Title:

D,D-muramyl endopeptidase Spr contributes to intrinsic vancomycin resistance in

Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium

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ABSTRACT

Gram-negative bacteria are intrinsically resistant to vancomycin, a clinically important antibiotic that targets cell wall synthesis, used in the treatment of Gram-positive bacterial infections. The relative impermeability of the Gram-negative bacterial outer membrane, a feature lacking in Gram-positive bacteria, is believed to play a major role in intrinsic antibiotic resistance. Here we show that deletion of *spr*, a gene encoding a periplasmic D,D-muramyl endopeptidase involved in cell wall peptidoglycan remodeling, sensitizes the Gram-negative bacterium *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium to vancomycin by a mechanism associated with increased bacterial autolysis. A screen for suppressor mutants revealed that deletion of *tsp*, encoding a periplasmic carboxypeptidase involved in processing Spr and PBP3, restored resistance to vancomycin and reversed the autolysis phenotype. Interestingly, deletion of *tsp* alone sensitized *S.* Typhimurium to the anti-staphylococcal antibiotic novobiocin, a phenotype that was reversed by the additional deletion of *spr*. We discuss how the interplay between the activities of Spr and Tsp could explain differential sensitization to Gram-positive-specific antibiotics. In conclusion, the data imply that the activity of the periplasmic D,D-muramyl endopeptidase Spr contributes to intrinsic vancomycin resistance in *S.* Typhimurium. This suggests that developing compounds that target specific cell wall peptidases might be a path to expanding the activity spectrum of traditional Gram-positive antibiotics.

IMPORTANCE

Vancomycin is an important antibiotic that targets cell wall synthesis and is used to

treat Gram-positive bacterial infections. The intrinsic resistance of Gram-negative

bacteria to vancomycin is believed to be due to the presence of an outer membrane

that is relatively impermeable, preventing vancomycin from reaching its

periplasmic cell wall target. Here we show that inactivation of a periplasmic enzyme

called Spr, involved in peptidoglycan remodelling, sensitizes the Gram-negative

bacterium *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium to vancomycin, and does so

without increasing outer membrane permeability. Sensitization is associated with

increased autolysis and can be suppressed by inactivation of Tsp, an enzyme

involved in processing Spr and PBP3. This discovery suggests that developing

compounds that target specific cell wall peptidases, such as Spr, might be a path to

expanding the activity spectrum of traditional Gram-positive antibiotics.

INTRODUCTION

Gram-negative bacteria are characterized by having two membranes, the inner

membrane and outer membrane. The outer membrane of enterica bacteria, due to

its relative impermeability, provides an intrinsic resistance mechanism against

many antibiotics, including erythromycin (1,2), novobiocin (3), rifampicin (1), and

vancomycin (4,5), limiting their clinical usefulness to Gram-positive species.

The bacterial cell wall, located between these two membranes, is composed of

peptidoglycan (murein) and its synthesis is the target of clinically important classes

of antibiotics, such as the β-lactams and the glycopeptides (6). Peptidoglycan is a

composite mesh consisting of repeated subunits of N-actetyl-β-D-glucosamine

(GlcNAc) and N-acetyl-β-D-muramic acid (MurNAc) disaccharide, cross-linked by

peptide bridges (7). As such, peptidoglycan contributes to bacterial shape, septum

formation at the point of cell division, and maintenance of the internal turgor

pressure of the bacterial cell.

As the bacterial cell grows and divides the peptidoglycan network has to grow to

accommodate this expansion. For this, peptidoglycan needs to change its size and

shape. To enable these dynamics, various amidases, endopeptidases and

glycosylases act together with so-called penicillin-binding proteins (PBPs) to shape

the peptidoglycan (8). While the PBPs have the major responsibility of catalyzing

the formation of interpeptide bridges between overlapping GlcNAc-MurNAc

polymers to build the peptidoglycan mesh, the murein endopeptidases are tasked

with cleaving interpeptide bridges to facilitate the incorporation of new GlcNAC-
MurNAc polymers into the growing peptidoglycan mesh. The importance of
correctly balancing these opposing activities is illustrated by the fact that blocking
PBP activity in *E. coli* results in bacterial autolysis (9).

The increasing frequency of clinical isolates producing extended-spectrum β-
lactamases (ESBL) is limiting the effectiveness of antibiotics that target cell wall
synthesis amongst Gram-negative species (10). The search for new antibiotics to
treat Gram-negative bacterial infections would be advanced by a better
understanding of bacterial cell wall homeostasis at the level of peptidoglycan.
Because it is genetically amenable, *E. coli* has been the main focus for studies on the
activities of peptidoglycan-modulating enzymes. From these studies a consensus
view has emerged that, apart from PBP3 (11), each of the glycolytic and endopeptic
hydrolases are individually dispensable for bacterial viability. Accordingly,
inactivation of any one (or sometimes more than one) of the genes encoding the
enzymes (PBP4: (12–14), PBP5: (12,15–17), PBP6: (12,18), PBP6b: (19),
PBP7/PBP8: (12,20), reviewed in: (21)) does not prevent bacterial growth under
laboratory conditions. While this might imply a high degree of functional
redundancy, it does not exclude the possibility that some or all of these enzymes
may have unique functions under specific *in vivo* conditions.

A recent study (22) confirmed D,D-muramyl endopeptidase activity for three
additional *E. coli* proteins; Spr, YebA and YdhO (renamed in *E. coli* to MepS, MepM

and MepH (23)). More specifically the study presented data that Spr and YebA

might be endopeptidases with unique functions in that they were unable to

construct an Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant in *E. coli* (22).

S.almonella enterica serovar Typhimurium (referred to throughout the text as *S.*

Typhimurium) is a Gram-negative enterobacterium related to *E. coli* and *Shigellae.*

S. Typhimurium encodes proteins with high sequence similarity to the Spr, YebA,

and YdhO proteins of *E. coli* and *Shigella flexneri* (Fig. S1). Interestingly, while YdhO

of *E. coli* and *S. flexneri* are highly similar throughout their entire length (90%

similarity), YdhO of *S.* Typhimurium, diverges strongly from the others in the N-

terminal half of the protein (68% similarity for the entire length when compared to

E. coli) (Fig. S1). Considering the potential importance of Spr and YebA for viability

of *E. coli* (22), and the structural divergence of YdhO in *S*. Typhimurium compared

to the other enteric bacteria, we studied the phenotypes of *S.* Typhimurium mutants

in which these genes were deleted, either singly or in combination. Here we report

the construction and characterization of Δ*spr,* Δ*yebA* and Δ*ydhO* mutants in terms of

their growth and antibiotic susceptibility phenotypes. We report that the intrinsic

vancomycin resistance of *S.* Typhimurium requires Spr activity, but only in a Tsp

(Prc) protease-proficient background.

RESULTS

Construction of Δ*spr*, Δ*yebA* and Δ*ydhO* mutants. To assess the functional similarity of the *E. coli* MepS, MepM and MepH proteins and their *S*. Typhimurium homologues (Spr, YebA and YdhO), we constructed single and double deletion mutants of *spr*, *yebA* and *ydhO* in *S*. Typhimurium SR-11 (for details, see Materials and Methods). In agreement with previous data from *E. coli* (22) we were not successful in creating a Δ*sprΔyebAΔydhO* triple mutant.

Growth characteristics of mutants. The exponential growth rates of the *S*. Typhimurium mutants in LB and TY broth were compared to that of wild-type *S*. Typhimurium SR-11. In agreement with observations made in *E. coli* (22) none of the single or double deletion mutants revealed any significant difference in the overall shape of their growth curves (Fig. 1A and 1C). All mutants had a similar logarithmic growth rate, and reached a similar optical density in stationary phase. This also applied to the Δ*sprΔyebA* mutant, a construct of which cannot be maintained in *E. coli* without the simultaneous ectopic expression of *spr* (21).

To examine colony-forming ability, samples were taken in early log phase (2.5 hours), mid-log phase (6 hours) and stationary phase (11 hours) after inoculation of the broth cultures. The absorbance at OD_{600nm} was normalised for each of the samples after which viable counts of the samples were determined on LB agar plates. Apart from the Δ*spr* mutants all strains yielded CFU comparable to that of the wild-type at mid-log phase. All of the Δ*spr* mutants had a small reduction in CFU,

while for the ∆spr∆yebA mutant there was a much greater reduction in CFU in

relation to the normalised OD_{600nm} (Fig. 1B and 1D). We observed similar CFU

results for early log phase and stationary phase (Fig. S2B and S2D).

Taken together, these findings suggest a high degree of redundancy regarding the

Spr, and YebA endopeptidases in S. Typhimurium. However, the observation that

the ∆spr mutants were each associated with a reduced CFU yield from broth

cultures hinted at a role for Spr in colony formation, which is amplified in a

∆spr∆yebA mutant.

Figure 1. Growth characteristics of S. Typhimurium strains. Bacterial strains were diluted to an OD_{600nm} of 0.01 from overnight LB broth cultures into LB (A & E) or TY (C & G) broth where after increase in bacterial density was followed for 24 hours. Viable counts were recovered from LB (B & F) and TY (D & H) broth from mid-log phase (6 hours after inoculation). Culture samples were first diluted to an equal OD_{600nm} value, where after viable counts were determined and normalised to that of the wild-type. The graph shows the mean value and the standard error of the mean. One-way ANOVA with Dunnett's correction was used to analyze the statistical significance of the mutants compared to the wild-type (p-values; ns = $p > 0.05$, * = $p < 0.05$, ** = $p < 0.01$, **** = $p < 0.0001$).

Antibiotic and detergent sensitivities. It was previously noted that *E. coli* strains

simultaneously defective in several cell wall turnover enzymes can display an outer

membrane permeability phenotype, phenotypically observed by an increase in

sensitization to many antibiotics (21). Hence, we screened the panel of *S.*

Typhimurium mutants for altered sensitization to six different antibiotics using the

disc diffusion method. The antibiotics tested were penicillin G, novobiocin,

polymyxin B, rifampicin, tetracycline and vancomycin. As comparator strains we

used wild-type *S*. Typhimurium SR-11, and three isogenic LPS mutants known to

have an outer membrane permeability defect (24). Sensitivity testing was

conducted using low osmolarity TY medium. The rationale for this was that high

salt concentrations reduce the sensitivity of *E. coli* to selected antibiotics (25), and

that low osmolarity medium would favour expression of the more permeable outer

membrane porin OmpF (26,27), thus increasing the probability of detecting any

sensitization.

Antibiotic (⌀mm)	Vancomycin	Novobiocin	Polymyxin B	Tetracycline	Rifampicin	Penicillin G
WT	0 (100)	0	13	18	16	27 (6.25)
Δspr	13 (12.5)	0	12	17	17	27 (6.25)
ΔyebA	0 (100)	0	13	17	17	28
ΔydhO	0 (100)	0	13	16	15	26
ΔsprΔyebA	25 (3.125)	10	15	20	40	38
ΔsprΔydhO	14 (25)	0	12	16	20	28
ΔyebAΔydhO	0 (100)	0	13	16	18	27
Δtsp	0 (100)	15	14	21	18	34
ΔsprΔtsp	0 (100)	0	13	19	16	26
ΔsprΔyebAΔtsp	0 (100)	0	13	20	17	27
ΔnlpI::KanR	0	12	15	23	16	27
ΔsprΔnlpI::KanR	12	0	14	20	16	23
ΔsprΔyebAΔnlpI::KanR	17	8	14	20	19	25
ΔmepA::KanR	0	0	14	18	15	25
ΔnlpC::KanR	0	0	14	19	15	24
ΔpbpG::KanR	0	0	14	20	14	23
ΔrfaC::ChlR	25	38	42	28	35	40
ΔrfaG::KanR	17	27	35	21	28	22
ΔrfaP::ChlR	15	29	31	20	26	18

Table 1. Antibiotic sensitivity profiles. Inhibition zones in millimeters (mm) on TY agar when applied round 6 mm

Whatman 3 filter paper bits containing selected antibiotics. Numbers in parenthesis within the table are the minimum

inhibitory concentrations in μg/ml as determined from broth dilutions of the antibiotics.

As expected, the three control LPS mutants, Δ*rfaC* (*waaC*)*, Δ*rfaG* (*waaG*), and Δ*rfaP*

(*waaP*) were each sensitized to polymyxin B, novobiocin, rifampicin and

vancomycin compared to the wild-type (Table 1). The Δ*spr* mutant was strongly

sensitized to vancomycin (inhibition zone increased from 0 to 13mm) but not to

any of the other antibiotics tested. The vancomycin sensitization associated with *spr*

deletion was confirmed using a drop-on-lawn assay and MIC determinations (Table

1, Fig. 2A). Subsequent MIC determinations demonstrated that the intrinsic

vancomycin resistance of *Salmonella* was reduced 8-fold for the Δ*spr* mutant and

32-fold for the Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant, while the Δ*yebA* mutant did not show

vancomycin sensitization (Table 1). Also, the Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant revealed a

moderate increase in sensitization to penicillin G and rifampicin while the Δ*yebA*

mutant did not reveal any increase in sensitization (Table 1).

Figure 2. Drop-on-lawn visualization of vancomycin sensitivity in D,D-muramyl endopeptidase mutants. (A) Wild-type and each single and double mutants of the D,D-muramyl endopeptidases specified were 1:2 serially diluted and 5μl of each dilution was spotted on either TY agar plates as control, or TY agar plates supplemented with 20 μg/ml or 40 μg/ml of vancomycin. (B) Wild-type, Δ*spr* and Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutants harboring either vector control pBAD30, pBAD30::*spr* for full complementation or pBAD30::*sprC70S* as catalytic knockout were serially diluted and spread on TY agar plates, or TY agar plates supplemented with 20 μg/ml or 40 μg/ml of vancomycin, either containing L-arabinose or not.

Next we introduced the Δ*spr* mutation into *S.* Typhimurium SL1344 and 14028s and

assayed for vancomycin sensitivity by MIC determination. The MIC for the wild-

type and Δ*spr* mutant in both *S.* Typhimurium SL1344 and 14028s was identical to

the MIC previsouly measured for the wild-type and Δ*spr* mutant of *S.* Typhimurium

SR-11 (100μg/ml and 12.5 μg/ml respectively), thus showing that the vancomycin

sensitivity of the Δ*spr* deletion is not restricted to the SR-11 background.

In *E. coli* overproduction of PBP7 suppresses thermosensitive growth associated

with a *mepS* (*spr*) mutation (28), suggesting that PBP7 and MepS may function in

parallel pathways. We deleted *pbpG*, coding for the PBP7 homologue in *S.*

Typhimurium yet the Δ*pbpG* mutant was not sensitized to any of the antibiotics in

the test panel (Table 1). We also created deletion mutants for the *mepA* and *nlpC*

homologues in *S*. Typhimurium, each coding for endopeptidases related to Spr (8).

Neither of the two mutations resulted in any increased sensitization to the

antibiotics in the test panel (Table 1).

To further evaluate potential cell wall defects in the Δ*spr* and Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutants,

we tested their sensitivity to a detergent by incubating them in 0.5% sodium

deoxycholate (DOC). In this assay the Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant revealed a clear

sensitization to DOC exposure (Fig. 3A).

The outer membrane protein profile of a Gram-negative bacteria can affect its

antibiotic sensitivity (29). Thus we compared outer membrane protein profiles of

the wild-type, Δ*spr* and Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutants on SDS-PAGE gels. We did not observe

any significant difference in outer membrane protein profile for the mutants as

compared to the wild-type (Fig. 3B), arguing that the increased vancomycin

sensitization is not caused by a major outer membrane disruption.

Figure 3. Detergent sensitivity and membrane protein profile of D,D-muramyl endopeptidase mutants. (A) For

probing detergent sensitivity 10^5 bacteria of each strains was incubated in 0.5% DOC for 30 min, where after the bacterial

viable colonies were enumerated. Results are presented as relative CFU yield in relation to the wild-type. The graph shows the

mean value and the standard error of the mean of at least three independant replicates. (B) SDS-PAGE gel revealing the outer

membrane protein profiles of the wild-type and mutant strains. The positions of pre-stained molecular weight markers are

indicated at the right. The standard used is PageRuler Prestained Protein Ladder (#26616, Thermo Scientific).

We conclude that the lack of Spr, but not the endopeptidases YebA, YdhO, PBP7,

MepA or NlpC, results in sensitization to vancomycin in an otherwise intrinsically

resistant *S.* Typhimurium. Sensitization to vancomycin does not appear to reflect a

general outer membrane permeabilization in the Δ*spr* mutant, while the additional

increase in sensitization of the Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant might be a in part a consequence

of an additional outer membrane destabilisation as evidenced by the sensitization

to detergent, novobiocin and rifampicin.

Genetic complementation of Δ*spr* mutants. We used genetic complementation to

confirm the contribution of *spr* to the intrinsic vancomycin resistance of *S.*

Typhimurium. We cloned the *spr* gene from *S*. Typhimurium SR-11 under the

control of the arabinose-inducible promoter in the vector pBAD30. We also

generated a point mutation in this plasmid replacing the codon for the conserved

catalytic Spr cysteine (Fig. S1) with a codon for serine, creating a C70S mutation in

the mature protein (22,30). Introducing the cloned native *spr* gene into either the

Δ*spr* or Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant fully restored vancomycin resistance, whereas the

plasmid coding for a catalytically inactive Spr variant did not do so (Fig. 2B). We

concluded that Spr is required for the intrinsic vancomycin resistance of *S.*

typhimurium and that this phenotype is dependent on the expression of a

catalytically active Spr.

The Δ*spr* mutation promotes autolysis. When counting CFU from liquid cultures

of the Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant on LB agar plates we noted that the colonies of the

ΔsprΔyebA mutant were visibly smaller in size compared to wild-type (Fig. 4A). This

led us to assess the number of viable bacteria in the colonies. We suspended

individual colonies of wild-type, Δspr and ΔsprΔyebA mutants in PBS, normalized

the OD_{600nm} and counted CFU from each suspension. In doing this, we noted a small

reduction in CFU for the Δspr mutant, and substantial reduction in CFU for the

ΔsprΔyebA mutant (Fig. 4B).

To further assess the significance of the smaller colonies with regards to bacterial

viability we suspended colonies in PBS and analyzed the supernatants for proteins

by SDS PAGE and protein staining. The supernatant of the Δspr mutant was similar

to that of the wild-type, while the profile of the ΔsprΔyebA mutant showed evidence

of bacterial lysis (Fig. 4C).

Figure 4. Growth characteristics and autolysis of the ΔsprΔyebA mutant on LB agar plate. (A) The size of the bacterial colonies. Bacterial colonies imaged with a Samsung Galaxy 8S smartphone. The shine on the colonies does not reflect mucosity of colonies, only the reflection of light during imaging. (B) Relative viable counts. Colonies were first diluted to an equal OD_{600nm} value, where after viable counts were determined and normalised to that of the wild-type. The graph shows the mean value and the standard error of the mean of at least three independant replicates.. One-way ANOVA with Dunnett's correction was used to analyze the statistical significance of the mutants compared to the wild type (p-values; * = p < 0.05, **** = p < 0.0001). (C) SDS-PAGE protein gel profiles of corresponding bacteria-free supernatant. The positions of pre-stained molecular weight markers are indicated at the right. The standard used is PageRuler Prestained Protein Ladder (#26616, Thermo Scientific).

The indicative bacterial lysis of the Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant (Fig. 4C) suggested that the

mutant had an autolytic phenotype. To quantify lysis we introduced a plasmid,

pKTH3088 constitutively expressing *E. coli* β–galactosidase, into the wild-type, and

the Δ*spr* and Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutants of *S*. Typhimurium. β–galactosidase is a

cytoplasmic enzyme and would be released into the medium in the event of lysis.

This release was measured by the enzymatic activity of the β–galactosidase and

quantified as the relative amount of autolysis for the wild-type and mutant strains.

We first performed β-galactosidase activity assays as a function of increasing

concentrations of penicillin G. Both the wild-type and Δ*spr* mutant reached a similar

plateau level of β-galactosidase activity (Fig. 5A). However, the kinetics of β-

galactosidase release were different, with the Δ*spr* mutant releasing more β-

galactosidase at lower concentrations (2 and 4 μg/ml) of penicillin G than the wild-

type (Fig. 5A), even though both strains had a similar MIC for penicillin G (Table 1).

For the Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant the trend for penicillin G-induced β-galactosidase release

was more pronounced when compared to the wild-type, but also reached a similar

plateau as the wild-type at higher concentrations of penicillin G (Fig. 5B). We then

conducted similar lysis experiment replacing penicillin G with vancomycin. β-

galactosidase activity was released substantially more from the Δ*spr* and Δ*spr*Δ*yebA*

mutants at lower vancomycin concentrations, reflecting their lower MIC for

vancomycin (Fig. 5C and 5D).

Figure 5. Antibiotic induced autolysis. Release of cytoplasmic β-galactosidase in the presence of increasing concentrations of pencillin G (A & B) or vancomycin (C & D) after 1 hour of incubation at 37°C. Graph presents the mean values and standard error of the mean of at least three independent replicates. The statistics between mutants and wild-type are presented in Figure S4.

In *E. coli*, blocking protein synthesis prevents penicillin-induced autolysis (9,31). We found that the addition of tetracycline to the medium prevented both penicillin G-induced and vancomycin-induced release of β-galactosidase from the wild-type and the Δ*spr* and Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutants (Fig. S3). This implied that the release of β-galactosidase observed in the presence of the antibiotics was indeed due to autolysis.

Thus, the Δ*spr* and Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutants express an autolytic phenotype that correlates with their sensitivity to vancomycin and is indicative of a mechanistic

explanation for the vancomycin sensitization. The greater autolytic propensity of

the Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant, when compared to the Δ*spr* mutant, is likely also the

explanation for the relatively smaller colony size, reduced CFU yield, and the

supernatant protein profile of the Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant (Fig. 4).

Isolation of Δ*spr* vancomycin resistant suppressor mutations. Vancomycin-

tolerant mutants were selected in the Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* background using a vancomycin

gradient TY agar plate. Twelve independent vancomycin-tolerant mutants were

analyzed by whole genome sequencing. Eleven of the twelve mutants carried

deletions covering the same region (nucleotides 1,920,000 - 1,965,000) in the *S.*

Typhimurium LT2 reference genome (Fig. 6A). At the centre of this region is *tsp*,

encoding a periplasmic carboxypeptidase. The remaining suppressor mutant

carried a point mutation within *tsp* itself (Fig. 6A). These data suggest that

inactivation of *tsp* is the common feature of mutations that suppress the

vancomycin sensitivity phenotype of the Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant.

To confirm the *tsp* mutations as suppressors, we deleted *tsp* in the Δ*spr*Δ*yebA*

mutant, as well as the individual genes that mapped upstream and downstream of

tsp (*proQ* and *htpX*) in the Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant. Out of these constructs only deletion

of *tsp* generated a vancomycin resistant phenotype in the Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant (Table

1, Fig. 6B). In addition, when the *tsp* deletion was introduced into the Δ*spr* mutant it

converted the phenotype from vancomycin-sensitive to vancomycin-resistant

(Table 1, Fig. 6B). Conversely, when a cloned *tsp* gene was introduced into the

vancomycin resistant Δ*spr*Δ*tsp* and Δ*spr*Δ*yebA*Δ*tsp* mutants the phenotypes of each

were converted to vancomycin-sensitive (Fig. 6C).

Figure 6. Suppression of vancomycin sensitivity in Δ*spr* mutant backgrounds. (A) Genomic visualization of vancomycin tolerant suppressor mutations with the bars representing genomic deletions, except for *tsp* T479R where the bar points to the position of a point mutation. (B) Drop-on-lawn visualization of vancomycin tolerance using a defined Δ*tsp* mutation. Wild-type, Δ*tsp,* Δ*spr* and Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant, and their Δ*tsp* suppressed mutants were 1:2 serially diluted and 5μl of each dilution was spotted on either TY agar plates as control, or TY agar plates supplemented with 20 μg/ml or 40 μg/ml of vancomycin. (C) Wild-type and the Δ*tsp* suppressed mutants harboring either vector control pBAD30 or full complementation pBAD30::*tsp* were serially diluted and spread on TY agar plates, or TY agar plates supplemented with 20 μg/ml or 40 μg/ml of vancomycin, either containing L-arabinose or not.

The Δ*tsp* mutation also reverted the general antibiotic sensitization of the Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant (Table 1). Furthermore, the smaller colony size, reduced CFU, and supernatant protein profile, were restored to wild-type patterns in a Δ*spr*Δ*yebA*Δ*tsp* mutant (Fig. 4, 1F, 1H, S2H and S2F). In addition, introduction of the *tsp* deletion into the Δ*spr* and Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutants suppressed the autolysis by reducing their release of β-galactosidase in the presence of penicillin G or vancomycin (Fig. 5). Thus, a *tsp* deletion acted as a general suppressor mutation for Δ*spr* and Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant phenotypes.

In *E. coli*, Tsp co-purifies with the outer membrane lipoprotein NlpI, which assists Tsp in degrading MepS (Spr) (23). Furthermore, *nlpI* deletions suppress a temperature-sensitive phenotype of an *E. coli* Δ*mepS* mutant (32) implying a functional connection between Tsp, NlpI and MepS in *E. coli*. We deleted *nlpI* in the *S.* Typhimurium Δ*spr* and Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutants to test whether this would affect the antibiotic sensitivity profile of the mutants. In this, the Δ*nlpI*Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant retained vancomycin sensitivity (Table 1).

An *spr* deletion acts as a suppressor for Δ*tsp* mutant phenotypes. In agreement with the published phenotype of an *E. coli tsp* mutant (33), also the *S.* Typhimurium Δ*tsp* mutant was sensitized to novobiocin (Table 1). Additionally, we noted a marked detergent sensitization when incubating the Δ*tsp* mutant in 0.5% sodium deoxycholate (DOC); only occasionally were we able to retrieve colonies from a suspension of 10^5 Δ*tsp* mutant bacteria in 0.5% DOC, which is approximately a 200-fold reduction in retrieved colonies when compared to the Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant for the same DOC exposure. The Δ*tsp*-associated novobiocin and DOC sensitivity were reverted in the Δ*spr* and Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutants (Table 1, Fig. 3A). We also noted that the Δ*tsp* mutant had a slower growth rate in TY broth (Fig. 1G), compared to LB broth (Fig. 1E), which was slightly suppressed by an Δ*spr* mutation (Fig. 1G). The Δ*nlpI* mutant was also sensitized to novobiocin, a sensitization that was suppressed in both the Δ*nlpI*Δ*spr* and Δ*nlpI*Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutants (Table 1).

DISCUSSION

Intrinsic antibiotic-resistance barrier is associated with the outer membrane

and LPS. In enteric Gram-negative bacteria, the outer membrane is believed to act

as a major barrier contributing to their intrinsic resistance to antibiotics. This

includes resistance to novobiocin and vancomycin that typically are only active on

Gram positive bacteria (34,35). Alterations that disrupt this barrier function have

been shown to sensitize enteric bacteria to such compounds (24).

Lipopolysaccharide attached to the outer membrane contributes to outer

membrane integrity and mutations in genes involved in LPS biosynthesis, including

envA, *rfaC* (*waaC*), and *rfaP* (*waaP*), sensitize Gram-negative bacteria

simultaneously to numerous antimicrobials (34,35). Outer membrane integrity can

also be disturbed by the expression of aberrant outer membrane proteins (36), or

by exposing bacteria to polymyxin B nonapetide (37,38), a compound which lacks

intrinsic bacteriocidal activity.

A periplasmic enzyme, Spr, contributes to intrinsic vancomycin resistance. In

this study we examined the growth and antibiotic susceptibility phenotypes

associated with mutations in three different periplasmic proteins involved in cell

wall synthesis in *S*. Typhimurium: the D,D-muramyl endopeptidases, Spr, YebA and

YdhO. We generated single and all combinations of double mutants lacking Spr,

YebA and YhdO. In this we noted that Δ*spr* and Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutants became

sensitized to vancomycin, having their MIC values decreased 8-fold respective 32-

fold relative to the MIC value of the wild-type (Table 1). For each of the two deletion

mutants, vancomycin tolerance was fully restored by ectopic expression of a wild-

type *spr* gene, but not by expression of an allele coding for a catalytically inactive

Spr (Fig. 2B). This results support the conclusion that Spr endopetidase activity

contributes to intrinsic vancomycin tolerance in *S*. Typhimurium. A contribution to

intrinsic vancomycin resistance was not a general feature of D,D-muramyl

endopeptidases because deleting yebA or yhdO, even in combination, did not result

in sensitization to vancomycin (Table 1, Fig. 3A). Nor did deletion of genes coding

D,D-muramyl endopeptidases MepC, NlpC or PBP7 result in vancomycin

sensitization (Table 1).

Possible explanation for sensitization. A rational explanation for vancomycin

sensitization associated with Δ*spr* mutations could be that they indirectly affect

outer membrane integrity. However, while the Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant showed evidence

of increased outer membrane permeability (increased sensitivity to novobiocin and

rifampicin), the Δ*spr* mutant did not show any similar sensitization to the other

antibiotics tested (Table 1). Also, the antibiotic sensitization profile of the

Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant differed from that of isogenic *ΔrfaC, ΔrfaG* and *ΔrfaP* LPS

mutants known to have defective outer membrane integrity, suggesting an

alternative mechanism for the vancomycin sensitization in the Δ*spr* and Δ*spr*Δ*yebA*

mutants.

Evidence of autolysis as a mechanism. As in *E. coli* (22), the single and double

mutants carrying Δ*spr,* Δ*yebA* and Δ*ydhO* had similar exponential growth rates in LB

broth (Fig. 1A and 1C). However, we noted that in terms of plating efficacy on LB

agar plates, the Δ*spr* and Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutants gave lower CFU yields relative to the

wild-type or the other mutants (Fig. 1B and 1D). In addition, the Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant

grew to a notably smaller colony size than the wild-type (Fig. 4A). SDS-PAGE

analysis of supernatants from the different strains suggested autolysis of the

Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant on plate as an explanation for the smaller colony size (Fig. 4C).

To further probe whether the autolytic behaviour of Δ*spr* and Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutants,

we assayed the release of β-galactosidase from cells exposed to antibiotics

inhibiting peptidoglycan synthesis. Upon exposure to increasing concentrations of

penicillin G or vancomycin, we noted an increased release of β-galactosidase from

the Δ*spr* and Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutants with increasing antibiotic concentrations when

compared to the wild-type (Fig. 5). The highest concentration of penicillin G

resulted in a similar plateu of β-galactosidase release wild-type as well as for Δ*spr*

and Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant strains (Fig. 5A and 5B). The greater release of β-

galactosidase with increasing concentration of vancomycin by the Δ*spr* and

Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutants (Fig. 5C and 5D) most likely reflect their lower MIC to this

antibiotic compared to the wild-type. However, the differences between the wild-

type and the Δ*spr* mutant cannot be explained by a dissimilar sensitivity to

penicillin G resulting in different lysis, as both the wild-type and the Δ*spr* mutant

have the same MIC for penicillin G (Table 1).

Studies in *E. coli* have shown that prevention relies on active protein synthesis. We

tested this in S. Typhimurium and found, as predicted, that addition of tetracycline

into our β-galactosidase release assay prevented release of the enzyme both in the

wild-type and the Δ*spr* and Δ*sprΔyebA* mutant (Fig. S3). All this makes us conclude

that the Δ*spr* mutants have an increased propensity for autolysis when treated with

either penicillin G or vancomycin.

Suppressor screen identifies involvement of carboxypeptidase Tsp. A screen

for suppressor mutations restoring vancomycin resistance in the Δ*spr* mutants

identified *tsp* as a candidate suppressor (Fig. 6A). Tsp is a periplasmic

carboxypeptidase that has been shown *in vitro* in *E. coli* to cleave MepS (Spr) in the

presence of the outer membrane lipoprotein NlpI (23). The suppressor character of

the selected Δ*tsp* mutations was confirmed by deleting *tsp* in the Δ*spr* and

Δ*sprΔyebA* mutants and showing that the antibiotic sensitization profiles were

restored to wild-type levels in each of the mutants (Table 1). In addition to

promoting Tsp cleave Spr *in vitro,* NlpI also binds to Tsp and participates in the

proteolytic maturation of penicillin-binding protein 3 (PBP3) (39). Nevertheless,

deletion of *nlpI* did not substitute the *tsp* deletion as a suppressor for Δ*spr*-

associated vancomycin sensitization (Table 1) indicating a functional connection

between Tsp and Spr in intrinsic vancomycin tolerance without involvement of

NlpI.

Deletion of *tsp* also restored normal colony size, and reversed the autolytic

behaviour of the Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant (Fig. 4). Based on the selection of suppressor

mutations in *tsp* we further suggest that the activity of carboxypeptidase Tsp

connects to the altered autolytic behaviour of Δ*spr* and Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutants. A caveat

to this suggestion would be involvement of an essential gene, not being detected in

our genetic screen for suppressor mutations. One such possible candidate could be

PBP3, which is processed by Tsp in *E. coli* (39,40). In such an event one could rather

envision that some of the Tsp-processed forms of PBP3 rather than Tsp itself causes

autolysis in the absence of Spr.

Overall, our findings suggest that the barrier maintaining intrinsic resistance to

vancomycinin in *S*. Typhimurium depends on the relative activities of periplasmic

endopeptidases. These results add to our knowledge of the dynamics of the

bacterial cell wall synthesis and remodelling, and importantly suggest that targeting

such enzymes in addition to PBPs open up a path potentiating the activity of

classical antibiotics used against Gram-positive bacteria.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains. All mutant strains are isogenic to *Salmonella enterica* serovar

Typhimurium SR-11 (41) and are listed in Table S1. The strains LB5010 (42) and

ATCC 14028s were used as intermediary hosts in creating mutations. Furthermore,

S. Typhimurium strains ATCC 14028s and SL1344 were also used to host a Δ*spr*

mutation.

Media and growth conditions. Growth media included tryptone and yeast extract

(Sigma-Aldrich, 10 g/l respective 5 g/l) with 10 g/l of NaCl (LB medium), or without

NaCl (TY medium). Cultures were incubated at 37°C unless otherwise stated. When

needed, antibiotics were added to the growth media at the following

concentrations: ampicillin 100 µg/ml; chloramphenicol 25 µg/ml; kanamycin 50

µg/ml; tetracycline 10 µg/ml. All antibiotics were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich

(Sweden).

For determining growth curves, bacteria were incubated overnight in 2ml LB at

220rpm. The next day 150µl of the culture was mixed with 850µl of PBS and the

OD_{600nm} measured. The bacteria were then adjusted to an OD_{600nm} of 0.25. From this

OD_{600nm} the bacteria were then diluted 1:25 in either LB or TY broth resulting in a

final OD_{600nm} of 0.01. 400µl of diluted bacterial suspension was then loaded into

wells in a Honeycomb Bioscreen plate (OY Growth Curves AB LTd, Helsinki,

Finland) in three technical replicates. Uninoculated media was used as a negative

growth control. The Bioscreen C plate reader (OY Growth Curves AB Ltd) was set to

an OD of 600nm and optical density measurement was taken every 15 min with 5 s

of agitation before every measurement.

PCR and oligonucleotides. PCR was performed using an Eppendorf Mastercycler

Personal. Oligonucleotides were designed using the genome of *S.* Typhimurium LT2

as reference. For the generation of the inserts for gene knockouts the PCR was

performed using Phusion High-Fidelitiy PCR master mix with HF buffer (New

England Biolabs, USA). The cycling conditions were as following: 98°C for 1 min and

30 cycles of 98°C for 15 s, 54.5°C for 10 s, 72°C for 40 s, and 72°C for 2 min.

For routine diagnostic PCR, Phusion High-Fidelitiy PCR master mix with HF buffer

was used. The cycling conditions were as follows: 98°C for 1 min and 30 cycles of

98°C for 15 s, annealing temperature for 10 s, 72°C for elongation time, and 72°C for

2 min. Annealing temperature varied depending on the primer pairs used, and

elongation time was based on the length of the expected product (30 s per kb).

Oligonucleotide sequences are shown in Table S2.

Bacteriophage transduction. Phage P22*int* was that of Schmieger (43).

Transducing phages were prepared on strain LB5010 (in LB broth supplemented

with D-galactose (Fluka BioChemika) to 0.2% (wt/vol)), or 14028s carrying the

mutation of interest. The next day 200µl of chloroform was added to the culture and

the culture was vortexed. The culture was then centrifuged for 10 min at 18500 g to

create phase separation. The top phase was recovered and used to transfer the

genetic marker. The transduction into *S.* Typhimurium SR-11 was done by

incubating 20μl of the P22*int* phage containing the genetic marker with 1ml of

exponential phase culture. These were incubated at 37°C with shaking at 220rpm

for 1 hour before plating onto selective LB agar plates.

Construction and isolation of mutants. The antibiotic marker amplified from

either pKD3 (Chl^R) or pKD4 (Kan^R) was in inserted into the chromosome, to replace

the gene of interest, by double-stranded DNA lambda-red recombineering (44,45).

S. Typhimurium strain LB5010 containing the pSIM6, or *S.* Typhimurium strain

14028 containing pSIM5-tet, plasmid was grown to an OD$_{600nm}$ of approximately 0.3

at 32°C with shaking at 220rpm in a water bath. To induce the lambda-red genes

the bacteria were transferred to a 42°C water bath shaking at 220rpm for 15 min.

After cooling on ice for 10 min, the cells were made electrocompetent by washing

with ice-cold water four times.

Electroporation of the resistance genes from pKD3 or pKD4 was done using a Gene

Pulser (Bio-Rad, USA) by mixing 25μl of electrocompetent cells and 0.5μl of purified

PCR product, with settings 1.8 kV, 25 F and 200Ω. Cells were recovered in 1ml of LB

at 32°C and 220rpm for 2 hours. After recovery the culture was spun down and the

pellet was spread on LB agar plates containing either chloramphenicol or

kanamycin to select for recombinants. The genetic marker was subsequently

transferred to wild-type *S.* Typhimurium SR-11 by phage P22*int* transduction from

either the LB5010 or 14028 mutant strains.

Antibiotic markers were removed from the mutants using the plasmid pCP20.

Briefly, pCP20 was transferred by P22*int* transduction to the recipient strain

containing the antibiotic marker, with selection for colonies on LB agar plates

containing ampicillin. Transductants were subcultured three times at 28°C on

selective LB agar plates. The bacteria were then subcultured three more times at

37°C to select for loss of plasmid and loss of antibiotic marker. The loss of the

antibiotic marker was confirmed by diagnostic PCR.

Isolation of vancomycin-tolerant Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutants was conducted by spreading a

LB broth culture of the Δ*spr*Δ*yebA* mutant on a vancomycin gradient TY agar plate.

In this, a plate of 14cm in diameter was poured in a tilted position with 37.5ml of TY

agar containing vancomycin at 40 µg/ml. After solidification, another plain 37.5ml

TY agar was poured on top of the solidified TY agar containing vancomycin, now in

a horizontal position. After 16 hours of incubation yielded colonies were isolated at

the higher concentration end of the gradient.

Plasmid constructions and site-directed mutagenesis. For creating plasmids for

genetic complementation, *spr* and *tsp* were PCR amplified using *S*. Typhimurium SR-

11 genomic DNA as template, using oligonucleotide primers to create suitable

restriction sites at each end of the amplified fragment. Enzymes used for restriction

digestion were SacI or EcoRI, and HindIII (New England Biolabs) while T4 DNA

ligase was used to ligate *spr* fragments into vector pBAD30 (46). Reaction buffers

were provided by the enzyme supplier. Following ligation, plasmids were

transformed (as above) into chemically competent *E.coli* TG1 or Top10 cells

(Invitrogen) from where the construct was purified and electroporated (as above)

into *S.* Typhimurium LB5010. The plasmid was then transferred into the correct

strain background of *S.* Typhimurium SR-11 by P22*int* transduction.

Whole-genome sequencing and analysis. Genomic DNA was prepared from

bacterial cultures using a Masterpure DNA Purification Kit (Epicentre). Libraries for

sequencing were prepared using Nextera XT sample preparation and index kits

(Illumina). The quality of libraries was assessed using a Tapestation 2200 (Agilent)

with high-sensitivity D5000 Screentape. Sequencing of the libraries was done using

a Miseq device (Illumina) using a 600-cycle V3 reagent kit. The sequences were

processed and analyzed using CLC Genomics Workbench 9.0.1 (CLC bio).

Deoxycholate (DOC) sensitivity test. To assay detergent sensitivity, bacteria were

diluted 1:100 in LB from an overnight culture, and grown in LB for 2 hours at 37°C

with shaking at 220rpm. The OD_{600nm} of the culture was measured, and the formula

$((0.484/OD_{600nm})$ x 2.1) used to adjust the amount of bacteria to obtain

approximately 10^7 CFU/ml. The bacterial suspension was then diluted 1:100 in

distilled water with sodium deoxycholate (DOC; Sigma-Aldrich, Sweden) freshly

added to a final concentration of 0.5% (wt/vol). After an incubation of 30 min at

room temperature, viable counts were determined from the DOC-suspension by

plating dilutions on LB agar plates.

SDS-PAGE gel electrophoresis. Polyacrylamide-bis-acrylamide gel electrophoresis

was conducted according to Laemmli (47), using custom made a 12.5% separation

(pH 8.8) and a 6% stacking gel (pH 6.8). (Thermo Scientific, Sweden). For

solubilisation, samples were suspended in reducing protein sample buffer (0.125 M

Tris-HCl pH 6.5, 3.6% SDS, 10% mercaptoethanol, 2% glycerol, and bromphenol

blue enough to give a deep blue color) and heated 10 minutes at 97°C before

application on the gel. After completed electrophoresis, gels were stained using

Imperial stain.

Bacterial membrane fractionation. The outer membrane fraction was isolated

according to Sabet and Schneitman (48). Bacteria from overnight LB cultures were

diluted 1:100 into TY broth and grown at 37°C for approximately 2 hours to mid

exponential phase. The OD_{600nm} of the bacterial cultures were measured and then

normalised. Bacteria were pelleted by centrifugation at 6000 g for 10 min, re-

suspended in PBS, cooled on ice, and disrupted by equal numbers of 10 s sonication

pulses until the suspensions visibly cleared. Bacteria were removed by low–speed

centrifugation (1500 g), after which the membrane fraction was pelleted by high-

speed centrifugation (18500 g, 10 min). The waxy brownish pellet was then re-

suspended in 50mM Tris-HCl buffer containing 10mM $MgCl_2$ and 0.5% Triton X-

100. The membrane fraction was again pelleted by centrifugation (18500 g, 10

min), and the re-suspension and high-speed centrifugation steps were repeated.

The final colourless pellet was then

Measuring bacterial lysis. To quantify bacterial lysis, colonies grown overnight on

LB agar plates (18 hours at 37°C) were suspended in PBS, with adjustment to the

same OD_{600nm}. Bacteria were removed from the suspension by centrifugation (2 x

18500 g). The supernatant was made 10% (wgt/vol) in trichloroacetic acid (Sigma-

Aldrich), and incubated at -20°C overnight. The samples were then thawed, mixed,

centrifuged at 18500 g and washed with ice-cold acetone. The acetone phase was

carefully removed by pipetting and the tubes dried at 37°C for 15 min. The samples

were then processed for SDS-PAGE analysis as described above.

Disk diffusion. Bacteria were grown overnight in LB broth at 37°C and 220rpm.

The overnight culture was diluted 1:100 in LB broth and grown for 2 hours at 37°C

and 220rpm. The OD_{600nm} was measured of the 2 hour culture and the formula

$((0.484/OD_{600nm})$ x 2.1) was used to calculate the amount of bacteria needed for 10^6

CFU/ml. 3 x 10^5 CFU/ml bacteria were then spread on large ($\oslash$13.7 cm) TY agar

plates and the antibiotic disks were placed on top of the bacteria and the plates

were incubated overnight at 37°C. The next day the diameters of the inhibitory

zones were measured.

The disk, 6mm in diameter, were custom-made out of Whatman 3 paper. Each disk

was infused with 5µl of an antibiotic. Concentrations of the antibiotics used were;

tetracycline 10 µg/ml, vancomycin 20 µg/ml, rifampicin 10 µg/ml, polymyxin B 10

µg/ml, novobiocin 10 µg/ml, and penicillin G 10 µg/ml (Sigma-Aldrich, Sweden).

Every antibiotic was dissolved in water except rifampicin, which was dissolved in

DMSO.

MIC determination. Bacteria were grown overnight in LB broth at 37°C and

220rpm. The overnight culture was diluted 1:100 in LB broth and grown for 2 hours

at 37°C and 220rpm. The OD_{600nm} was measured of the 2 hour culture and the

formula $((0.484/OD_{600nm}) \times 2.1)$ was used to calculate the amount of bacteria

needed for 2×10^4 CFU/ml in TY broth. This dilution was subsequently pipetted into

a 96-well plate, containing TY broth with either vancomycin or penicillin G,

resulting in a final concentration of 10^4 CFU/ml bacteria. The highest concentration

for the vancomycin MIC serie was 100 µg/ml and 50 µg/ml for penicillin G. Each

serie was diluted 1:2 from the highest concentration.

Drop-on-lawn. Bacteria were grown overnight in LB broth at 37°C and 220rpm.

The overnight culture was diluted 1:100 in LB broth and grown for 2 hours at 37°C

and 220rpm. The OD_{600nm} was measured of the 2 hour culture and the formula

$((0.484/OD_{600nm}) \times 2.1)$ was used to calculate the amount of bacteria needed for 10^6

CFU/ml. From 10^6 CFU/ml a 1:2 serial dilution series was made into 1ml PBS. From

each dilution a 5µl droplet was pipetted onto TY agar plates containing none, 20

µg/ml, or 40 µg/ml vancomycin and the TY agar plates were incubated overnight at

37°C. For genetic complementation tests TY agar plates were supplemented with

0.02% (wgt/vol) L-arabinose (Sigma-Aldrich, Sweden).

Viable counts from broth. Viable counts were enumerated by taking bacteria from

a replicate honeycomb in the bioscreen during the growth curves. 100µl was

removed from one well in the honeycomb and added to 900µl PBS at time points 2.5

hours, 6 hours, and 11 hours of the OD_{600nm} was measured. The measurements were

used to calculate how much bacteria to take for 10^6 CFU/ml. This suspension was

further 1:10 serially diluted to an estimated 10^3 CFU/ml from which 100µl was

spread in triplicates for 10^2 CFU on each LB agar plate. The LB agar plates were

incubated overnight at 37°C and the CFU for the triplicates were calculated and the

average was obtained and normalised to wild-type.

Viable counts from plate. Viable counts were enumerated by growing bacteria

overnight at 37°C on a LB agar plate. Individual colonies from the LB agar plates

were suspended in PBS and the OD_{600nm} was measured. The measurement and

following protocol was treated as above.

β-galactosidase release assay. A phage lysate was prepared from LB5010 carrying

pKTH3088 (49), which is a pACYC184 derivative containing the *E.coli lacZ* gene

from pMC1871 (50). This P22 lysate was used transfer the pKTH3088 to *S.*

Typhimurium SR-11 strains. To assay for the release of LacZ, bacteria were grown

overnight in LB broth at 37°C and 220rpm. The overnight culture was diluted 1:100

in TY broth and grown for 2 hours at 37°C and 220rpm to mid exponential phase,

whereafter bacteria were removed by centrifugation (18500 g), and LacZ activity

measured from the supernatants and whole cells according to Miller (51).

Statistical analysis. GraphPad Prism v6.0g (GraphPad Software, Inc., USA) was

used for statistical analysis. The statistical test for Fig. 1, Fig. 3A, Fig. 5B and Fig. S2

was one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's correction for multiple samples. The statistical

test for Fig. S4 was a t-test comparing each concentration to each other.

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