primary

defense against *S. aureus* infections [54, 91]. Patients with impaired neutrophil numbers

and function are predisposed to *S. aureus* infections [92-94]. The high pre-infection

circulating neutrophil numbers in the MRSA-resistant CC is consistent with this human

data and may decrease colonization by MRSA in these strains.

S. aureus evades phagocytosis by modifying its cell surface and producing a

repertoire of virulence factors [95, 96]. These factors aid in both evading and attacking

the host immune system. We found increases in GM-CSF, IL-1α, IL-15, IL-28, and IL-31

levels in tolerant strains compared to the resistant strains. GM-CSF and IL-1α recruit

neutrophils and upregulate their properties to clear pathogens [97-99]. Tolerant strains

appear to be actively recruiting neutrophils to clear MRSA.

However, IL-28, IL-15, and IL-31 may help *S. aureus* persist, but these effects

have not been demonstrated in models of septic infection. Mice lacking the receptor for

IL-28 clear *S. aureus* better and have less pulmonary pathology [100]. Similarly, mice

lacking IL-15 have improved clearance of *S. aureus* in a mouse arthritis model [101],

and IL-31 supplementation enhanced *S. aureus* colonization in an epidermal model

[102]. Further studies will tease out the role of these cytokines in the tolerance

phenotype during sepsis.

The two pathways up-regulated in tolerant strains in our gene expression

analysis are IL-1 and the ERK1/ERK2 cascade (Fig 4C and S4B). In humans, mutations

in the IL-1 pathway lead to increased susceptibility to some bacterial infections,

particularly streptococcal and staphylococcal infections [103]. Activation of the IL-1

receptor (IL-1R) via the secretion of IL-1α and IL-1β activates the MyD88/IRAK4

pathway, resulting in the production of cytokines and chemokines promoting neutrophil

recruitment and pathogen clearance [104]. In S. aureus septic infections, IL-1R deficient

mice have increased mortality [105], and blocking the IL-1 receptor increased

susceptibility in mice [98]. In our experiments, IL-1α levels are increased in the serum of

tolerant strains (Fig 4B). Thus, the IL-1 pathway appears to play a critical role in the

survival of MRSA-tolerant strains, potentially causing increased neutrophil recruitment.

The extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2 (ERK1/2) signaling pathway

regulates cell proliferation, differentiation, and survival during stress response [106].

ERK1/2 molecules are expressed in very large quantities ($\sim 10^7$ molecules/cell) and bind

more than 200 distinct substrates in the cell [107]. Although ERK 1/2 enters the nucleus

and alters gene expression of several transcription factors, including NF-κB, its role in

bacterial infections is poorly understood [108]. ERK1/2 inhibitors have been successfully

used to increase survival in mouse models of S. aureus sepsis [109, 110], but their

mechanism of action is not clearly known. Future studies will be needed to identify the

mechanism of ERK1/2 pathway participation in the tolerance phenotype.

Survival of MRSA infected mice lasted from two to seven days and was

considered a complex trait for QTL analysis. For early survival, there was a significant

peak on Chromosome 18. This peak was significant at the 0.95 permutation threshold

and contained 21 protein-coding genes. The WSB allele at this locus contributed to

shorter survival. Seven genes in this region have mutations that have a predicted high

impact on protein function. While any of these variants could contribute to the reduced

survival phenotype, based on mRNA expression data we collected, we focused on

Cadherin2 (*Cdh2*) and NPC intracellular cholesterol transporter 1 (*Npc1*).

Chd2 encodes N-cadherin, which mediates calcium-dependent cell-cell adhesion

[111]. In humans, *CDH2* variants are associated with arrhythmogenic right ventricular

cardiomyopathy (ARVC) [112, 113]. In mouse models, *Cdh2* conditional knockouts have

abnormal heart structure and function [114]. *S. aureus* manipulates cell-cell adhesion for

biofilm formation [115] and changes in the cardiac wall structure to invade tissues [81].

S. aureus may use abnormalities in the cardiac wall structure created by the WSB *Cdh2*

variants to colonize early in infection.

The primary candidate gene in this QTL, *Npc1*, is present in the membrane of

endosomes and lysosomes and mediates intracellular cholesterol trafficking [116]. In

humans, mutations in *NPC1* cause Niemann–Pick Type C disease, leading to massive

accumulation of cholesterol in lysosomes in all tissues and premature death [117].

Defects in *Npc1* can lead to increased lipid storage in macrophages and a chronic

inflammatory condition [118, 119]. NPC1 is also the primary host factor responsible for

Ebola, and other filovirus, entry into the cell [120]. These viruses use the *Npc1* receptor

in endosomes and lysosomes to trigger a membrane fusion process that allows the

expulsion of the viral genome into the cytoplasm and subsequent viral replication [121].

Npc1 also plays an important role in Human Immunodeficiency virus type-1 (HIV-1)

[122], Hepatitis C virus [123] and Chikungunya virus infections [124].

Little is known about the role of *Npc1* in bacterial infections. In a hematopoietic

mouse model, *Npc1* mutant mice have a significant increase in the relative abundance

of *Staphylococcus* ssp. in their intestine [125], suggesting a role for *Npc1* in keeping

Staphylococcus ssp. at a low level in this niche. Mutations in *Npc1* impair steady-state

autophagosome maturation and interfere with the autophagic trafficking of bacteria to

lysosomes in macrophages [126]. *S. aureus* manipulates autophagy in both neutrophils

and macrophages to promote its survival and escape [127] [128, 129]. In a large human

GWAS study, several SNPs within the *Npc1* gene are associated with changes in

neutrophil counts, linking this gene to neutrophil abundance (n = 173,480) [130]. CC

mouse strains carrying the WSB allele of *Npc1* have a missense mutation. This altered

form of *Npc1* may interfere with autophagy in macrophages and neutrophils, such that

S. aureus can survive initial phagocytosis leading to the early susceptibility phenotype.

The A/J allele on Chromosome 18 contributed to reduced survival of MRSA

infected mice on day 7. A/J mice are highly susceptible to a different strain of *S. aureus*

(SH1000) [23]. Among the 13 protein-coding genes with high impact variants in this

region, five matched the founder effect allele pattern. *Ifi44* and *Ifi44l* are our primary

candidates at this locus. *Ifi44* has a missense mutation, and *Ifi44l* has a high-impact

variant in the gene's promoter region. In mice and humans, *Ifi44l* is a paralog of *Ifi44*

and belongs to the Interferon stimulated gene (ISG) family. Both these genes encode

proteins with similar size and sequence identity, but it is unclear if they have redundant

or distinct functions [131].

Since there was no difference in mRNA expression for *Ifi44* between the founder

genotypes, we focused on *Ifi44l*, which was expressed significantly higher in strains with

A/J backgrounds. *Ifi44l* promotes macrophage differentiation during bacterial infection

and facilitates inflammatory cytokine secretion [132]. Overexpression of *Ifi44* or *Ifi44*L

was sufficient to control respiratory syncytial virus (RSV) infection [131]. *Ifi44l* represses

the interferon response, protecting the host from the negative effects of the innate

immune response during viral infection [133]. The A/J *Ifi44l* allele may be less effective

in controlling the interferon response, reducing the survival of *S. aureus* infected mice in

the later stages of infection.

Ours is the first study of the effects of host genetic variation during MRSA

USA300 sepsis in a genetically diverse inbred mouse panel. A series of previous studies

examined the genetic differences that influence *S. aureus* (strain Sanger-476) infection

in A/J and BL/6 mice using a chromosome substitution strain (CSS) model [24-26]. Six

genes belonging to three different chromosomes (Chr 11 – *Dusp3, Psme3*; Chr 8 –

Crif1, Cd97; Chr 18 – *Tnfaip8, Seh1l*) were implicated in susceptibility after infection

with *S. aureus*. The mechanism of susceptibility in A/J mice was attributed to increased

inflammation and a decreased immune response in response to *S. aureus* infection [24].

We did not identify any genes in common with this previous work, likely due to

the differences in both the pathogen and the mouse strains used in both studies [24].

Like USA300, Sanger-476 is a community-acquired strain collected in the United

Kingdom but is sensitive to methicillin [134]. USA300 also has additional pathogenicity

islands, including SaPI5 and SaPIm4, that are absent in the Sanger-476 strain [135].

During infection, USA300 also produces higher amounts of virulence factors compared

to other MRSA strains [16, 136, 137]. These genetic differences make USA300 distinct

from, and potentially more virulent than, other community-acquired clones of MRSA. On

the host side, CC founders include six additional inbred strains (three wild-derived),

making the collection of CC strains more genetically diverse than the CSS panel.

However, given that studies using the CSS panel identified increased inflammation and

defective immune responses as critical to MRSA resistance, we were encouraged to

see the mutations in the genes we shortlisted (*Npc1*, *Ifi44l*) also contribute to increase

inflammation and a defective immune response.

Using survival, colonization, telemetry, and histology data, we show the diversity

underlying the host response to MRSA USA300 infection. We successfully classified CC

strains into susceptible, resistant, and tolerant phenotypes with respect to MRSA

infection and identified several immune factors that may moderate these phenotypes.

We also described MRSA models for studying sex differences, resistance, MRSA

mediated heart damage, and pneumonia. We identified pathways, IL-1, and ERK1/2,

that could be involved in the mechanisms of tolerance to MRSA infection. Finally, we

have described two novel genomic regions that influence early and late survival after

MRSA infections. With several *S. aureus* vaccines failing at human clinical trials [138,

139], our data support strong consideration of host genetics as an important factor while

designing therapeutics and vaccines against pathogens.

Materials and Methods

Ethics statement

All mouse studies followed the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory of

Animals of the National Institutes of Health. The animal protocols (2015-0315 D and

2018-0488 D) were reviewed and approved by Texas A&M Institutional Animal Care and

Use Committee (IACUC).

Bacterial strains and media

Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* isolate (USA300) used in this study

was the kind gift of Dr. Magnus Hook (Texas A&M Institute of Biosciences and

Technology, Houston). USA300 is a fully virulent, community-acquired clone of MRSA.

Strains were routinely cultured in Luria-Bertani (LB) broth and plates supplemented with

antibiotics when needed at 50 mg/L Kanamycin Sulphate. For murine infections, strains

were grown aerobically at 37^0C to a stationary phase in LB broth supplemented with

Kanamycin.

Murine strains

Both conventional (C57BL/6J) and Collaborative Cross (CC) mice were used for

these experiments. In total, three males and three females belonging to 25 different CC

strains and C57BL/6J (156 mice) were used. All mice were initially purchased from

UNC's Systems Genetics Core Facility (SGCF). They were bred independently at the

Division of Comparative Medicine at Texas A&M University (Table S1). Mice were fed

Envigo Teklad Global 19% Protein Extrudent Rodent Diet (2919) or Envigo Teklad

Rodent Diet (8604) based on strain need. Mice were provided with cardboard huts,

food, and water ad libitum.

Placement of telemetry devices

Mice (5-7 weeks old) were anesthetized with an isoflurane vaporizer using the

Kent Scientific SomnoSuite Low-flow anesthesia system to implant telemetry devices. A

midline abdominal incision was made, and Starr Life Science G2 Emitter devices were

sutured to the ventral abdominal wall. The abdominal muscle layer was sutured with 5-0

vicryl, and the skin layer was closed using stainless steel wound clips. Buprenorphine

(0.0001 mg/g) was administered intraperitoneally before recovery from anesthesia. Mice

were monitored twice daily for surgical complications and humanely euthanized when

needed. Surgical clips were removed on the seventh day, and animals were allowed to

recover for one more week.

Health monitoring

After the recovery from surgery, mice were moved to a BSL-2 facility and

acclimated for 5-7 days. Individual cages containing implanted mice were placed onto

ER4000 receiver platforms and calibrated to receive signals from the implanted

telemetry devices. The outputs, body temperature (once per minute) and gross motor

activity (summation of movement per minute), were continuously fed to a computer

system for visualization (Fig S8 and Fig S9). We manually scored four health

parameters twice daily: physical appearance, body conditioning, and provoked and

unprovoked behavior. The scoring scale ranged from 0-3, with zero = normal and three

= abnormal. Additionally, as a measure of activity, four small nestlets were placed at

each corner of the cage in the evening. The following day, the number of nestlets moved

from the cage corners into the hut was noted.

Infection with MRSA

After baseline scoring for health, mice (now 8-12 weeks old) were infected with

MRSA USA300. Briefly, Mice were anesthetized using isoflurane and infected with 1 x

10^7 CFU in 50 μl of LB broth intravenously at the inferior fornix into the retro-orbital

sinus. Mice that became moribund within 6 hours of infection were humanely

euthanized and removed from the experiment.

Bacterial load determination

After infection, mice were monitored continuously using telemetry readings and

twice daily using visual health scoring. Mice that developed illness as measured by

telemetry and our scoring criteria were humanely euthanized by CO_2 asphyxiation. After

euthanasia, whole blood, serum, and organs (spleen, liver, heart, lung, and kidney)

were collected. A consistent region of each organ was collected in 3mL ice-cold PBS

and homogenized. The serially diluted homogenate was plated on LB plates

supplemented with kanamycin for bacterial enumeration in each organ. Data are

expressed as CFU/g of tissue.

Identification of deviation from the circadian pattern of body temperature and activity

A machine learning algorithm was used to identify the deviation from the

circadian pattern of boy temperature and activity. Detailed explanation of the

methodology and calculations can be found here [45].

Histopathology

After euthanasia, portions of collected organs were fixed in 10% neutral buffered

formalin for 24 hours and stored in 70% ethanol. Fixed tissue was embedded in paraffin,

sectioned at 5 μm, and stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E). A board-certified

veterinary pathologist scored all the slides for tissue damage on a scale of 0 to 4 in a

blinded manner (Table S3). Whole slide images of H&E-stained tissue sections were

captured as digital files by scanning at 40X using a 3D Histech Pannoramic SCAN II FL

Scanner (Epredia, MI). Digital files were processed by Aiforia Hub (Cambridge, MA)

software to generate images with scaled bars.

<u>Complete blood count</u>

One week before the implantation of telemetry devices, whole blood was

collected from each mouse by submandibular bleeding. From the same mice, blood was

collected at necropsy after infection by cardiac puncture. Abaxis VetScan HM5,

optimized for rodents, was used to analyze blood collected in Ethylene Diamine Tetra

Acetic acid (EDTA) tubes. The difference between the blood parameters after and

before infection (positive value = increased after infection and negative value =

decreased after infection) was calculated and reported.

<u>Cytokine and chemokine analysis</u>

Serum was separated from the whole blood collected at necropsy. Invitrogen

ProcartPlex Cytokine/Chemokine Panel 36 plex kit was used to analyze the serum as

per manufacturer instructions. Briefly, magnetic beads were added to each well of the

96-well plate and washed with a wash buffer. 25 ul of serum from each mouse was

added in duplicates to the plates along with the standards provided in the kit. After

shaking for an hour, 25ul of detection antibody was added to the plates and incubated

for 30 minutes. This was followed by adding 50 ul of SAPE for 30 minutes, washing, and

120 ul of reading buffer to each well. The kit screens for the following 36 cytokines and

chemokines: IFN gamma; IL-12p70; IL-13; IL-1 beta; IL-2; IL-4; IL-5; IL-6; TNF alpha;

GM-CSF; IL-18; IL-10; IL-17A; IL-22; IL-23; IL-27; IL-9; GRO alpha;IP-10; MCP-1; MCP-

3; MIP-1 alpha; MIP-1 beta; MIP-2; RANTES; Eotaxin; IFN alpha; IL-15; IL-28; IL-31; IL-

1 alpha; IL-3; G-CSF; LIF; ENA-78/CXCL5; M-CSF. Average values from the duplicates

were used for the analysis. To obtain pre-infection levels, serum was collected from

age-matched uninfected mice and run using the same protocol mentioned above. The

median values of uninfected animals for each strain were used as the baseline for that

strain. The difference between infected and uninfected animals (positive value =

increased after infection and negative value = decreased after infection) was calculated

and reported.

<u>QTL analysis</u>

QTL analysis was performed using R/qtl2 software [50]. This method accounts

for the complex population structure in CC strains. Briefly, genome scans were

performed on the transformed phenotype and genotypes imputed from the QTL viewer.

The generated Logarithm of Odds (LOD) score is the likelihood ratio comparing the

hypothesis of a QTL at a given position versus that of no QTL. Each phenotype was

randomly shuffled 999 times to establish genome-wide significance, and LOD scores

were calculated for each iteration. The 85th percentile of the scores was considered

significant for that phenotype. The genomic confidence interval was calculated by

dropping the LOD scores by 1.8 for each significant peak. Mouse Genome Informatics

(MGI) was used to find the genes and QTL features within each interval [140]. To further

shortlist candidate genes, the founder strain distribution pattern was queried against the

CC variant database (V3 Version). The Variant effect predictor [VEP] from the ensemble

genome database was used to calculate the impact score for the variants [141].

<u>RNA extraction and sequencing</u>

Total RNA was extracted from frozen tissues using Direct-zol RNA Miniprep plus

kit following the manufacturer's protocol (Zymo Research - R2073). The purity and

quantity of the extracted RNA were analyzed using RNA 6000 Nano LabChip Kit and

Bioanalyzer 2100 (Agilent CA, USA, 5067-1511). High-Quality RNA samples with RIN

number > 7.0 were used to construct the sequencing library. After total RNA was

extracted, mRNA was purified from total RNA (5ug) using Dynabeads Oligo (dT) with

two rounds of purification (Thermo Fisher, CA, USA). Following purification, the mRNA

was fragmented into short fragments using divalent cations under elevated temperature

(Magnesium RNA Fragmentation Module (NEB, cat. e6150, USA) under 94℃ 5-7min).

Then the cleaved RNA fragments were reverse-transcribed to create the cDNA by

SuperScript™ II Reverse Transcriptase (Invitrogen, cat. 1896649, USA), which were

next used to synthesize U-labeled second-stranded DNAs with E. coli DNA polymerase

I (NEB, cat.m0209, USA), RNase H (NEB, cat.m0297, USA) and dUTP Solution

(Thermo Fisher, cat. R0133, USA). An A-base was then added to the blunt ends of each

strand, preparing them for ligation to the indexed adapters. Each adapter contained a T-

base overhang for ligating the adapter to the A-tailed fragmented DNA. Dual-index

adapters were ligated to the fragments, and size selection was performed with

AMPureXP beads. After the heat-labile UDG enzyme (NEB, cat.m0280, USA) treatment

of the U-labeled second-stranded DNAs, the ligated products were amplified with PCR

by the following conditions: initial denaturation at 95℃ for 3 min; 8 cycles of

denaturation at 98℃ for 15 sec, annealing at 60℃ for 15 sec, and extension at 72℃ for

30 sec; and then final extension at 72℃ for 5 min. The average insert size for the final

cDNA libraries was 300±50 bp. At last, we performed the 2×150bp paired-end

sequencing (PE150) on an Illumina Novaseq™ 6000 following the vendor's

recommended protocol.

<u>RNA sequencing data analysis</u>

Reads were trimmed using trim galore (version 0.6.7) [142-145]. This removed

adapters, poly tails, more than 5% of unknown nucleotides, and low-quality reads

containing more than 20% of low-quality bases (Q-value <20). Both forward and reverse

hard trimmed at 100 base pairs. FastQC was used to verify data quality before and after

cleaning [145]. Cleaned reads were aligned and counted against the mouse reference

genome (GRCm39) using STAR (version 2.7.9a) aligner [146]. Downstream processing

of the data was performed using IDEP 1.0 [147, 148]. Gene counts were analyzed for

differentially expressed genes using DESeq2 [149]

<u>Data availability</u>

All of the data points collected on each mouse before and after the infection can

be found in the supplementary file (Table S2). Raw RNA sequencing files can be found

at Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO, submission in progress).

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Figure and Table descriptions

Main Figures

Fig 1: CC strains exhibit a diverse response to MRSA infection. After intravenous infection with MRSA USA300 as described in the Materials and Methods section, we show: A. survival time, B. percent weight change after infection, C. kidney colonization, and D. liver Colonization. CC strains are shown in the ascending order of survival. If survival was equal between two or more strains, strains are arranged in descending order of total bacterial load (the combination of colonization of all organs). Dots represent individual mice; black dots represent males; green dots represent females. The median and interquartile range are shown for each strain.

Fig 2: Sex differences in survival after MRSA infection. We present pooled data for the four strains that exhibited sex differences in survival: A. survival time, B. percent weight change after infection, C. colonization across organs, and D. pre-infection monocyte and red blood cell counts (U – Uninfected). Dots represent individual mice; black dots represent males; green dots represent females. Median with 95% Confidence Interval is shown for each strain. A, B, and D – Student's T-test and C – Mann-Whitney tests were performed to determine statistical significance (* = P < 0.05, ** = P < 0.01, *** = P < 0.001, **** = P < 0.0001)

Fig 3: Tissue damage correlates poorly with survival. A stacked bar plot showing the tissue damage score for five organs (Kidney = green, spleen = red, liver = yellow, heart = blue, lung = pink). Pathology in each tissue was scored by a blinded pathologist on a scale of 0 = no damage, to 4= severe damage.

Fig 4: Several immune parameters differentiate the CC phenotypes. A. Mean

neutrophil levels in uninfected mice (S – susceptible, T – Tolerant, R – Resistant). B.

Mean change in cytokine and chemokine levels after infection (Gray – Tolerant, Black –

Resistant). C. Top pathways from Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis using

differentially expressed genes between tolerant and resistant strains. Lines represent

standard error of the mean. Student's T-test was performed to determine statistical

significance (* = P < 0.05, ** = P < 0.01, **** = P < 0.0001)

Fig 5. Genomic regions involved in survival after MRSA infection. LOD plots for

square root transformed survival phenotype (percentage of animals that survived at the

end of each day). A. Early survival (day 2 post-infection) peak on chromosome 18. B.

Late survival (day 7 post-infection) peak on chromosome 3. The dotted (Red – 95%,

Blue – 90%, Green – 85%) lines represent the significant LOD scores for 999

permutations.

Fig 6. Strongest candidate genes on chromosome 18 for early survival. A. Box plot

showing the founder allele contribution at the highest marker on the peak. Each dot

represents a strain, lines represent minimum to maximum. B. Genes with high-impact

variants shortlisted using the founder effect pattern. C. Mean kidney mRNA expression

values after infection (log-transformed). The number of animals is given within brackets.

Lines represent standard error of the mean values. Student's T-test was performed to

determine statistical significance (* = P < 0.05, ** = P < 0.01)

Fig 7. Strongest candidate genes on chromosome 3 for late survival. A. Box plot

showing the founder allele contribution at the highest marker on the peak. Each dot

represents a strain, lines represent minimum to maximum. B. Genes with high-impact

variants shortlisted using the founder effect pattern. C. Mean kidney mRNA expression

values after infection (log-transformed). The number of animals sequenced for each

founder allele is within the brackets. Lines represent standard error of the mean values.

Student's T-test was performed to determine statistical significance (* = P < 0.05, ** = P

< 0.01)

Supplementary Figures

Fig S1: Colonization in other organs. A. survival time. B. spleen colonization, C. heart

colonization. D. lung Colonization. Strains are in the ascending order of survival. If the

survival was equal, they are arranged in descending order of total organ colonization.

Dots represent individual mice; black dots represent males; green dots represent

females. The median and interquartile range are shown for each strain.

Fig S2: Correlation with survival. Heat map showing Spearman correlation 'R' values

between survival, weight change, organ colonization, and tissue damage scores.

Fig S3. Representative images of organ histology scoring scheme. Tissues were

sectioned and stained with H&E for scoring. Shows the 400X magnification of

representative scoring for all the organs.

Fig S4: Time to deviation from the normal circadian pattern. Plot showing the

number of animals that deviated from their normal pattern as identified by telemetry

system (machine - dot) vs. Laboratory worker (human - squares)

Fig S5: Differentially expressed genes between tolerant and resistant strains

using DEseq2. A. Venn diagram showing the number of upregulated and

downregulated genes in tolerant strains. B. Tree enrichment analysis using GO terms.

Fig S6. Impact of sex on QTL regions. LOD plots for square root transformed survival

phenotype excluding the four sex difference strains. A. Early survival. B. Late survival.

The dotted (Red – 99%, Blue – 95%, Green – 90%) lines represent the significant LOD

scores for 999 permutations.

Fig S7. QTL plots for other phenotypes. A. LOD plot for rank transformed relative

abundance values for significant genera. The dotted lines (Green – 85%, Blue – 90%,

Red – 95%) represent significant thresholds. B. Founder effect plot for the significant

chromosomes. C. Genotype X Phenotype plot for the highest SNP on the significant

chromosome.

Fig S8. Circadian pattern for all mice involved in the study. Blue line represents

temperature, black line represents activity and red line represents the time of infection.

Fig S9. Temperature change after infection. Change in temperature for each mouse

after infection (for 48 hours). The data is grouped by CC strain and colored lines in each

plot represent the strain averages.

<u>**Supplementary Tables**</u>

Table S1: Mouse strains used in this study. Number of mice, origin, and location of

breeding for all the mice used in the study.

Table S2: Data associated with each mouse. All the pre-infection and post-infection

data associated with each mouse in the study.

Table S3: Tissue scoring matrix with descriptions. The final score per organ

corresponds to the highest score assigned to a single category.

Table S4: Shortlisted variants for survival peaks. Sheet Chr_18 – high impact

variants on chromosome 3 for ESMI. Sheet Chr_3 – high impact variants on

chromosome 3 for LSMI.

Table S5: QTL regions for other phenotypes. At 85% (Sheet1) and 95 % (Sheet 2%)

significance threshold for 999 permutations.

Table S6: Shortlisted variants for other phenotypes. High impact variants in the QTL

regions listed on Table S5.

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Fig 1

Fig 2

Fig 3

Fig 4

Fig 5

A.

B.

Fig 6

A.

B.

GENE	SNP_ID	A/J	NZO	WSB	Cons
Npc1	rs30985329	A	A	T	missense
Lama3	rs51262081	C	C	G	missense
Cabyr	rs49718484	A	A	G	missense
Osbpl1a	rs48171054	T	T	C	missense
Psma8	rs31135735	A	A	G	missense
Kctd1	rs226935597	G	G	T	missense
Cdh2	rs243156099	C	C	T	splice region

C.

Fig 7

A.

B.

GENE	SNP_ID	A/J	CAST	NOD	NZO	WSB	Cons
Uox	rs31217970	T	C	C	C	C	synonymous
Adgrl4	rs30505737	T	A	A	A	A	splice region
Ifi44	rs48866215	A.	G	G	G	G	missense
Ifi44l	rs31149902	G	A	A	A	A	synonymous
Miga1	rs31134017	G	T	T	T	T	missense

C.