Yersinia actively downregulates type III secretion and adhesion at higher cell densities

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Short title: *Yersinia* downregulates type III secretion and adhesion at higher densities

<u>Abstract</u>

The T3SS injectisome is used by Gram-negative bacteria, including important pathogens, to

manipulate eukaryotic target cells by injecting effector proteins. While in some bacterial species,

T3SS-negative bacteria benefit from the activity of their T3SS-positive siblings, the T3SS model

organism *Yersinia enterocolitica* was thought to uniformly express and assemble injectisomes.

In this study, we found that *Yersinia* actively suppress T3SS expression, assembly and activity at

higher cell densities, such as inside microcolonies. This effect is highly specific to the T3SS,

reversible, and distinct from stationary phase adaptation. It is conferred by the main T3SS

transcription factor VirF, which is downregulated at higher densities and whose *in trans*

expression restores T3SS activity. Transcript analysis showed that this effect is mediated by

increased levels of the regulatory RNAs CsrBC, which sequester the regulatory protein CsrA and

destabilize the *virF* transcript. The concomitant downregulation of the VirF-dependent adhesin

YadA led to a drastic reduction in bacterial cell adhesion. We propose that this active suppression

of T3SS secretion and cell attachment at higher local bacterial densities promotes a switch during

Yersinia infection from a T3SS-active colonization stage to a bacterial replication and

dissemination phase.

Introduction

To manipulate eukaryotic cells, many Gram-negative bacteria, including important human pathogens, use a type III secretion system, which allows to inject effector proteins into target cells in a one-step mechanism [1–4]. These effector proteins can exert a wide variety of functions that facilitate survival and proliferation of the respective bacteria according to their infection route and lifestyle [5–7]. In contrast, the T3SS machinery, also known as injectisome, is highly conserved. It consists of a set of ring structures that anchor the injectisome in the bacterial membranes and surround an export apparatus in the inner membrane (IM), thought to act as a gating structure [8,9]. A hollow needle structure forms a conduit for the effectors, which is connected to a translocon pore in the target cell membrane (Fig. 1a). At the cytosolic interface of the injectisome, a set of conserved cytosolic components form six pod structures [10–14] that shuttle effectors between the injectisome and the cytosol in *Yersinia enterocolitica* [15–17].

Expression, assembly and activity of the T3SS are tightly regulated. Often, expression and assembly only occur within the host organism. In *Yersinia*, this is based on an RNA thermometer structure in the transcript of the main transcriptional activator of the T3SS, called VirF in *Y. enterocolitica* and LcrF in *Y. pseudotuberculosis* and *Y. pestis* [18,19]. While expression of VirF is sufficient for the formation of injectisomes, a second signal, host cell contact, is required to activate secretion. This activation, which can be mimicked by Ca^{2+} depletion or absence of the gatekeeper protein SctW in *Yersinia* [20,21], also removes the secreted posttranscriptional repressors YscM1/2 (LcrQ in *Y. pseudotuberculosis*) [22,23], leading to an upregulated production of the structural components and especially effectors of the system [23–25]. Recent studies in *Y. pseudotuberculosis* revealed additional layers of regulation (reviewed in [26]), such as the CsrABC system, where CsrA, which positively regulates T3SS expression by stabilizing the *virF* transcript, is sequestered by the two regulatory RNAs CsrB and CsrC [27].

This tight regulation of T3SS expression and activity may be required because of a phenomenon called secretion-associated growth inhibition (SAGI), in which secreting bacteria greatly reduce their growth and division. It was this striking phenotype that initially led to the discovery of the T3SS, when researchers noted a specific growth inhibition of virulent *Yersinia* (now known to be equivalent to the presence of the T3SS) at 37°C (T3SS expression) in the absence of Ca^{2+} (T3SS activation) [28–33]. Besides *Yersinia*, SAGI has been shown to occur in two other main T3SS model organisms, *Salmonella enterica* and *Shigella flexneri* [34–36]. However, it is still unclear if SAGI is a mere consequence of the energy expenditure for synthesis and export of the T3SS machinery and effectors, or whether it is an actively regulated phenotype, as suggested by the fact that growth and division are reinitiated very quickly, once secretion is stopped [37].

Given that the propagation of actively secreting bacteria is impeded, a differential expression of the T3SS within the population is conceivably beneficial in some situations. Indeed, it was shown that the SPI-1 T3SS, used by *Salmonella enterica* to induce a strong inflammation in the host gut that clears competing bacteria, is only active in a subset of bacteria, allowing the T3SS-inactive subpopulation to rapidly populate

the infection niche [34,38]. Similarly, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* expresses its T3SS in a bistable way [39–42]. In contrast, *Shigella flexneri* and *Yersinia enterocolitica*, where presence of the T3SS mainly gives a benefit to individual cells (invasion of the cytosol of epithelial cells and evasion of the immune response, respectively) [37,43], were so far found to be completely T3SS-positive, both in terms of expression and assembly of injectisomes [42,44–46] and their activation [47].

However, these results were gained under standard laboratory conditions typically focusing on the establishment of an infection at low bacterial densities. It is conceivable that this picture changes under conditions mimicking later stages of infection, where bacteria may benefit from suppressing T3SS assembly and activity, allowing them to replicate extracellularly in their established niches or to disseminate. Increased local bacterial density, a common aspect of later-stage infection environments, might therefore influence the activity of the T3SS.

In this study, we tested this hypothesis and found that T3SS assembly, activation, and bacterial adhesion are governed by cell density. This effect is clearly displayed in *Y. enterocolitica* microcolonies, where only a thin layer of cells at the rim of the colony are T3SS-positive, but can also be replicated and analyzed in liquid cultures. The density-driven downregulation of the T3SS is reversible, highly specific, and distinct from stationary phase adaptation. A >10 times increased concentration of the regulatory RNA CsrC at higher bacterial densities leads to sequestration of the RNA-binding protein CsrA and downregulation of expression of the main T3SS transcription factor VirF. Accordingly, expression of VirF *in trans* overrides the effect. We propose that the highly specific T3SS regulatory phenotype discovered in this study increases the chances of bacterial dissemination during and after infection by creating a T3SS-negative, non-adhesive subpopulation that can replicate and disseminate.

Results

Type III secretion activity is confined to the edges of *Y. enterocolitica* microcolonies

To investigate the regulation of T3SS activity under conditions relevant at later stages of infection, we imaged microcolonies of *Y. enterocolitica* Δ*sctW* at host temperature (37°C). T3SS activation can be monitored using the strong upregulation of the effector YopE upon T3SS activation [47–50]. To ensure a high sensitivity and temporal resolution of the reporter, we used the fast-folding fluorescent protein sfGFP with a SsrA degradation tag [51]. The resulting P*yopE*-*sfGFP-ssrA* reporter system allowed for accurate temporal mapping of T3SS activation (Suppl. Fig. 1). Strikingly, confocal microscopy scanning of the microcolony showed T3SS activation exclusively at the periphery of the colony (Fig. 1b, Suppl. Fig. 2), suggesting a strong repression of secretion towards the center.

Fig. 1 –T3SS activation is only detected at the edge of *Y. enterocolitica* microcolonies.

a) Schematic depiction of the T3SS injectisome (adapted from [52]); right, common nomenclature names of main T3SS components [53,54]. **b)** Confocal microscopy image of a *Y. enterocolitica* Δ*sctW* P*yopE*-*sfGFP-ssrA* microcolony section at 37°C. T3SS activity, which results in a strong upregulation of the *yopE* promoter and cellular fluorescence, is only detected at the edge of the microcolony. Scale bar, 50 μm, *n*=3.

Type III assembly and activity are affected by bacterial cell density

To investigate if the spatial regulation of T3SS activation observed in Fig. 1b was linked to the different cell densities perceived across the microcolony, we tested the effector secretion of *Y. enterocolitica* liquid cultures incubated under secreting conditions (37°C, low [Ca^{2+}]) at increasing cell densities. As *Y. enterocolitica* can reach optical densities at 600 nm (OD_{600}) of 15-20, the ODs at the inoculum (OD_{in}) used in this experiment correspond to the exponential phase growth in non-secreting bacteria (Suppl. Fig. 3). Cultures inoculated to an initial OD_{600} of 0.1 (OD_{in}=0.1), a condition regularly used for secretion experiments [42,47,48,55], which we refer to as reference hereafter, secreted large amounts of effector proteins. Increasing densities gradually reduced secretion levels, up to a complete inhibition of T3SS function at higher bacterial densities (OD_{in}=1.5) (Fig. 2a). This establishes an inverse correlation between T3SS secretion and cell density. To describe this unexpected phenotype in more detail, we next tested T3SS activation over time by quantifying the P*yopE-sfGFP-ssrA* activity. In line with the previous results, the reporter showed a weaker and shorter T3SS activation with increasing bacterial densities, again up to a complete loss of activation at higher densities (Fig. 2b, Suppl. Fig. 4). To determine whether already the assembly of the T3SS machinery was impacted by cell density, the number of injectisomes was quantified by fluorescence microscopy at a single-cell level in a strain expressing a functional EGFP-SctQ fusion [44]. The analysis showed a significant reduction in the number of fluorescent foci corresponding to assembled injectisomes at higher densities when compared to the reference (Fig. 2c). Like protein secretion itself, T3SS assembly was almost fully repressed at higher cell densities. As expected, a certain degree of heterogeneity was observed under all conditions tested, but neither a bimodal distribution, nor distinct subpopulations were observed for T3SS assembly or activation in single-cell experiments (Fig. 2cd), indicating a general downregulation of the T3SS. The results highlight a strong inverse relationship between cell density and T3SS assembly and activation, which we refer to as density-dependent downregulation of the T3SS (d^3T3).

Fig. 2 – Assembly and activity of the T3SS are significantly reduced at higher bacterial densities.

a) Top, graphical depiction of secretion assay; bottom, effectors secreted by the T3SS at increasing OD_{in} (left to right: 0.1, 0.3, 0.7, 1.0, 1.5). Left, assignment of effectors; right, molecular weight (MW) standards. **b)** T3SS reporter assay (P_{yopE}-*sfGFP-SsrA*) [47,56] at increasing OD_{in} values as in a). Intensities are adjusted for OD_{600} and displayed relative to the highest OD-adjusted intensity value, growth curves of cultures used in these experiments are displayed in Suppl. Fig. 5. **c)** Quantification of EGFP-SctQ foci per bacterium, corresponding to assembled injectisomes, visualized by fluorescence microscopy at increasing OD_{in} as in b). Number of measurements and foci counts listed in Suppl. Table 1. Sample micrographs depicted at bottom, scale bar, 2 µm. **d)** Single-cell T3SS reporter assay (P_{yopE}-*sfGFP-SsrA*) of *Yersinia* cells to assay the heterogeneity of T3SS activation at the indicated low and intermediate activation levels (OD_{in}=0.1, 0.3, as indicated). Measurements were taken 4h and 5h post-secretion induction, intensities are displayed as in b). Each dot represents a single cell, black bars represent the average fluorescence intensity. *n*=3 for all panels. Gel image in a) shows representative result; for c, *n cells* = 300; for d, *n cells* = 100, statistical analysis was performed using a non-parametric t-test, ****, $p<0.0001$, whiskers denote standard deviation.

The density-dependent T3SS inhibition is specific and reversible

To probe if the observed correlation between bacterial density and the T3SS is specific or part of a more global regulatory effect, we compared the total proteome of bacteria with OD_{in}=1.5 to the reference (OD_{in}=0.1). Remarkably, 24 of the 25 most strongly downregulated proteins were directly T3SS-related (marked by red dots in Fig. 3a), showing that the effect is highly specific for the T3SS. All T3SS proteins were highly downregulated (3-256-fold, *p*<0.001 for all detected components), except for the negative regulators YscM1 and YscM2, which were upregulated, and their chaperone SycH, whose expression remained stable (Fig. 3a, Table 1). All T3SS gene classes – structural components, regulators, effectors and chaperones – were similarly affected (Suppl. Fig. 6, Table 1). In contrast, expression of other proteins encoded on the pYV virulence plasmid was largely unaltered (Suppl. Table 2). This indicates that the downregulation is not caused by a change in plasmid copy number or overall protein expression from the plasmid. Instead, it suggests a direct effect of bacterial densities on T3SS expression that is distinct from stationary phase responses occurring at higher density. In line with this interpretation, proteins involved in stationary phase response, which are highly expressed at stationary phase, were not significantly upregulated at OD_{in}=1.5 (Suppl. Table 3). Taken together, our data unanimously point towards a specific T3SS repression mechanism driven by cell density rather than a broader cellular reorganization.

We then tested if the d^3T3 effect is reversible. Bacterial cultures were inoculated at reference or higher OD (OD_{in}=0.1 or 1.5) and then concentrated or diluted to the OD of the respective other culture prior to induction of T3SS expression by a temperature shift to 37°C in the absence of Ca^{2+}. Bacteria were resuspended in their respective centrifugation supernatant to avoid possible effects of fresh medium on the analysis. Activation of the T3SS was measured as P*yopE-sfGFP-ssrA* reporter activity for single bacteria. Increasing the density of initially dilute cultures strongly suppressed T3SS activation. Likewise, diluting the initially more concentrated cultures almost completely restored T3SS activation (Fig. 3b). We also tested a possible role of the medium composition (e.g. by limitation of nutrients or presence of extracellular negative regulators at higher densities) and found that secretion was neither strongly reduced at low density by spent medium from high-density cultures, nor activated at high densities by fresh medium (Fig. 3c). Together, these results highlight a direct and reversible influence of bacterial density on T3SS secretion.

Fig. 3 – The density-dependent downregulation of the T3SS is specific and reversible.

a) Volcano plot showing differences in the expression of *Y. enterocolitica* proteins between cultures grown under secreting conditions at OD_{in} 1.5 and 0.1. All proteins with at least three detected peptides under both conditions are displayed; T3SS-related proteins are marked by larger red dots. **b)** T3SS reporter assay (P_{yopE}-*sfGFP-ssrA*) in strains with OD_{in}=0.1 or 1.5 and concentration or dilution at the time of the temperature shift to 37°C, as indicated. Measurements were performed 150 min after dilution/concentration. **c)** T3SS reporter assay (P_{yopE}-*sfGFP-ssrA*) in strains with OD_{in} values as indicated. Medium exchange at the time of the temperature shift to 37°C as depicted; C indicates constant incubation without medium change. Measurements were performed 150 min after medium exchange. *n*=3 biological replicates for all panels. In panels b) and c), *n cells* = 150, each spot represents a single measurement, whiskers denote standard deviation. Statistical analysis was performed using a non-parametric t-test; ****, *p*<0.0001.

Global stationary phase regulators have a minor effect on T3SS assembly and function

We next aimed to determine the cause for the previously unknown regulatory phenotype described above. To investigate a possible role of known density-dependent global regulators of bacterial physiology and behavior in the d^{3}T3, we studied the influence of quorum sensing (QS), the stationary phase/stress response alternative sigma factor RpoS, and the stringent response regulators RelA and SpoT. In *Yersinia*, both homologs of LuxI/R (*yenI/R*) and LuxS have been characterized, although no clear evidence of functional LuxS-dependent AI-2 signaling has been provided so far. While QS in *Yersinia* influences, among others, motility and biofilm formation [56–58], its role in bacterial virulence is less clear. We performed a secretion assay in a *Y. enterocolitica* QS double mutant lacking the genes for YenI and the AI-2 kinase LsrK. The secretion pattern of the mutant showed no significant impact of QS on secretion under the conditions tested (Fig. 4a, Suppl. Fig. 7). Next, we tested the influence of the stationary phase/stress response RNA polymerase sigma factor RpoS on d^{3}T3. RpoS is known to positively regulate motility and biofilm formation in many Gram-negative bacteria [59,60], but its impact on *Yersinia* virulence is unclear. The activity of the T3SS at OD$_{in}$ 0.1 and 1.5 was not influenced by the deletion or overexpression of RpoS (Fig. 4b). Finally, we tested the role of RelA [61,62] and SpoT [63,64], activators of the stringent response, which is a key process in stationary phase adaptation. Similar to the previous experiments, deletion of RelA or SpoT did not restore secretion at higher bacterial densities (Suppl. Fig. 8). These results further support the hypothesis that the d^{3}T3 is a specific phenotype rather than a part or consequence of stationary phase adaptation.

Fig. 4 – Quorum sensing and the alternative sigma factor RpoS do not significantly contribute to the density-dependent downregulation of the T3SS.

a) Secretion assay of wild-type (WT) and quorum sensing mutant strains at different OD$_{in}$ as used in Fig. 1 (left to right, OD$_{in}$=0.1, 0.3, 0.7, 1.0, 1.5). **b)** Secretion assay of the indicated strains at OD$_{in}$ 0.1 and 1.5, as displayed. For *in trans* complementation of the *rpoS* mutant from pBAD::RpoS, RpoS expression was induced by the addition of 0.2% arabinose at the time of the shift to 37°C. *n*=3, gel images show representative results.

The transcriptional regulator VirF is the main target of the density-dependent T3SS regulation

Based on the specificity of the d³T3 (Fig. 3a), the uniform influence on all T3SS components (Table 1, Suppl. Fig. 6), and the limited role of the tested global regulators (Fig. 4, Suppl. Fig. 8), we hypothesized the target of the repression to be a general regulator of the T3SS. Expression and assembly of the injectisome are controlled mainly by the AraC-like transcriptional activator VirF (Suppl. Fig. 9a). In the absence of VirF, the *Yersinia* T3SS is inactive and its components are strongly repressed [19,65,66] (Suppl. Fig. 9b). VirF was among the proteins that were significantly downregulated at high cell densities (-12.64-fold, $p<10^{-5}$, Table 1). To test if this downregulation is the causal factor for the d³T3, we expressed VirF from a plasmid at $OD_{in}=1.5$. Additional expression of VirF was indeed sufficient to restore T3SS activity (Fig. 5a), indicating that T3SS repression at higher cell densities largely is a consequence of reduced VirF levels. Based on these results, added VirF expression should lead to uniform T3SS activity in microcolonies. To test this, we imaged a microcolony grown as previously (Fig. 1b), but formed by *Y. enterocolitica* expressing additional VirF from plasmid. In line with this hypothesis, the resulting increase in VirF levels abolished the downregulation of T3SS activity in the center of the colony, leading to a homogenously T3SS-active microcolony (Fig. 5b, Suppl. Fig. 10).

Fig. 5 – Additional expression of the transcriptional regulator VirF at higher densities restores T3SS secretion.
a) Secretion assay showing effector secretion at $OD_{in}=0.1$ (left) and 1.5 (right). Lanes 3-6, increasing expression of VirF *in trans* (arabinose concentrations of 0.001, 0.003, 0.008, 0.03%, respectively). **b)** Confocal microscopy image of a *Y. enterocolitica* Δ*sctW* P*yopE*-*sfGFP-ssrA* microcolony additionally expressing VirF (induced by 0.2% arabinose) at 37°C. T3SS activity, visualized by the sfGFP signal, is detected throughout the colony. Scale bar, 50 µm; *n*=3 for all panels, images display representative results.

Bacterial density influences VirF levels at a post-transcriptional level via the CsrABC pathway

We next investigated how cell density influences VirF levels. VirF is encoded in the *sctG-virF* operon

(Fig. 6a). *sctG* encodes the pilotin protein, which assists the assembly of the T3SS secretin ring in the OM

[67,68], but also has additional post-assembly functions [69]. Interestingly, it is the only T3SS component

whose expression is largely VirF-independent [18,19,70]. Total proteome analysis and immunoblots

showed SctG to be significantly less affected by higher cell densities than VirF or other T3SS components

(Fig. 6b, Suppl. Fig. 11, Table 1). Fluorescence microscopy confirmed this on a single-cell basis (Fig. 6c).

These results indicate that the regulatory region directly upstream of *virF*, rather than the promoter of the

sctG-virF operon, is the target of d^{3}T3. To discriminate between transcriptional and post-transcriptional

regulation, we measured the transcript abundance of *sctG* and *virF* by quantitative reverse transcription

polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR). Mirroring the expression data, *virF* transcript levels were more

strongly reduced at higher densities than *sctG*, pointing towards a cell density-driven post-transcriptional

targeting of the *virF* mRNA (Fig. 6d). A known regulator of *virF* transcript abundance is the CsrABC pathway.

In *Yersinia*, CsrA modulates T3SS activation via *virF* transcript regulation. CsrA binds to the *sctG-virF* mRNA

intergenic region as a dimer, stabilizing the *virF* transcript by reducing its turnover rate [55,71] (Fig. 6e).

The two conserved regulatory non-coding RNAs CsrB and CsrC (Suppl. Fig. 12) sequester CsrA, preventing

it from binding and stabilizing the *virF* transcript. To investigate a possible involvement of the CsrABC

system in the d^{3}T3, we measured CsrB and CsrC levels at different densities and observed a significant

upregulation of CsrB and especially CsrC at higher bacterial densities (Fig. 6f). As CsrA levels remain

relatively constant at the different bacterial densities (Suppl. Table 4), this suggests that the subsequent

increased sequestration of CsrA by CsrC underlies the *virF* downregulation that causes d^{3}T3 at higher

bacterial densities.

Fig. 6 – Bacterial density governs T3SS activity via posttranscriptional control of the *virF* transcript.

a) Organization of the *sctG-virF* operon, bold lines depict coding regions [18,69,72], red arrows indicate the position of RT-PCR primers. **b)** Protein levels of SctG and VirF at OD_{in} 1.5 vs. 0.1 (displayed as log_2 fold change), as measured by quantitative proteomics. **c)** Fluorescence microscopy of SctG-sfGFP (top) and the VirF-dependent T3SS component mCherry-SctL, both expressed from their native genetic background, at OD_{in} = 0.1 (left) or 1.5 (right). *n*=3, micrographs display representative results. **d)** Transcript levels of *sctG* and *virF* at OD_{in} 1.5 vs. 0.1, as measured by reverse transcriptase quantitative PCR (see panel A). **e)** Schematic depiction of the influence of the CsrABC system on VirF production [26,55,73]. The regulatory RNAs CsrB and CsrC sequester CsrA, preventing it from binding and stabilizing the *virF* transcript. Expression levels of the three components of the regulatory system are linked via feedback loop mechanisms [74] (see Suppl. Fig. 13). **f)** Transcript levels of CsrB and CsrC at OD_{in} 1.5 vs. 0.1, as measured by reverse transcriptase quantitative PCR. In b), d) and f), points indicate individual biological replicates, whiskers denote standard deviation. Statistical analysis was performed using a non-parametric t-test, **, *p*<0.01.

Host-cell adhesion is affected by cell density

Adhesion to host cells is a key virulence factor for many bacterial pathogens and a prerequisite for the utilization of the T3SS. Accordingly, the trimeric *Yersinia* adhesin YadA, which is co-encoded with the T3SS on the pYV virulence plasmid, is also regulated by VirF [75,76]. In line with this co-regulation, total proteome analysis showed a strong downregulation of YadA at higher cell densities (OD_{in} 1.5) (31.3-fold, $p<10^{-6}$) (Fig. 7a) – in fact, YadA is the only non-T3SS protein within the 25 proteins most affected by the d^3T3 (Fig. 3a, Suppl. Fig. 6). To test whether this downregulation leads to a decreased adhesion to eukaryotic cells, which might promote the detachment and dissemination of bacteria at higher cell densities occurring at the later stages of infection, we performed an attachment assay to adherent HeLa cells. Indeed, bacteria incubated at higher densities prior to the assay attached significantly less than the reference ($OD_{in}=0.1$); the reduction almost mimicked the behavior of bacteria lacking *yadA*, which were used as a control (Fig. 7b). These results indicate a coordinated downregulation of T3SS activity and bacterial adhesion at higher densities.

Fig. 7 – Host-cell adhesion is significantly downregulated at higher cell densities.

a) Protein levels of YadA at OD_{in} 1.5 vs. 0.1, as measured by quantitative proteomics. Points indicate individual biological replicates, whiskers denote standard deviation. *n*=3. **b)** Attachment of wild-type (WT) or *ΔyadA* bacteria to HeLa cells at the conditions indicated ($OD_{in}=0.1$, 1.5) (displayed as fraction of attached bacteria). Points indicate individual biological replicates, whiskers denote standard deviation. Statistical analysis was performed using a non-parametric t-test **, *p*<0.01, ns, *p*>0.05.

Discussion

To establish an infection, bacterial pathogens initially need to enter the host organism and defend

themselves against the host immune system on the way to their replication niches. However, after this

initiation of infection, it is equally important for the bacteria to propagate in their niches and disseminate

to other areas of the host organism or other hosts, steps that are often less appreciated and understood.

The T3SS is a major virulence factor for important bacterial pathogens including *Salmonella*, *Shigella*,

Yersinia and pathogenic *E. coli*. Its role in the establishment of infections is well-characterized and includes

bacterial uptake and the establishment of inflammation in *Salmonella* [77], inhibition of phagocytosis and

inflammation in *Yersinia* and *Shigella* [78,79], and actin pedestal formation and colonization in pathogenic

E. coli [80]. However, presence of the T3SS may become an obstacle in the later steps of infection, because

T3SS activity severely restricts bacterial growth and division across main T3SS model organisms, including

Yersinia [26,27], *Salmonella* [32], and *Shigella* [34,81]. In this study, we set out to address this important

conundrum by investigating the formation and activity of the *Y. enterocolitica* T3SS during microcolony

formation. We found that *Yersinia* selectively activates T3SS expression and assembly only in cells at the

rim of the microcolony. The phenotype can be explained by an active downregulation of the system at

higher local densities, which we characterized in liquid cultures at controlled growth conditions. Our

findings contrast with the previous picture of a completely T3SS-positive *Yersinia* population obtained

from studies that focused on the initiation of an infection and therefore used lower cell densities

[42,45,47,48,55,77]. Proteome analysis showed that the density-dependent T3SS downregulation is a

highly specific phenotype that affects all T3SS components and the coregulated adhesion factor YadA, but

very few non-T3SS-associated proteins (Fig. 3a, Table 1, Suppl. Fig. 6, Suppl. Table 2).

We found that the density-dependent downregulation of the T3SS is mediated by a pathway involving

CsrABC and VirF, the main T3SS transcription factor in *Yersinia*. At higher bacterial densities, higher

concentrations of the regulatory RNAs CsrB and CsrC sequester the regulatory protein CsrA, which usually

stabilizes the *virF* transcript [55,71] (Fig. 8b). This leads to a gradual inhibition of the expression of VirF

and, subsequently, all T3SS components, preventing the formation of injectisomes and protein secretion

by the T3SS. The post-transcriptional nature of the effect of the CsrABC system on VirF [78] is illustrated

by the finding that while *sctG* transcript levels are reduced at higher bacterial densities, this is most likely

a secondary effect of *virF* transcript destabilization, as the effect on *virF* levels is significantly stronger

(Fig. 6b). This regulatory pathway is a main factor in the density-dependent downregulation of the T3SS,

which is highlighted by the finding that additional expression of VirF *in trans* restores T3SS activity at higher

bacterial densities and leads to homogenously T3SS-active microcolonies.

The CsrABC (carbon storage regulator) system, originally identified as a glycogen synthesis regulator in

E. coli [79] (Suppl. Fig. 13), acts as a general regulator of bacterial virulence, motility, quorum sensing and

biofilm formation via target mRNA transcript binding in many bacterial species [80–82]. Studies in

Y. pseudotuberculosis showed that the CsrABC system, which is regulated by complex feedback loops [74],

strongly affects expression of the T3SS [26,55,73]. Similar to previous studies of CsrABC-based regulation

of bacterial virulence, the precise upstream factors that convey the local bacterial density to the regulatory

RNAs remain unclear. We experimentally tested the involvement of several candidates, namely stringent

response, quorum sensing (QS), the alternative sigma factor RpoS, and factors secreted into or depleted

from the medium. There are several known links between QS and the T3SS, such as the inhibitory role of

cell-cell communication on *Vibrio harveyi* and *P. aeruginosa* T3SS at high cell density [83,84]. Furthermore,

Atkinson and colleagues provided evidence for a negative influence of QS on T3SS secretion in

Y. pseudotuberculosis during biofilm formation in *Caenorhabditis elegans* [85]. However, we found that a

Y. enterocolitica strain lacking functionality of both known QS systems still retained the d^3T3 (Fig. 4a). This

lack of influence of the QS on d^3T3 is in line with previous studies showing no effect of QS on

Y. enterocolitica T3SS regulation [56,58]. Similarly, we neither observed a significant downregulation of

T3SS activity in spent medium previously incubated at higher densities, nor a recovery of activity at high

densities upon provision of fresh medium (Fig. 3bc), showing that any potential factor in the medium that

might control T3SS activity would be short-lived.

The T3SS is an essential virulence factor for many of the pathogenic bacteria that employ it, such as

Salmonella, *Shigella* and *Yersinia*. However, its presence and activity are a double-edged sword: While the

T3SS allows to manipulate host cells and in this way to evade the immune response (reviewed in [86]), or

to ensure the bacterial entry into target cells (reviewed in [87]), its activity severely restricts the bacterial

ability to multiply. Accordingly, assembly and activity of the T3SS are tightly regulated. A striking example

is the regulated expression of the SPI-1 T3SS in *Salmonella enterica*, where the inflammation caused by

the activity of the T3SS in a fraction of bacteria leads to a clearing of bacterial competitors, allowing the

T3SS-negative siblings to fill the resulting niche [34,88,89]. A similar effect was previously not observed for

Yersinia, which is uniformly T3SS-positive at the low densities used for most laboratory experiments

[42,47,48,55]. This could be rationalized by the fact that, like in *Shigella*, the T3SS mainly provides an

individual advantage by phagocytosis and inflammation inhibition [77,90,91]. However, like other bacteria,

Yersinia needs to propagate in its niche. We hypothesize that the d^3T3, described in this study, allows

efficient bacterial replication in colonized niches and the subsequent spreading from these niches and

microcolonies. Mouse infection experiments confirmed that bacterial densities in several organs steeply

rise at later stages of infection (e.g. by about 100-fold between day 2 and day 5 [92]) and the formation of

microcolonies in the liver and spleen of infected mice [93,94], suggesting that this phenotype may be

relevant during infection. Our results partially contrast with the more uniform YopE expression (measured

as YopE-mCherry signal) that was previously shown for *Y. pseudotuberculosis* microcolonies exposed to

innate immune system cells [93]. A possible reason for this discrepancy is the higher temporal resolution

of the reporter system used in our study (P*yopE*-*sfGFP-ssrA*, Suppl. Fig. 1), which also does not interfere with

secretion, as has been shown for fusions of full-length T3SS effectors to fluorescent proteins [95]. The

complete downregulation of expression and assembly of the T3SS components shown in our experiments

further ensures that the T3SS cannot be unspecifically activated upon contact to eukaryotic cells during

this later phase of the infection and especially during dissemination.

A key aspect of the d³T3 is that besides all components of the T3SS, it also affects YadA, a trimeric

autotransporter adhesin mediating the adhesion to extracellular matrix components of eukaryotic host

cells [75,76,96] which is also part of the VirF regulon. As shown in Fig. 7, this downregulation has a striking

effect on bacterial attachment not only to each other, but also to eukaryotic cells, allowing bacteria to

detach from eukaryotic cells, possibly leading to the disintegration of the microcolonies, and preventing

reattachment during dissemination. YadA has a highly pleiotropic role during infection, leading to diverse

outcomes across *Yersinia* species. It is essential for virulence in *Y. enterocolitica*, dispensable in

Y. pseudotuberculosis, and detrimental if expressed in *Y. pestis*. In *Y. enterocolitica*, YadA contributes to

serum resistance and exhibits a primarily antiphagocytic effect in synergy with the T3SS [75,76]. The

antiphagocytic function of YadA is largely attributed to its role in mediating tight adhesion of

Y. enterocolitica to macrophages, facilitating T3SS activation and the injection of antiphagocytic effectors.

Additionally, YadA promotes autoagglutination and microabscess formation, further hindering

phagocytosis. The density-dependent downregulation of adhesion and type III secretion described in this

manuscript is therefore likely to render the disseminating bacteria more vulnerable to phagocytosis. This

raises the intriguing possibility that the density-dependent T3SS downregulation synchronizes bacterial

dissemination as a strategy to optimize infection dynamics. Importantly, the reversibility of the d³T3

(Fig. 3b) ensures that once bacteria are in a site with a lower local bacterial concentration, the T3SS can be

reassembled, a process that takes 30-60 minutes [44], sufficient to disseminate in or between hosts, but

ensuring that the T3SS is ready for the establishment of a fresh infection cycle at the new site.

In summary, we show that contrary to what was previously believed*, Y. enterocolitica* downregulates the

expression of its T3SS and the associated adhesin YadA at higher bacterial densities, such as inside

microcolonies. This specific downregulation is conveyed by the CsrABC system via the main T3SS

transcription factor VirF: Increased levels of the regulatory RNAs CsrB and especially CsrC at higher local

densities sequester CsrA and thereby destabilize the *virF* transcript. The resulting T3SS- and YadA-negative

population can multiply and disseminate, even in the presence of potential target cells, an important

aspect of bacterial virulence (Fig. 8). Future experiments may reveal whether similar mechanisms ensure

efficient replication and dissemination of *Shigella* and other T3SS-utilizing pathogens.

Fig. 8 – Influence of local higher cell density on T3SS secretion and on host-cell attachment.

a) At lower cell densities (left), *Yersinia* relies on the adhesion protein YadA (depicted in grey on the bacterial surface) and effector secretion by the T3SS (depicted in red on the bacterial surface) to colonize the host by fighting the host immune system. In a microcolony, where higher cell densities are perceived (right), *Yersinia* specifically downregulates T3SS secretion and YadA adhesion to efficiently replicate and ultimately spread and disseminate. **b)** Both adhesion and secretion are regulated by the transcription factor VirF. Upon host entry, sensed as 37°C shift, the *virF* transcript is stabilized thanks to the global mRNA regulator CsrA. The efficient binding of CsrA to *virF* mRNA and resulting expression of T3SS components are ensured by the low basal levels of the two CsrA inhibitory RNAs CsrBC [26,55,73]. At higher local cell densities, increased CsrC levels sequester CsrA, which causes a higher turnover of the *virF* transcript, leading to a decreased expression of T3SS components and YadA. The resulting decrease in adhesion and T3SS activity promotes *Yersinia* replication and dissemination at later stages of infection.

Materials & Methods

Bacterial strain generation and genetic constructs

A list of strains and plasmids used in this study can be found in Suppl. Table 5. The *Y. enterocolitica* strains

used in this study are based on the *Y. enterocolitica* wild-type strain MRS40 or its derivate IML421asd

(ΔHOPEMTasd). IML421asd lacks the major virulence effector proteins (YopH,O,P,E,M,T) and harbors a

deletion in the aspartate-beta-semialdehyde dehydrogenase gene, making the strain auxotrophic for

diaminopimelic acid (DAP) and therefore suitable for work in a biosafety class 1 environment [97].

Bacterial cultivation, secretion assay, and total protein assays

Y. enterocolitica overnight cultures were grown on a shaking incubator at 28°C in brain heart infusion

medium (BHI) supplemented with nalidixic acid (Nal, 35 µg/ml) and DAP (60 µg/ml), where required. Day

cultures (BHI supplemented with 35 µg/ml Nal, 60 µg/ml DAP where required, 20 mM MgCl$_2$, 0.4% glycerol,

and 5 mM EGTA for secreting conditions or 5 mM CaCl$_2$ for non-secreting conditions) were inoculated from

stationary overnight cultures (which typically were at an OD$_{600}$ of 12-18) to an OD$_{600}$ of 0.1, 0.3, 0.7, 1.0, or

1.5 by directly adding the required amount of the overnight culture to fresh medium. To select for the

maintenance of expression plasmids, 200 µg/ml ampicillin was added, where required. Day cultures were

incubated at 28°C for 90 min after the inoculum. Expression of the *yop* regulon was then induced by a

rapid temperature shift to 37°C. Where needed, protein expression from pBAD-His/B (Invitrogen)

derivative plasmids was induced at the temperature shift by adding 0.01–0.2% L-arabinose, as described

for the respective experiments. Unless specified otherwise, bacteria were incubated for 150-180 min after

the shift to 37°C. For secretion assays, 2 ml of the culture supernatant was harvested by centrifugation (10

min, 21,000 *g*) 180 min after the shift to 37°. Proteins in the supernatant were precipitated with 10%

trichloroacetic acid (TCA) at 4°C for 1-8 h. Precipitated proteins were collected by centrifugation (15 min,

21,000 *g*, 4°C). After washing with ice-cold acetone (1 ml), the pellets were resuspended in SDS-PAGE

loading buffer and normalized to 0.3 OD units (ODu)/15 µl for total cell analysis, or 0.6 ODu/15 µl for

secretion assays (1 ODu = 1 ml of culture at OD$_{600}$ of 1, ~ 5 x 10^8 *Y. enterocolitica*). After resuspension,

samples were incubated for 5 min at 99°C and 15 µl were applied to SDS-PAGE analysis. Protein separation

was performed on 15% SDS-PAGE gels and protein sizes were determined using the BlueClassic Prestained

Marker (Jena Biosciences) as standard. For visualization, the gels were stained with FastGene-Q-stain

(NipponGenetics). Secretion efficiency was determined in Fiji [99] by gel densitometry for the YopH band,

compared to the wild-type strain. For immunoblots, the separated proteins were transferred to a

nitrocellulose membrane. Primary mouse anti-GFP antibody (ThermoFisher Proteintech 66002-1-Ig,

1:4000) was used in combination with a secondary anti-mouse antibody conjugated to horseradish

peroxidase (GE Healthcare NXA931, 1:5000). Primary rabbit anti-mCherry antibody (BioVision 5993

1:2000) was used in combination with a secondary anti-rabbit antibody conjugated to horseradish

peroxidase (Sigma-Aldrich A8275 1:10 000). For visualization, Immobilon Forte chemiluminescence

substrate (Sigma-Aldrich) was used in a LAS-4000 Luminescence Image Analyzer.

Growth curve and promoter activity assays

For growth curves and measurements of T3SS activation via upregulation of the YopE promoter (P*yopE*-

sfGFP::ssrA), bacteria were treated as described above. After 90 min at 28°C, bacterial cultures were

aliquoted in quadruplicates into a 96-well microplate (120 µl/well). sfGFP fluorescence (excitation: 480/25

nm, emission: 535/28 nm) for P*yopE* activity assays and absorbance at 600 nm for growth curves were

measured at 37°C over time in a Tecan Infinite 200 Pro photometer. The measured absorbance was

converted into OD_{600} based on a calibration performed using the same culture volume and microtiter plate

[98].

For sfGFP::ssrA degradation kinetics measurement, bacteria were treated as described before. After 120

min at 37°C in secreting-inducing conditions (5 mM EGTA), T3SS induction was stopped by adding 10 mM

Ca^{2+}. Bacterial cultures were aliquoted in quadruplicates into a 96-well microplate and sfGFP fluorescence

was measured as indicated above.

Fluorescence Microscopy

For fluorescence microscopy, bacteria were grown as described above. After 2.5 h at 37°C, 500 µl of culture

were harvested by centrifugation (2 min, 2400 g) and resuspended in 250 µl of microscopy medium (100

mM 2-[4-(2-Hydroxyethyl)piperazin-1-yl]ethane-1-sulfonic acid (HEPES) pH 7.2, 5 mM $(NH_4)_2SO_4$, 100 mM

NaCl, 20 mM sodium glutamate, 10 mM $MgCl_2$, 5 mM K_2SO_4, 50 mM 2-(N-morpholino) ethane sulfonic acid

(MES), 50 mM glycine). 2 µl of bacterial resuspension were spotted on an agarose pad (1.5% low melting

agarose (Sigma-Aldrich) in microscopy medium, 1% casamino acids, 5 mM EGTA) in a glass depression

slide (Marienfeld). For imaging, a Deltavision Elite Optical Sectioning Microscope equipped with a

UPlanSApo 100×/1.40 oil objective (Olympus) and an EDGE sCMOS_5.5 camera (Photometrics) was used.

z stacks with 9 slices (Δz = 0.15 µm) were acquired. The GFP signal was visualized using a FITC filter set

(excitation: 475/28 nm, emission: 535/48 nm) with 0.2 s exposure time. The mCherry signal was visualized

using a mCherry filter set (excitation: 575/25 nm, emission: 625/45 nm) with 0.2 s exposure time. Images

were processed with FIJI (ImageJ 1.51f/1.52i/1.52n) [99]. Fluorescence quantification was performed in

FIJI. For visualization purposes, selected fields of view adjusted identically for brightness and contrast

within the compared image sets are shown.

Quantification of fluorescent foci

To quantify the number of stable EGFP-SctQ foci, individual *Y. enterocolitica* cells were first segmented

using the neural network StarDist [100]. The training dataset was generated by manually annotating 17

images of *Y. enterocolitica* cells grown in BHI medium and imaged on agarose pads using the Deltavision

Elite Optical Sectioning Microscope. To account for variation in the imaging plane, z-stacks with 0.15 µm

spacing were recorded, of which 5 slices were selected for network training. The resulting 85 images were

quartered, resulting in a final dataset of 300 (training) and 40 (validation) image pairs. Dataset size was

increased 4-fold during training using flipping and rotation. The StarDist model was trained for 100 epochs

via the ZeroCostDL4Mic platform [101] using a batch size of 4, 260 steps, 120 rays, grid size of 2, an initial

learning rate of 0.0003 and an train/test split of 80%/20%. The dataset and model are included in the

DeepBacs [102] collection on Zenodo (doi: 10.5281/zenodo.11105050). Foci localization was performed

using the Fiji plugin ThunderSTORM [103]. Localizations were identified using 3rd order B-Spline filtering

and local maximum approximation with a peak intensity threshold of 4-fold standard deviation of the 1st

wavelet level. For sub-pixel localization, peaks were fitted with an integrated Gaussian in a fitting radius

of 3 pixels. Finally, localizations were filtered by PSF width (sigma < 600 nm) and images were rendered as

a scatter plot with a magnification of 1. This allows for foci counting by measuring the integrated intensity

within the ROIs of segmented cells. To ensure that the foci are located within the cell outlines, each ROI

was enlarged by 2 pixels with the help of a custom-written Fiji macro. A manual of the entire procedure is

provided as Supplementary File 1.

Confocal microscopy imaging

For imaging of *Y. enterocolitica* microcolonies, 1 µl of a stationary overnight culture was spotted on an LB

plate supplemented with Nal (35 µg/ml), DAP (60 µg/ml), glycerol (0.4%), and incubated at 28°C. For

additional VirF expression, plates were supplemented with ampicillin (200 µg/ml) and Arabinose (0.2%) to

ensure maintenance and induction of the expression plasmid. After 16 h, the plate was shifted to 37°C for

4 h. For colony imaging, colonies were deposited upside down in 8-well glass-bottom slides (µ-Slide, 8-well

glass bottom; Ibidi, Gräfelfing), embedded in 250 µl of 1% low melting agarose (Sigma-Aldrich

(Taufkirchen)). Confocal z-stacks were acquired on a Zeiss LSM-880 microscope, sfGFP-expressing cells

were excited using an argon laser at 488 nm, through an LD-LCI Plan Apochromat 25x 0.8 NA multi-

immersion objective, using water as immersion liquid. Fluorescence emission was collected in the 490–

579 nm range. The pixel size (0.15 µm) and the distance between optical slices (1.18 µm) were adjusted

according to the Nyquist criterion.

Proteome analysis by shotgun proteomics-based mass spectrometry

Strains were grown and prepared as described above. After 2.5 h at 37°C, cultures were normalized to an

OD_{600} of 0.5, and 2 ml were harvested by centrifugation at 9,391 *g* for 2 min. The cells were washed three

times with ice-cold phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) (8 g/l NaCl, 0.2 g/l KCl, 1.78 g/l $Na_2HPO_4*2H_2O$, 0.24

g/l KH_2PO_4, pH 7.4) (15,000 *g*, 10 min, 4°C) and resuspended in 300 µl lysis buffer (2% sodium lauroyl

sarcosinate (SLS), 100 mM ammonium bicarbonate). Then samples were heated for 10 min at 90°C and

sonicated with a vial tweeter after heating. Proteins were reduced with 5 mM Tris(2-carboxyethyl)

phosphine (Thermo Fischer Scientific) at 90°C for 15 min and alkylated using 10 mM iodoacetamide (Sigma

Aldrich) for 30 min at 20°C in the dark. Proteins were precipitated with a 6-fold excess of ice cold acetone

and incubation for 2h at -20°C, followed by two methanol washing steps. Dried proteins were reconstituted

in 0.2% SLS and the amount of proteins was determined by bicinchoninic acid protein assay (Thermo

Scientific). For tryptic digestion, 50 µg protein was incubated in 0.5% SLS and 1 µg of trypsin (Serva) at 30°C

over night. After digestion, SLS was precipitated by adding a final concentration of 1.5% trifluoroacetic acid

(TFA, Thermo Fisher Scientific). Peptides were desalted by using C18 solid phase extraction cartridges

(Macherey-Nagel). Cartridges were prepared by adding acetonitrile (ACN), followed by equilibration with

0.1% TFA. Peptides were loaded on equilibrated cartridges, washed with 5% ACN and 0.1% TFA containing

buffer and finally eluted with 50% ACN and 0.1% TFA. Dried peptides were reconstituted in 0.1%

Trifluoroacetic acid and then analyzed using liquid-chromatography-mass spectrometry carried out on an

Exploris 480 instrument connected to an Ultimate 3000 RSLC nano and a nanospray flex ion source (all

Thermo Scientific). The following separating gradient was used: 94% solvent A (0.15% formic acid) and 6%

solvent B (99.85% acetonitrile, 0.15% formic acid) to 25% solvent B over 40 min, and an additional increase

of solvent B to 35% for 20 min at a flow rate of 300 nl/min. MS raw data was acquired on an Exploris 480

(Thermo Scientific) in data independent acquisition (DIA) mode with a method adopted from [104]. The

funnel RF level was set to 40. For DIA experiments full MS resolutions were set to 120.000 at m/z 200 and

full MS, AGC (Automatic Gain Control) target was 300% with an IT of 50 ms. Mass range was set to 350–

1400. AGC target value for fragment spectra was set at 3000%. 45 windows of 14 Da were used with an

overlap of 1 Da. Resolution was set to 15,000 and IT to 22 ms. Stepped HCD collision energy of 25, 27.5,

30% was used. MS1 data was acquired in profile, MS2 DIA data in centroid mode. Analysis of DIA data was

performed using the DIA-NN version 1.8 [105] using a *Y. enterocolitica* GenBank protein database

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore/NZ_CP011286.1) to generate a dataset-specific spectral library

for the DIA analysis. The neural network based DIA-NN suite performed noise interference correction

(mass correction, RT prediction and precursor/fragment co-elution correlation) and peptide precursor

signal extraction of the DIA-NN raw data. The following parameters were used: Full tryptic digest was

allowed with two missed cleavage sites, and oxidized methionine and carbamidomethylated cysteine

residues. Match between runs and remove likely interferences were enabled. The precursor FDR was set

to 1%. The neural network classifier was set to the single-pass mode, and protein inference was based on

genes. Quantification strategy was set to any LC (high accuracy). Cross-run normalization was set to RT-

dependent. Library generation was set to smart profiling. DIA-NN outputs were further evaluated using

the SafeQuant [106,107] script modified to process DIA-NN outputs. The mass spectrometry proteomics

data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE partner repository with the

dataset identifier PXD052013 (reviewer access with username 'reviewer_pxd052013@ebi.ac.uk' and

password 'D1OJfvZp').

Sequence analysis

The CsrB and CsrC genetic regions of *Y. enterocolitica* KNG22703 (GenBank: CP011286.1) and

Y. pseudotuberculosis YPIII (NZ_CP009792.1) [108] were compared. Alignments based on nucleotide

sequence were performed by Clustal Omega.

RT-qPCR

Total RNA from *Y. enterocolitica* cells grown as described above was extracted using the Monarch Total

RNA Miniprep Kit (New England Biolabs). A 10^9 cells pellet was first washed with 1 ml cold resuspension

buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA) and resuspended in 250 µl cold resuspension

buffer. 250 µl of lysis buffer (50 mM Tris/HCl pH 8.0, 8% Sucrose, 1% Triton X-100, 10 mM EDTA, 0.4%

lysozyme) and 800 µl of Monarch Total RNA Miniprep Kit protectant buffer were added to the

resuspension and incubated for 30 min at 4°C. After incubation, the cell suspension was incubated at 72°C

for 15 min. RNA purification was performed according to the manufacturer´s protocol. DNase treatment

was performed using Turbo DNase (Thermo Fisher Scientific), followed by enzyme removal via Monarch

RNA Cleanup Kit (New England Biolabs). cDNA was generated from 1 µg RNA using LunaScript RT SuperMix

Kit (New England Biolabs). qPCR reactions were performed on an Applied Biosystems 7500 Real-Time PCR

system using the Luna Universal qPCR MasterMix (New England Biolabs) and the primers listed in Suppl.

Table 6. The DNA gyrase subunit *gyrB* was used as an internal control [109]. Data analysis was performed

using the comparative threshold cycle (C_T) method [110].

Attachment assay

In preparation for the cell adhesion assay, HeLa cells were seeded and grown overnight in individual wells

of 24-well cell culture plates (Grainer). Cells were incubated with fresh RPMI medium supplemented with

DAP (60 µg/ml) before the addition of bacteria. After 2h in secretion-inducing conditions (37°C, 5 mM

EGTA), approximately 5 x 10^6 bacteria were added to the PBS-washed HeLa monolayer (multiplicity of

infection ~ 20) and incubated for 45 min. The attached cells were washed three times after incubation.

HeLa cells and attached bacteria were collected via trypsinization and plated on *Yersinia* selective plates

containing nalidixic acid (35 µg/ml) and DAP (60 µg/ml). After 24 h of incubation at 28°C, the number of

colony-forming units was calculated per each condition tested.

Table 1 – Density-dependent regulation of expression of T3SS components.

Label-free quantitative mass spectrometry of T3SS components in the total proteome of a ΔHOPEMTasd wild-
type strain at the different growth conditions indicated. Proteins are sorted by the ratio of intensity at OD_{in}
1.5/OD_{in} 0.1 (red shades: downregulated at OD_{in} 1.5, blue shades: upregulated at OD_{in} 1.5), which the *p* values
refer to as well. Exp.app., IM export apparatus; # pept., number of total detected peptides. Note that for some
effectors, the mutations in the ΔHOPEMTasd strain allow the detection of a subset of peptides (see Suppl. Table
5 for details). *n.d.*, not detected; imputed values were used for the statistical analysis in these cases.

Protein	Log₂ intensity ratio	*p* value	Individual log₂ intensity values						# pept.
			OD_{in} = 0.1			OD_{in} = 1.5			
Rod / washer SctI	-8.00	6.9E-08	27.30	27.79	27.78	19.42	19.56	19.89	10
Unknown T3SS-associated (ORF91A)	-7.64	1.6E-07	28.80	28.80	28.90	21.05	20.71	21.54	10
IM ring component SctD	-6.29	2.4E-05	29.83	29.83	29.89	22.59	23.72	24.38	20
Exp.app. component SctV	-6.24	2.3E-05	31.26	31.23	31.34	24.29	24.81	26.01	76
Exp.app. component SctR	-5.93	4.6E-07	25.81	25.83	25.98	*n.d.*	*n.d.*	*n.d.*	5
Effector YopO	-5.84	6.4E-06	31.16	31.23	31.24	24.63	25.83	25.65	25
Chaperone SycO	-5.64	9.1E-07	30.23	30.27	30.26	24.65	24.99	25.44	14
Translocator SctE (YopB)	-5.53	5.3E-06	33.23	33.97	33.42	27.54	28.04	28.44	39
Needle subunit SctF	-5.20	5.4E-08	30.92	30.91	30.93	25.68	25.52	25.96	13
Translocator SctA (LcrV)	-4.80	4.1E-07	33.40	33.35	33.39	28.29	28.56	28.90	58
Secretin / OM ring SctC	-4.66	2.6E-07	30.90	30.97	30.98	26.02	26.30	26.56	38
Regulator YscX	-4.59	5.4E-07	27.99	28.17	28.01	23.18	23.45	23.77	12
IM ring component SctJ	-4.59	9.2E-07	31.26	31.25	31.32	26.46	26.52	27.09	35
Chaperone YscE	-4.56	6.8E-09	29.74	29.73	29.92	25.25	25.17	25.29	13
Translocator SctB (YopD)	-4.54	7.4E-06	32.14	32.94	32.27	27.69	27.81	28.23	71
Chaperone YscB	-4.52	9.5E-07	30.65	30.60	30.78	25.83	26.15	26.49	13
Effector YopT	-4.48	7.4E-03	23.29	23.33	23.28	*n.d.*	16.56	*n.d.*	5
Chaperone YscG	-4.46	1.7E-07	29.24	29.19	29.29	24.59	24.70	25.04	8
Regulator LcrG	-4.25	1.9E-06	30.42	30.40	30.47	25.80	26.20	26.53	28
Chaperone SycT	-4.25	4.0E-07	24.33	23.33	23.41	*n.d.*	*n.d.*	*n.d.*	3
Cytosolic component SctK	-4.08	1.2E-06	28.67	28.68	28.75	24.39	24.58	24.90	18
Lipoprotein YlpA	-3.98	1.6E-06	30.97	30.94	30.90	26.89	27.28	27.50	21
Exp.app. component SctU	-3.94	2.4E-07	26.93	27.02	27.09	22.81	23.02	23.40	16
Cytosolic component SctL	-3.94	8.1E-07	29.00	29.06	29.12	24.90	25.13	25.33	16
Regulator YscY	-3.92	2.1E-06	26.31	26.29	26.40	22.55	22.09	22.60	5
Chaperone SycD	-3.87	1.6E-06	32.33	32.35	32.34	28.12	28.48	28.80	22
Transcriptional activator VirF (LcrF)	-3.70	4.7E-06	28.76	28.79	28.85	24.76	25.03	25.51	15
Cytosolic ATPase SctN	-3.56	1.1E-05	30.93	30.93	31.02	26.92	27.53	27.76	46
Effector YopQ	-3.54	1.3E-06	29.25	29.44	29.11	25.51	25.69	25.97	17
Chaperone SycN	-3.34	1.8E-07	29.71	29.65	29.97	26.39	26.42	26.51	9
Unknown T3SS-associated (ORF181)	-3.27	1.0E-08	25.65	25.60	25.70	22.87	22.86	22.80	8
Gatekeeper TyeA	-3.11	3.4E-08	29.16	29.16	29.20	25.99	26.02	26.19	9
Secreted protein YscH/YopR	-2.98	9.7E-07	27.09	27.10	26.92	24.00	23.88	24.27	5
Effector YopE	-2.47	5.2E-04	24.95	24.83	25.09	22.73	21.76	22.96	6
Needle length regulator / ruler SctP	-2.40	2.3E-05	30.30	30.37	30.36	27.59	27.97	28.26	45
Cytosolic component SctO	-2.30	1.4E-04	25.40	25.39	25.39	22.63	23.10	23.55	9
Regulator LcrR	-2.27	5.2E-07	27.41	27.43	27.55	25.11	25.14	25.33	6
Chaperone SycE	-2.10	4.5E-06	30.09	30.15	30.11	27.84	27.96	28.25	8

Exp.app. component SctT	-2.09	1.5E-02	22.65	22.34	22.24	*n.d.*	*n.d.*	*n.d.*	4
Cytosolic component SctQ	-2.06	1.1E-04	29.58	29.58	29.63	27.10	27.71	27.82	13
Pilotin SctG (YscW)	-1.90	2.4E-05	28.46	28.44	28.39	26.35	26.41	26.83	9
Secreted gatekeeper SctW (YopN)	-1.73	3.8E-04	30.68	31.00	30.70	28.66	29.10	29.42	25
Chaperone SycH	-0.02	7.4E-01	29.65	29.63	29.66	29.57	29.55	29.75	21
Secreted neg. regulator YscM1	0.81	1.4E-02	27.53	27.52	26.86	28.34	28.06	27.93	11
Secreted neg. regulator YscM2	2.36	1.1E-05	26.01	26.07	25.96	28.64	28.40	28.09	9

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