#### **RESEARCH PAPER**

Taylor & Francis Taylor & Francis Group

OPEN ACCESS Check for updates

# Downregulation of a novel flagellar synthesis regulator AsiR promotes intracellular replication and systemic pathogenicity of *Salmonella* Typhimurium

Shuangshuang Ma<sup>a,b,\*</sup>, Lingyan Jiang<sup>a,b,\*</sup>, Jingting Wang<sup>a,b,\*</sup>, Xiaoqian Liu<sup>a,b</sup>, Wanwu Li<sup>a,b</sup>, Shuai Ma<sup>a,b</sup>, and Lu Feng<sup>a,b</sup>

<sup>a</sup>The Key Laboratory of Molecular Microbiology and Technology, Ministry of Education, Nankai University, Tianjin, China;; <sup>b</sup>TEDA Institute of Biological Sciences and Biotechnology, Tianjin Key Laboratory of Microbial Functional Genomics, Nankai University, Tianjin, China

#### ABSTRACT

The intracellular pathogen Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium (S. Typhimurium) exploits host macrophage as a crucial survival and replicative niche. To minimize host immune response stimulated by flagellin, the expression of flagellar genes is downregulated during S. Typhimurium growth within host macrophages. However, the underlying mechanisms are largely unknown. In this study, we show that STM14\_1285 (named AsiR), a putative RpiR-family transcriptional regulator, which is downregulated within macrophages as previously reported and also confirmed here, positively regulates the expression of flagellar genes by directly binding to the promoter of flhDC. By generating an asiR mutant strain and a strain that persistently expresses asiR gene within macrophages, we confirmed that the downregulation of asiR contributes positively to S. Typhimurium replication in macrophages and systemic infection in mice, which could be attributed to decreased flagellar gene expression and therefore reduced flagellin-stimulated secretion of pro-inflammatory cytokines IL-1 $\beta$  and TNF- $\alpha$ . Furthermore, the acidic pH in macrophages is identified as a signal for the downregulation of asiR and therefore flagellar genes. Collectively, our results reveal a novel acidic pH signal-mediated regulatory pathway that is utilized by S. Typhimurium to promote intracellular replication and systemic pathogenesis by repressing flagellar gene expression.

#### **ARTICLE HISTORY**

Received 5 August 2020 Revised 23 December 2020 Accepted 27 December 2020

#### **KEYWORDS**

Salmonella Typhimurium; transcriptional regulator; asir; flagellar gene expression; acidic pH

#### Introduction

Salmonella is recognized as a major foodborne pathogen, causing self-limiting gastroenteritis or life-threatening systemic disease in both humans and a broad range of Infection by Salmonella animals<sup>[1]</sup>. represents a considerable burden worldwide, with more than 90 million human cases of gastroenteritis and 20 million human cases of systemic disease being reported each year [2,3]. Of the 2600+ serovars identified so far, Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium (S. Typhimurium) represents a primary pathogenic serovar[4]. Infection by S. Typhimurium results in gastroenteritis in humans but leads to a typhoid-like systemic infection in mice[5]. The mouse model of S. Typhimurium has been extensively used to investigate the human systemic disease and the mechanisms of Salmonella virulence[6].

*Salmonella* infection generally begins with the consumption of contaminated water or food[7]. After it travels along the host's gastrointestinal tract, *Salmonella* invades the intestinal epithelium and ultimately spreads to the liver and spleen to induce systemic infection[8]. Invasion of intestine epithelial cells and replication inside host macrophages are two hallmarks of *Salmonella* pathogenesis[1], which are necessary for gastroenteritis and systemic disease, respectively.

During the intracellular phase, Salmonella resides and replicates within a unique vacuolar compartment termed Salmonella-containing vacuole (SCV)[9]. Salmonella encounters several stresses in the SCV, including low magnesium  $(Mg^{2+})$  and phosphate  $(P_i)$ concentration, mildly acidic pH, and reactive oxygen species[10]. To resist these intracellular antibacterial factors, Salmonella species have developed a variety of virulence regulatory mechanisms [11,12]. Several regulatory proteins have been previously identified to be involved in the regulatory network and have been reported to contribute to Salmonella intracellular replication in response to various environmental stimuli. PagR, a LacI family transcriptional regulator, is induced by the low Mg<sup>2+</sup> and low P<sub>i</sub> stimuli in host macrophages, and it activates the expression of Salmonella pathogenicity island (SPI)-2 genes, which are essential for Salmonella intracellular replication[13]. The two-

• Supplemental data for this article can be accessed here.

CONTACT Lu Feng 🖾 fenglu63@nankai.edu.cn.

<sup>\*</sup>Shuangshuang Ma, Lingyan Jiang and Jingting Wang contributed equally to this work.

<sup>© 2021</sup> The Author(s). Published by Informa UK Limited, trading as Taylor & Francis Group.

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

component regulatory systems, PhoP/Q and EnvZ/ OmpR, also activate the expression of SPI-2 genes in response to low  $Mg^{2+}$ , acidic pH, and the presence of antibacterial peptides inside host macrophages (PhoP/ Q)[14] or acidic pH (EnvZ/OmpR)[15]. The putative LysR-type transcriptional regulator Hrg was found to repress the *uvrA* and *katG* genes to reduce ROS production in macrophages and thus favor intracellular survival of *Salmonella* [16,17].

The flagella contribute to S. Typhimurium pathogenesis by promoting bacterial adherence to and invasion of host epithelial cells, providing a survival advantage during the early stages of S. Typhimurium infection [18,19]. However, during the systemic phase of infection, flagellin can be easily detected by the host immune system, which triggers an elevated innate immune response, including secretion of IL-1 $\beta$  and TNF-a, resulting in bacterial clearance from the host [20]. Flagella overexpression in S. Typhimurium leads to a reduction of bacterial growth in murine macrophages and to attenuation of bacterial virulence in mice [21]. The transcriptome and proteome landscape of intracellular S. Typhimurium has revealed that the expression of most flagellar genes is significantly downregulated after the entry of S. Typhimurium into murine macrophages [22-24]. The deletion of STM1697, which encodes an EAL-like protein, resulted in the upregulation of flagellar gene expression, leading to the attenuated ability of S. Typhimurium to colonize the host organs[25]. These results implicate that the downregulation of flagellar genes in macrophages contributes to the successful intracellular replication and full virulence of S. Typhimurium. Several studies have focused on the molecular mechanisms associated with the downregulation of flagellar genes in response to the stimuli within macrophages. Flagellar gene expression can be repressed by PhoP/Q in response to acidic pH [26]. A leader mRNA originated from the mgtCBR virulence operon, which is highly induced by low Mg<sup>2</sup> <sup>+</sup>, binds to the coding region of the flagellin gene *fljB* to induce *fljB* mRNA degradation and thus repress flagellin gene expression[27].

STM14\_1285, herein named AsiR (<u>Acid signal-induced regulator</u>), is predicted to be an RpiR family transcriptional regulator in *S*. Typhimurium and comprises a predicted DNA-binding helix-turn-helix (HTH) motif at its N terminus (https://blast.ncbi.nlm. nih.gov/Blast.cgi). The regulatory function of AsiR in *S*. Typhimurium is currently unknown. The regulatory functions of RpiR-family regulators are mostly investigated in *Lactococcus lactis* and are generally known to be involved in the regulation of carbon metabolism[28]. However, IdoR, an RpiR-family regulator in *S*.

Typhimurium, has been shown to repress the expression of SPI-2 effector gene *srfJ*[29], implying that members in this family also have other functions including the regulation of virulence genes.

The expression of *asiR* is downregulated after S. Typhimurium entry into murine macrophages[10], but its implication in S. Typhimurium virulence remains elusive. Here, we demonstrated that the downregulation asiR facilitates of expression S. Typhimurium replication in murine macrophages and systemic pathogenesis in mice. Further investigation revealed that AsiR positively regulates the expression of flagellar genes and that the downregulation of AsiR leads to a decrease in flagellar gene expression and proinflammatory cytokine secretion. Finally, we found that the mildly acidic pH in macrophages is a trigger for the downregulation of asiR.

#### Materials and methods

### Bacterial strains, plasmids, and growth conditions

S. Typhimurium strain 14028s (wild-type, WT) and its derivative strains, as well as plasmids used in this study, are described in Table 1. Primers used are described in Supplementary Table 1. Bacteria were routinely cultured in conventional Luria-Bertani (LB) medium containing tryptone 10 g·L<sup>-1</sup>, yeast extract 5 g·L<sup>-1</sup>, and NaCl 10 g·L<sup>-1</sup>. For quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) experiments, overnight bacterial cultures in LB were diluted at 1:100 into fresh LB or N-minimal medium[30] and then incubated in a shaking incubator (37°C, 180 rpm) to reach stationary phase. Antibiotics were added into the culture medium to achieve the following final concentrations: kanamycin (Km), 50; chloramphenicol (Cm), 25; blasticidin (Bs), 100; gentamicin (Gm): 20 or 100 µg·mL<sup>-1</sup>.

# **Construction of plasmids and strains**

The mutant strains ( $\Delta asiR$ ,  $\Delta flhDC$ , and  $\Delta asiR\Delta flhDC$ ) were constructed with the  $\lambda$  Red recombinase system [31]. The transcriptional fusions asiR-lux, ssrA-lux, and flhDC-lux were generated as described previously[13]. The amplification products of respective promoter digested and regions were cloned into the XhoI-BamHI site upstream of the lux genes in the plasmid pMS402. To generate a complemented strain, the amplification products (including the ORF and the upstream promoter sequence) of the corresponding digested and cloned genes were into the EcoRI-BamHI site of plasmid pBluescript and transformed the recombinant plasmids to the mutant strains.

Table 1. Plasmids and bacterial strains used in this study.

Plasmid or strain	Genotype or description	Source
Plasmids		
pKD3	For $\lambda$ Red recombination; Cm <sup>P</sup> <sub>a</sub>	Lab collection
pKD4	For $\lambda$ Red recombination; Km <sup>R</sup>	Lab collection
pSim17	For generating mutant strains with $\lambda$ Red recombinase system; Bs <sup>R</sup>	Lab collection
PCP20	Temperature-sensitive replicon expressing the FLP gene to remove antibiotic resistance of mutant strains; $Ap^R$	Lab collection
pBluescript II KS(+)	A cloning vector; Ap <sup>R</sup>	Lab collection
pMS402	For construct promoter-luxCDABE reporter fusion; Km <sup>R</sup>	Lab collection
pET28a	T <sub>7</sub> Expression vector; Km <sup>R</sup>	Lab collection
P-asiR	pBluescript plasmid carrying the WT <i>asiR</i> gene; Ap <sup>R</sup>	This study
P-flhDC	pBluescript plasmid carrying the WT flhDC gene; Ap <sup>R</sup>	This study
P-asiR-lux	pMS402 containing <i>asiR</i> promoter region cloned between <i>Xho</i> l and <i>BamH</i> I sites; Km <sup>K</sup>	This study
P-ssrA-lux	pMS402 containing <i>ssrA</i> promoter region cloned between <i>Xho</i> l and <i>BamH</i> I sites; Km <sup>K</sup>	This study
P-flhDC-lux	pMS402 containing flhDC promoter region cloned between Xhol and BamH sites; Km <sup>K</sup>	This study
pET- <i>asiR</i>	pET28a carrying the WT <i>asiR</i> gene; Km <sup>K</sup>	This study
S. Typhimurium strains		
WT	Wild-type S. Typhimurium strain 14028s	Lab collection
∆asiR	WT strain <i>asiR</i> ::Cm; Cm <sup>K</sup>	This study
asiR <sup>on</sup>	WT strain <i>asiR</i> promoter_replaced by <i>ssrA</i> promoter; Cm <sup>R</sup>	This study
∆flhDC	WT strain <i>flhDC</i> ::Km; Km <sup>R</sup>	This study
∆asiR∆flhDC	WT strain <i>asiR</i> ::Cm, <i>flhD</i> C::Km; Cm <sup>K</sup> , Km <sup>K</sup>	This study
cAsiR	$\Delta asiR$ containing plasmid P-asiR; Cm <sup>R</sup> , Ap <sup>R</sup>	This study
∆asiR∆flhDC+p-asiR	Δ <i>asiR</i> ΔflhDC containing plasmid P- <i>asiR</i> ; Cm <sup>K</sup> , Km <sup>K</sup> , Ap <sup>K</sup>	This study
∆asiR∆flhDC+p-flhDC	$\Delta asiR\Delta flhDC$ containing plasmid P-flhDC; Cm <sup>R</sup> , Km <sup>R</sup> , Ap <sup>R</sup>	This study
WT+p-asiR-lux	WT containing plasmid P- <i>asiR-lux</i> ; Km <sup>r</sup>	This study
WT+p-ssrA-lux	WT containing plasmid P-ssrA-lux; Km <sup>R</sup>	This study
WT+p-flhDC-lux	WT containing plasmid P-flhDC-lux; Km <sup>R</sup>	This study
$\Delta asiR + p-flhDC-lux$	Δ <i>asiR</i> containing plasmid P-flhDC-lux; Cm <sup>R</sup> , Km <sup>R</sup>	This study
asiR on +p-flhDC-lux	asiR <sup>on</sup> containing plasmid P-flhDC-lux; Cm <sup>R</sup> , Km <sup>R</sup>	This study
cAsiR +p-flhDC-lux	cAsiR containing plasmid P <i>-flhDC-lux</i> ; Cm <sup>к</sup> , Ap <sup>к</sup> , Km <sup>к</sup>	This study

To generate the strain asiR<sup>on</sup> (a strain persistently expresses asiR gene within macrophages), we replaced the promoter of asiR with the promoter of the SPI-2-encoded regulator gene ssrA by homologous recombination. First, the promoter region of ssrA was amplified from the genomic DNA of WT with primers ssrApromoter-F and ssrA-promoter-R. The chloramphenicol resistance gene was amplified from the plasmid pKD3 with primers Cm-F and Cm-R. Subsequently, the above two PCR products were purified and mixed for the overlap PCR splicing with primers ssrApromoter-F and Cm-R. The resulting spliced PCR products were electroporated into WT harboring the plasmid pSim17. The promoter replaced bacteria were selected by their resistance to Cm, and verified by PCR amplification and sequencing.

To generate a construct expressing AsiR protein, the *asiR* gene was amplified from the genomic DNA of *S*. Typhimurium WT and inserted into the *EcoR*I and *BamH*I restriction sites of plasmid pET-28a to generate the plasmid pET-*asiR*. The pET-*asiR* plasmid was then transformed into *Escherichia coli* BL21 (DE3) cells to generate strain BL21+ pET-*asiR*, for the expression and purification of 6× His-tagged AsiR protein (his<sub>6</sub>-AsiR).

# **Cell culture**

The RAW264.7 macrophage cell line was obtained from the Shanghai Institute of Biochemistry and Cell Biology of the Chinese Academy of Sciences (Shanghai, China). Cells were cultured routinely in RPMI-1640 medium (Gibco) containing 10% fetal bovine serum (Gibco) and were incubated at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere containing 5% CO<sub>2</sub>/95% air. Cells were seeded into sterile 12-well tissue culture plates at a concentration of  $1 \times 10^5$  cells/well and maintained as differentiated monolayers for 48 h before infection.

# Macrophage replication assays

Macrophage replication assays were performed as previously described[30]. Briefly, S. Typhimurium strains (WT,  $\Delta asiR$ ,  $asiR^{on}$ , and cAsiR) were incubated in LB medium overnight at 37°C with shaking (180 rpm) for 16 h. The overnight bacterial cultures were diluted and opsonized for 20 min in 10% normal mice serum (Gibco). The bacteria were added to RAW264.7 cells at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 10. After incubated for 45 min, the infected cells were washed with PBS for three times. Then, the cells were incubated in fresh RPMI-1640 medium supplemented with 100 µg·mL <sup>-1</sup> Gentamycin for 2 h followed by incubation in RPMI-1640 supplemented with 20 µg·mL <sup>-1</sup> Gentamycin for another 14 h. At 2 and 16 h postinfection (hpi), the intracellular bacteria were collected, serially diluted in PBS, and then spread onto LB agar for counting of bacterial colony-forming units (CFUs).

Fold intracellular replication was calculated as a ratio of the intracellular CFUs at 16 hpi relative to that at 2 hpi.

### Immunofluorescence microscopy

Immunofluorescence was performed as previously described[13]. Briefly, at 2 and 16 h postinfection (hpi), the infected RAW264.7 cells were washed twice with PBS, fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde for 10 min, permeabilized with 0.1% Triton X-100 for 5 min, and then blocked with 5% BSA for 1 h. The intracellular *S*. Typhimurium cells were stained using the mouse raised monoclonal anti-*S*. Typhimurium LPS antibody (1:100 dilution, Abcam) and FITC-conjugated goat antimouse IgG antibody (1:200 dilution, Abcam). Nuclei were stained with DAPI (4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole, Invitrogen). Laser scanning confocal microscopy (Zeiss LSM800) was used to obtain the cells images and the images were analyzed with Zen 2.0 software.

# **Mouse infection**

All animal experiments performed here were approved by the Institutional Animal Care Committee at Nankai University (Tianjin, China). BALB/c mice (female, 6-8 weeks old) were obtained from Beijing Vital River Laboratory Animal Technology Co. Ltd (Beijing, China). In order to determine the survival rate, the mice were inoculated intraperitoneally (i.p.) with  $2 \times 10^4$  CFUs of WT (n = 14),  $\Delta asiR$  (n = 15),  $asiR^{\text{on}}$ (n = 14) and cAsiR (n = 14) and were monitored and recorded daily for a period of 20 days. To enumerate the bacterial burdens in mice organs, four groups of mice (n = 7/group) were inoculated i.p. with  $5 \times 10^4$ CFUs of WT,  $\Delta asiR$ ,  $asiR^{on}$ , or cAsiR, respectively, and were euthanized after 3 days. The collected liver and spleen were weighed, homogenized and diluted in PBS, and spread onto LB agar without or with appropriate antibiotics for enumeration of CFUs. For competitive infection assays, six mice were co-infected i.p. with a 1:1 mix totaling ~5  $\times$  10<sup>4</sup> CFUs of  $\Delta flhDC$  and  $\Delta asiR\Delta flhDC$  and euthanized on day 3 postinfection to enumerate the bacterial burden in the liver and spleen. The competitive index (CI) was calculated as follows: (single mutant strain CFUs recovered/  $\Delta asiR\Delta flhDC$  CFUs recovered)/(single mutant strain CFUs inoculated/ $\Delta asiR\Delta flhDC$  CFUs inoculated).

# **RNA preparation**

The protocol of RNA preparation was conducted as previously described[13]. To obtain the RNA of intracellular S. Typhimurium for qRT-PCR assays, we performed the macrophage replication assays as described above. The infected macrophages were lysed on ice for 30 min in 0.1% SDS, 1% acidic phenol, and 19% ethanol in water. The cell lysates were centrifugated to isolate and harvest the intracellular bacteria. The harvested bacteria were immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and late used to extract and purificate the total RNA.

# qRT-PCR

The RN43-EASY spin Plus Rapid Extraction Kit (Aidlab) was used for the extraction and purification of total RNA, following the manufacturer's instructions. cDNA synthesis was performed with the PrimeScript RT Reagent kit (TaKaRa). qRT-PCR reaction was carried out in the QuantStudio 5 Real-Time PCR system (Applied Biosystems). The *16S rRNA* was used for normalization in gene expression analysis. The  $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$  method was used to calculate the fold change in tested gene expression[32].

# Motility assays

The protocol of motility assays was conducted as previously described[33]. Overnight cultures of WT and  $\Delta asiR$  were adjusted to an OD<sub>600</sub> of 1.0. One microliter of each adjusted strain was spotted on 0.3% LB agar medium. After incubation at 37°C for 8 h, the motility of the bacteria was observed by measuring the diameter of the swimming zone surrounding the inoculation site.

# Electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA)

The his<sub>6</sub>-AsiR protein was purified as previously described[34]. The DNA fragments of *flhDC* promoter were amplified from the genomic DNA of the WT. Purified DNA fragments (40 ng) were pre-incubated with increasing quantities of purified proteins in each 20  $\mu$ L binding buffer (Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 20 mM; KCl, 80 mM; MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 10 mM; ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid, 1 mM; bovine serum albumin, 0.1 mg·L<sup>-1</sup>; gly-cerol, 100 mL·L<sup>-1</sup>) for 30 min at 37°C. The reaction mixtures were resolved on native 6% polyacrylamide gels in 0.5× Tris-borate-EDTA buffer (TBE). The gels were stained with Gel Red (1:10,000 dilution in TBE) for 10 min and then observed using a UV transilluminator (Tanon).

# Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA)

RAW24.7 cells were infected with WT,  $\Delta asiR$ , and  $asiR^{on}$  as described above. The culture supernatants

were collected at 16 hpi, centrifuged, aliquoted, and stored at  $-80^{\circ}$ C. The amounts of IL-1 $\beta$  and TNF- $\alpha$  secreted into the supernatant were measured using commercial ELISA kits, Mouse IL-1 $\beta$  Quantikine ELISA Kit (R&D Systems, MLB00C) and Mouse TNF- $\alpha$  Quantikine ELISA Kit (R&D Systems, MTA00), following the manufacturer's instructions.

### Statistical analysis

All data in this study were representative of three separate experiments unless otherwise stated and displayed as mean  $\pm$  SD. GraphPad Prism v7.0 software was used for the statistical analysis. Student's unpaired t-test, one-way ANOVA test, Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test, and Mann Whitney U-test were performed to assess the statistical significance. *P*-values of less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

### Results

# asiR transcription is downregulated in murine macrophages

To verify whether the expression of asiR was downregulated in host macrophages, as indicated by previously published RNA-seq data[10],murine RAW264.7 cells were infected with S. Typhimurium WT for a period of 24 h, and the expression of asiR was determined. In comparison with the bacteria cultured in RPMI-1640 medium, the expression of asiR was significantly decreased at 2, 8, 16, and 24 hpi, as revealed by both qRT-PCR and the bioluminescent reporter assays using an asiR promoter-lux fusion (asiR-lux) (Figure 1(a, b)), confirming the downregulation of *asiR* in host macrophages.

# asiR contributes negatively to S. Typhimurium replication in murine macrophages

To explore the implication of *asiR* downregulation in *S*. Typhimurium growth within macrophages, we constructed an *asiR* gene knock-out strain ( $\Delta asiR$ ), a complemented strain (cAsiR), and a strain that expresses *asiR* persistently during its growth in RAW264.7 cells (*asiR*<sup>on</sup>). We confirmed that the expression of *asiR* was upregulated in *asiR*<sup>on</sup> within RAW264.7 cells, in contrast to the downregulation of *asiR* expression in WT, and was maintained above the WT level during the 24 h infection period (Figure 1(b) and Figure S1). Both  $\Delta asiR$  and  $asiR^{on}$  grew equally well as the WT in LB and RPMI-1640 medium (Figure S2(a) and Figure S2(b)). However, when we determined

the growth of those strains in RAW264.7 cells, it was found that the replication rate of  $\Delta asiR$  was significantly increased compared to that of WT at 16 hpi and reduced to the WT level by complementation with asiR (cAsiR) (Figure 1(c)). On the contrary, the replication rate of asiRon in RAW264.7 cells was significantly decreased compared to that of WT (Figure 1 (c)). We further used immunofluorescence microscopy to quantify the number of intracellular S. Typhimurium per RAW264.7 cell. At 2 hpi, the average number of WT,  $\Delta asiR$ , and  $asiR^{on}$  cells per RAW264.7 cell was similar, with one to four bacteria per RAW264.7 cell (Figure 1(d)). However, at 16 hpi, the average number of ∆asiR cells per RAW264.7 cell (~22 bacteria/macrophage) was significantly higher than that of WT (~16 bacteria/macrophage), while in *asiR*<sup>on</sup> the number was significantly lower than that of WT (~8 bacteria/macrophage) (Figure 1(d)). These results indicate that AsiR contributes negatively to the growth of S. Typhimurium in host macrophages, and thus, downregulation of AsiR promotes the intracellular growth of S. Typhimurium.

# asiR contributes negatively to S. Typhimurium virulence in mice

Replication of S. Typhimurium within macrophages is essential for systemic infection. To validate the contribution of asiR downregulation in macrophages to S. Typhimurium virulence, mice were infected with WT,  $\Delta asiR$ ,  $asiR^{on}$ , or cAsiR via i.p. injection and monitored for survival. All of the mice infected with  $\Delta asiR$  died within 8 days with a mean survival time of 4 days, while the mice infected with WT and cAsiR died within 13 days with a mean survival time of 5 and 6 days, respectively (Figure 2(a)). The results indicate that the absence of asiR reduces the survival of infected mice. On the contrary, only 36% of the mice infected with asiR<sup>on</sup> died within 8 days, with 64% surviving throughout the period of our experiment (20 days), indicating that the overexpression of asiR enhances the survival of infected mice. We further verified the virulence phenotype of WT,  $\Delta asiR$ ,  $asiR^{on}$ , or cAsiR by determining their colonization abilities in the liver and spleen of infected mice. Three days after infection,  $\Delta asiR$  showed significantly increased bacterial counts in the liver and spleen of infected mice compared to WT and reduced to the WT level by complementation with asiR (Figure 2(b)). The results indicate that the absence of *asiR* increases the colonization of S. Typhimurium in systemic loci. On the contrary, asiRon showed decreased bacterial counts in the liver and spleen of infected mice compared to WT (Figure 2(b)), indicating that the overexpression of asiR reduces the colonization of S.



**Figure 1.** Downregulation of *asiR* enhances *S*. Typhimurium replication within macrophages. (a) qRT-PCR analysis showed the expression levels of *asiR* in RPMI-1640 medium (0 h) and in RAW264.7 cells at 2, 8, 16, and 24 h postinfection (hpi). (b) Expression of the *asiR-lux* and *ssrA-lux* transcriptional fusions was analyzed in WT growth in RPMI-1640 medium (0 h) and inside RAW264.7 cells at 2, 8, 16, and 24 hpi. (c) The replication abilities of WT,  $\Delta asiR$ , *asiR*<sup>on</sup> or cAsiR in RAW264.7 cells. The fold intracellular replication was calculated as a ratio of the intracellular CFUs at 16 hpi relative to that at 2 hpi. (d) Bacterial number of *S*. Typhimurium observed in per infected RAW264.7 cells (n = 50 cells) at 2 and 16 hpi. Data were obtained from three separate experiments and analyzed using Student's t-test. *P*-values: \*, *P*< 0.05; \*\*, *P*< 0.01; \*\*\*, *P*< 0.001.

Typhimurium in systemic loci. Therefore, the expression of *asiR* contributes negatively to *S*. Typhimurium virulence in mice, and it is downregulated in murine macrophages to promote *S*. Typhimurium replication and virulence.

# asiR contributes negatively to S. Typhimurium intracellular replication and virulence by positively regulating the expression of flagellar genes

Next, we investigated the mechanism underlying the negative contribution of AsiR to S. Typhimurium intracellular replication and virulence. SPI-2 genes are necessary for S. Typhimurium replication within macrophages and systemic infection in mice. Therefore, we tested whether AsiR influences the expression of SPI-2 genes. qRT-PCR analysis showed no significant change in the expression of three representative SPI-2 genes (*ssrA*, *ssaG*, and *sifA*) in  $\Delta asiR$  compared to that in WT when bacteria were grown to stationary phase in N-minimal medium (Figure S3(a)) and during its growth inside RAW264.7 cells (Figure S3 (b)), indicating SPI-2 gene expression is not affected by AsiR.

Through an *in vitro* phenotypic assay, the motility assay, we found that  $\Delta asiR$  exhibited a defect in motility compared to WT and the defect was rescued by complementation with *asiR* (Figure 3(a)), implying that AsiR



**Figure 2.** Deletion of *asiR* enhances *S*. Typhimurium virulence in mice. (a) Survival curves of mice infected intraperitoneally (i.p.) with the WT,  $\Delta asiR$ ,  $asiR^{on}$  or cAsiR. (b) Liver and spleen bacterial burdens in mice infected with WT,  $\Delta asiR$ ,  $asiR^{on}$  or cAsiR. Data were combined from two separate experiments and analyzed using Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test (a) or Mann Whitney U-test (b). *P*-values: \*\*, *P*< 0.01; \*\*\*, *P*< 0.001.

may regulate the expression of flagellar genes. We, therefore, tested the expression of representative flagellar genes including *fliC*, *fliA*, *fijB*, *flhC*, and *flhD* in WT,  $\Delta asiR$ ,  $asiR^{on}$ , or cAsiR grown in LB and after infection of RAW264.7 cells for 16 h through qRT-PCR analysis. Under either condition, the expression of all the tested genes was downregulated in  $\Delta asiR$  compared to that in WT, and restored to the WT level by complementation with asiR (Figure 3(b) and S4(a)), indicating that AsiR positively regulates the expression of flagellar genes.  $asiR^{on}$ , which expresses asiR persistently in RAW264.7 cells (Figure 1(b)), showed enhanced motility (Figure 3 (a)) and flagellar gene expression in LB and after infection of RAW264.7 cells (Figure 3(b) and S4(a)). Bioluminescent reporter assays further confirmed that the expression of the *flhDC* operon was decreased in  $\Delta asiR$  while increased in  $asiR^{on}$  during bacterial growth within RAW264.7 cells (Figure S4(b)). Collectively, these results indicate that AsiR positively regulates the expression of flagellar genes.

The deletion of *asiR* in macrophages could result in the decrease of flagellar gene expression, leading to the enhanced intracellular replication of S. Typhimurium. To further verify that AsiR represses the intracellular replication and virulence of S. Typhimurium by activating flagellar gene expression. We next constructed asiR/ *flhDC* double mutant strain ( $\Delta asiR\Delta flhDC$ ) and two complemented strains (*AasiRAflhDC* strain complemented with asiR or flhDC:  $\Delta asiR\Delta flhDC+P$ -asiR,  $\Delta asiR\Delta flhDC+P-flhDC$ , and performed macrophage replication assay. The growth rate of  $\Delta asiR\Delta flhDC$  in RAW264.7 cells was comparable to that of  $\Delta asiR$ , indicating that mutation of *asiR* in  $\Delta flhDC$  did not confer an additional replication advantage (Figure 3(c)). Meanwhile, the growth rate of  $\Delta asiR\Delta flhDC+P$ -asiR in RAW264.7 cells was comparable to that of  $\Delta asiR\Delta flhDC$  (Figure 3(c)), confirming that AsiR represses S. Typhimurium intracellular replication by activating flagellar gene expression.

We then conducted competitive infection assays to measure the difference in systemic tissue colonization between the single mutant strain ( $\Delta flhDC$  and  $\Delta asiR$ ) and the double mutant ( $\Delta asiR\Delta flhDC$ ). The competitive ability of  $\Delta asiR\Delta flhDC$  was comparable with that of  $\Delta flhDC$  or  $\Delta asiR$  in both the liver and spleen of the infected mice (Figure 3(d)), indicating that mutation of asiR in  $\Delta flhDC$  did not provide an additional virulence advantage. Collectively, these results suggest that AsiR contributes negatively to the intracellular replication and virulence of S. Typhimurium by activating the expression of flagellar genes.

# asiR positively regulates flagellar gene expression by directly binding to the promoter of flhDC

We next investigated whether AsiR regulates flagellar gene expression by binding to the *flhDC* promoter, which is a target of a broad range of transcriptional regulators that regulate the expression of flagellar genes [35]. The EMSA results showed that purified Histagged AsiR shifted the *flhDC* promoter fragments in a concentration-dependent manner, but did not bind to the *16S rRNA* DNA (negative control) (Figure 3(e)). Therefore, AsiR directly binds to the *flhDC* promoter, leading to the activation of flagellar gene expression.

# The deletion of asiR in macrophages reduces the host inflammatory response

As the flagellin triggers innate immune responses by stimulating the secretion of pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as IL-1 $\beta$  and TNF- $\alpha$ [36], we hypothesized that the deletion of asiR could reduce host inflammatory responses by reducing flagellin synthesis. To test this hypothesis, we infected RAW264.7 cells with WT,  $\Delta asiR$ , or  $asiR^{on}$ , and measured the amount of IL-1 $\beta$  and TNF-α in the culture supernatant at 16 hpi by ELISA. As shown in Figure 4(a, b), RAW264.7 cells infected with  $\Delta asiR$  showed significantly decreased IL-1 $\beta$  and TNF- $\alpha$ levels than cells infected with WT or *asiR*<sup>on</sup>. The results indicate that the expression of *asiR* contributes positively to the secretion of pro-inflammatory cytokines. Further, the IL-1 $\beta$  and TNF- $\alpha$  levels in  $\Delta asiR\Delta flhDC$ -infected RAW264.7 cells were comparable to that of  $\Delta asiR\Delta flhDC+P$ -asiR-infected RAW264.7 cells, while the IL-1 $\beta$  and TNF- $\alpha$  levels in  $\Delta asiR\Delta flhDC+P-flhDC$ infected RAW264.7 cells were comparable to that of WTinfected RAW264.7 cells (Figure 4(c, d)), indicating that AsiR promotes cellular inflammatory responses by activating flagellar gene expression. Therefore, asiR is downregulated to evade host detection by reducing flagellin synthesis and thereby reducing flagellin-stimulated inflammatory responses.

# The expression of asiR and therefore flagellar genes is downregulated in response to acidic pH in macrophages

To evaluate whether any of the known environmental cues in macrophages, including low  $Mg^{2+}$ , low  $P_i$ , low  $O_2$ , and acidic pH, contribute to the downregulation of *asiR*, we examined the *asiR* expression of WT grown *in vitro* under defined conditions. According to qRT-PCR results, the expression of *asiR* was not significantly altered in the N-minimal medium with low  $Mg^{2+}$  & low  $P_i$  conditions compared to that in the medium with high  $Mg^{2+}$  & high  $P_i$  conditions (Figure S5(a)). Moreover, the expression of *asiR* is not significantly altered under low  $O_2$  conditions compared to that under high  $O_2$  conditions (Figure S5(b)). However, the expression of *asiR* decreased significantly in WT grown in both LB and N-minimal



**Figure 3.** AsiR enhances bacterial motility and directly activates flagellar gene expression. (a) The representative images of swimming motility and growth radius after 8 h of incubation at 37°C on semi-solid LB agar medium of WT,  $\Delta asiR$ ,  $asiR^{on}$  or cAsiR. (b) qRT-PCR analysis of five flagellar genes (*fliA*, *fljB*, *fliC*, *flhC*, and *flhD*) expression in the WT,  $\Delta asiR$ , or  $asiR^{on}$  that collected from infected RAW264.7 cells at 16 hpi. (c) Replication abilities of the WT,  $\Delta asiR$ ,  $\Delta asiR\Delta flhDC$ ,  $\Delta asiR\Delta flhDC$ ,  $\Delta asiR\Delta flhDC$ , +p-asiR or  $\Delta asiR\Delta flhDC$ , +p-flhDC in RAW264.7 cells. The fold replication was calculated as a ratio of the intracellular CFUs at 16hpi relative to that at 2 hpi. (d) Competitive index of the  $\Delta asiR$  or  $\Delta flhDC$  versus the  $\Delta asiR\Delta flhDC$  in the livers and spleens of i.p. infected mice. (e) EMSAs of *flhDC* promoter DNA fragments with increasing concentrations of the purified his<sub>6</sub>-AsiR protein. *16S rRNA* was used as a negative control. For (a, b, and c), data were obtained from three separate experiments and analyzed using Student's t-test (a and c) or one-way ANOVA (b). For (d), data were combined from two separate experiments and analyzed using Mann Whitney U-test. *P*-values: \*, *P*< 0.05; \*\*, *P*< 0.01; \*\*\*, *P*< 0.001; ns, not significant.

medium with pH 5.0 compared to that in the medium with pH 7.0, as revealed by qRT-PCR analysis (Figure 5(a)) and confirmed by bioluminescent

reporter assays (Figure S5(c)). These results indicated that the expression of *asiR* is repressed by mildly acidic pH.



**Figure 4.** The repression of *asiR* leads to a reduction of pro-inflammatory cytokines secretion in macrophages. (a and b) The levels of II-1 $\beta$  (a) and TNF- $\alpha$  (b) in the culture supernatants of RAW24.7 cells that infected WT,  $\Delta asiR$ , or  $asiR^{on}$  for 16 h. (c and d) The levels of II-1 $\beta$  (c) and TNF- $\alpha$  (d) in the supernatants of RAW24.7 cells infected with WT,  $\Delta asiR\Delta flhDC+p$ -flhDC,  $\Delta asiR\Delta flhDC+p$ -asiR or  $\Delta asiR\Delta flhDC$  for 16 h. Data were obtained from three separate experiments and analyzed using Student's t-test. *P*-values: \*, *P*< 0.05.

Consistent with the downregulation of *asiR*, the expression of flagellar genes (*fliA*, *fijB*, *fliC*, *flhC*, and *flhD*) in WT was also downregulated in N-minimal medium at acidic pH (pH 5.0) (Figure 5(b)). In contrast, the expression of these flagellar genes was not changed at pH 5.0 in  $\Delta asiR$  compared to that at pH 7.0 (Figure 5(c)) but downregulated in cAsiR (Figure S5 (d)), indicating that *asiR* is required for the downregulation of flagellar genes at acidic pH. This was further confirmed by comparing the expression of flagellar genes in WT and  $\Delta asiR$  at pH 5.0 and pH 7.0, respectively (Figure S5(e)). Therefore, the acidic conditions

within macrophages can lead to the repression of *asiR* expression and its downstream flagellar genes.

# Discussion

In this study, we revealed a novel regulatory mechanism mediated by AsiR for the downregulation of flagellar genes within host macrophages. AsiR positively regulates the expression of flagellar genes by binding to the *flhDC* promoter. The expression of *asiR* and therefore flagellar genes is downregulated within macrophages, and the acidic pH was identified as



**Figure 5.** Acidic pH represses the expression of *asiR* and flagellar genes. (a) qRT-PCR analysis showed the expression levels of *asiR* in WT that grown in LB medium and N-minimal medium with pH 5.0 or pH 7.0. (b and c) qRT-PCR analysis showed the expression levels of *fliA*, *fijB*, *fliC*, *flhC*, and *flhD* in WT (b) and  $\Delta asiR$  (c) that grown in N-minimal medium with pH 5.0 or pH 7.0. Data were obtained from three separate experiments and analyzed using Student's t-test (a) or one-way ANOVA (b and c). *P*-values: \*, *P*< 0.05; \*\*, *P*< 0.01; \*\*\*, *P*< 0.001.

a host cue for this downregulation. The downregulation of flagellar genes mediated by AsiR contributes significantly to *S*. Typhimurium systemic pathogenesis, as indicated by the significant attenuated ability of *S*. Typhimurium to replicate in both macrophages and systemic organs when *asiR* was persistently expressed. We propose that *asiR* is downregulated in response to acidic pH signal of macrophages, followed by repression of the flagellar gene expression to increase the intracellular replication and pathogenicity of *S*. Typhimurium (Figure 6).

Flagellin is a ligand detected by the cell surfacelocalized Toll-like receptor 5 (TLR5) and also cytosolic NOD-like receptor 4 (NLRC4) [37,38]. The activation of the TLR5 signaling pathway induces the secretion of pro-inflammatory cytokines, including  $TNF-\alpha[39]$ . The activation of the NLRC4 inflammasome elicits the caspase-1-dependent processes, which also promotes pro-inflammatory cytokines (e.g., IL-1β) production [40]. In agreement with the regulatory role of AsiR in flagellar gene expression, the production of IL-1 $\beta$ and TNF- $\alpha$  in the macrophages is significantly reduced due to the repression of AsiR. This result implicates that downregulation of flagellar gene expression by AsiR is an important mechanism utilized by S. Typhimurium to reduce the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines and replicate successfully within macrophages.

The assembly of flagella is regulated by complex mechanisms, including transcriptional, translational, and posttranslational regulation[35]. The flhDC flagellar master operon in S. Typhimurium activates transcription of other flagellar genes[41]. Several regulators have been reported to modulate flagellar gene expression by acting on FlhDC. The LysR-family protein HdfR represses flagellar gene expression through directly binding *flhDC* promoter to reduce flhDC transcription[42]. The global regulatory protein CsrA activates flagellar gene expression by protecting the translation of *flhDC* mRNA from RNase E-mediated cleavage[43]. STM1697 represses flagellar gene expression by binding to FlhD protein to repress the recruitment of RNA polymerase[25]. In this study, we found that AsiR activates flhDC and downstream flagellar gene expression at the transcriptional level by directly binding to the promoter of *flhDC*. In addition to promoting intracellular replication, AsiR may also contribute to Salmonella pathogenesis by affecting adherence and invasion, as flagella have been previously demonstrated to be required for the full adhesive and invasive potential



**Figure 6.** The acidic pH-mediated model of AsiR repressing flagellar gene expression in *S*. Typhimurium. After *S*. Typhimurium enters into macrophages, *asiR* expression is repressed in response to acidic pH within macrophages. AsiR binds to the promoter of *flhDC* that activates the expression of flagellar genes. The reduction in the expression of *asiR* gene leads to the downregulation of flagellar gene expression and pro-inflammatory cytokines secretion, contributing to the intracellular replication and systemic infection of *S*. Typhimurium.

of S. Typhimurium to intestinal epithelial cells [44,45]. Our preliminary investigation showed that  $\Delta asiR$  exhibited a decreased ability to adhere to and invade HeLa cells (Figure S6). Whether AsiR has a physiological role in promoting adherence and invasion needs to be further investigated.

There are six potential transcriptional start-sites (TSSs) within the *flhDC* promoter region, to which many transcriptional regulators bind, including PhoP [46]. Several transcriptional regulators exert their control of *flhDC* expression at different stages of the bacterial growth phase through activating the transcription of two functional TSSs[46]. We demonstrate that AsiR binds directly to the *flhDC* promoter region. However, the exact AsiR binding sequence and its regulatory function in the growth phase are not identified in this study and will be the subject of future studies.

Inside the SCV of macrophages, the pH value has been estimated to be around 5[47]. It is known that SCV acidification promotes the intracellular replication of S. Typhimurium by inducing the expression of SPI-2 genes[48]. Although acidic pH can repress flagellar gene expression as revealed in minimal E glucose (minimal EG) medium[49], the underlying regulatory mechanisms are not clear. Here, we found that the expression of flagellar genes is downregulated in response to acidic pH via a novel regulator, AsiR, and confirmed that acidic pH also contributes to pathogenesis by repressing flagellar gene expression. Several regulatory systems are known to be responsive to the acidic signal, including OmpR/ EnvZ and PhoP/Q [13,50]. Our preliminary investigation revealed that the deletion of phoP increased asiR expression in N-minimal medium at pH 5.0 based on qRT-PCR analysis, but the deletion of ompR did not influence asiR expression (Figure S7), suggesting that PhoP is a negative regulator of *asiR*. Whether PhoP/Q and/or other undiscovered systems are involved in acidic signaling-mediated downregulation of asiR and flagellar genes is a subject of future studies.

In summary, this work describes a novel reciprocal feedback between *S*. Typhimurium and host cells, in which AsiR responds to the acidic signal within macrophages and in return represses the immune reaction of host macrophages to promote bacterial intracellular replication.

# Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 81871624 and 31800126) and the National Key R&D Program of China (No. 2018YFA0901000).

### **Disclosure statement**

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

# Funding

This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China [31800126]; National Natural Science Foundation of China [81871624]; National Key R&D Program of China [2018YFA0901000].

### References

- [1] Fabrega A, Vila J. *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium skills to succeed in the host: virulence and regulation. Clin Microbiol Rev. 2013;26:308–341.
- [2] Crump JA, Mintz ED. Global trends in typhoid and paratyphoid Fever. Clin Infect Dis. 2010;50:241–246.
- [3] Majowicz SE, Musto J, Scallan E, et al. The global burden of nontyphoidal *Salmonella* gastroenteritis. Clin Infect Dis. 2010;50:882–889.
- [4] Hendriksen RS, Vieira AR, Karlsmose S, et al. Global monitoring of *Salmonella* serovar distribution from the world health organization global foodborne infections network country data bank: results of quality assured laboratories from 2001 to 2007. Foodborne Pathog Dis. 2011;8:887–900.
- [5] Kuhne C, Singer HM, Grabisch E, et al. RflM mediates target specificity of the RcsCDB phosphorelay system for transcriptional repression of flagellar synthesis in *Salmonella enterica*. Mol Microbiol. 2016;101:841–855.
- [6] Tsolis RM, Xavier MN, Santos RL, et al. How to become a top model: impact of animal experimentation on human *Salmonella* disease research. Infect Immun. 2011;79:1806–1814.
- [7] Linam WM, Gerber MA. Changing epidemiology and prevention of *Salmonella* infections. Pediatr Infect Dis J. 2007;26:747–748.
- [8] Mastroeni P, Grant A, Restif O, et al. A dynamic view of the spread and intracellular distribution of *Salmonella enterica*. Nature Rev Microbiol. 2009;7:73–80.
- [9] Gorvel JP, Méresse S. Maturation steps of the Salmonella-containing vacuole. Microbes Infect. 2001;3:1299–1303.
- [10] Eriksson S, Lucchini S, Thompson A, et al. Unravelling the biology of macrophage infection by gene expression profiling of intracellular *Salmonella enterica*. Mol Microbiol. 2003;47:103–118.
- [11] Löber S, Jäckel D, Kaiser N, et al. Regulation of Salmonella pathogenicity island 2 genes by independent environmental signals. Int J Med Microbiol. 2006;296:435–447.

- [12] Pérez-Morales D, Banda MM, Chau NYE, et al. The transcriptional regulator SsrB is involved in a molecular switch controlling virulence lifestyles of *Salmonella*. PLoS Pathog. 2017;13:e1006497.
- [13] Jiang L, Wang P, Li X, et al. PagR mediates the precise regulation of *Salmonella* pathogenicity island 2 gene expression in response to magnesium and phosphate signals in *Salmonella* Typhimurium. Cell Microbiol. 2020;22:e13125.
- [14] Prost LR, Miller SI. The Salmonellae PhoQ sensor: mechanisms of detection of phagosome signals. Cell Microbiol. 2008;10:576–582.
- [15] Chakraborty S, Mizusaki H, Kenney LJ. A FRET-based DNA biosensor tracks OmpR-dependent acidification of *Salmonella* during macrophage infection. PLoS Biol. 2015;13:e1002116.
- [16] Lahiri A, Das P, Chakravortty D. The LysR-type transcriptional regulator Hrg counteracts phagocyte oxidative burst and imparts survival advantage to Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium. Microbiology. 2008;154:2837–2846.
- [17] Lahiri A, Das P, Chakravortty D. Salmonella Typhimurium: insight into the multi-faceted role of the LysR-type transcriptional regulators in Salmonella. Int J Biochem Cell Biol. 2009;41:2129–2133.
- [18] Barbosa FO, Freitas Neto OC, Batista DFA, et al. Contribution of flagella and motility to gut colonisation and pathogenicity of *Salmonella* Enteritidis in the chicken. Braz J Microbiol. 2017;48:754–759.
- [19] Robertson JMC, McKenzie NH, Duncan M, et al. Lack of flagella disadvantages *Salmonella enterica* serovar Enteritidis during the early stages of infection in the rat. J Med Microbiol. 2003;52:91–99.
- [20] Ramos HC, Rumbo M, Sirard JC. Bacterial flagellins: mediators of pathogenicity and host immune responses in mucosa. Trends Microbiol. 2004;12:509–517.
- [21] Yang X, Thornburg T, Suo Z, et al. Flagella overexpression attenuates *Salmonella* pathogenesis. PloS One. 2012;7:e46828.
- [22] Li Z, Liu Y, Fu J, et al. Salmonella proteomic profiling during infection distinguishes the intracellular environment of host cells. mSystems. 2019;4:e00314–18.
- [23] Srikumar S, Kroger C, Hebrard M, et al. RNA-seq brings new insights to the intra-macrophage transcriptome of *Salmonella* Typhimurium. PLoS Pathog. 2015;11:e1005262.
- [24] Stapels DAC, Hill PWS, Westermann AJ, et al. Salmonella persisters undermine host immune defenses during antibiotic treatment. Science. 2018;362:1156–1160.
- [25] Li B, Yue Y, Yuan Z, et al. Salmonella STM1697 coordinates flagella biogenesis and virulence by restricting flagellar master protein FlhD4C2 from recruiting RNA polymerase. Nucleic Acids Res. 2017;45:9976–9989.
- [26] Adams P, Fowler R, Kinsella N, et al. Proteomic detection of PhoPQ- and acid-mediated repression of *Salmonella* motility. Proteomics. 2001;1:597–607.
- [27] Choi E, Han Y, Cho YJ, et al. A trans-acting leader RNA from a *Salmonella* virulence gene. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2017;114:10232–10237.
- [28] Aleksandrzak-Piekarczyk T, Szatraj K, Kosiorek K. GlaR (YugA)-a novel RpiR-family transcription activator of the Leloir pathway of galactose utilization in

*Lactococcus lactis* IL1403. MicrobiologyOpen. 2019;8: e00714.

- [29] Cordero-Alba M, Bernal-Bayard J, Ramos-Morales F. SrfJ, a Salmonella type III secretion system effector regulated by PhoP, RcsB, and IolR. J Bacteriol. 2012;194:4226–4236.
- [30] Zhang H, Song X, Wang P, et al. YaeB, expressed in response to the acidic pH in macrophages, promotes intracellular replication and virulence of *Salmonella* Typhimurium. Int J Mol Sci. 2019;20:4339.
- [31] Datsenko KA, Wanner BL. One-step inactivation of chromosomal genes in *Escherichia coli* K-12 using PCR products. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2000;97:6640–6645.
- [32] Livak KJ, Schmittgen TD. Analysis of relative gene expression data using real-time quantitative PCR and the 2(-Delta Delta C(T)) method. Methods. 2001;25:402–408.
- [33] Song X, Zhang H, Ma S, et al. Transcriptome analysis of virulence gene regulation by the ATP-dependent Lon protease in *Salmonella* Typhimurium. Future Microbiol. 2019;14:1109–1122.
- [34] Valdivia RH, Falkow S. Fluorescence-based isolation of bacterial genes expressed within host cells. Science. 1997;277:2007–2011.
- [35] McCarter LL. Regulation of flagella. Curr Opin Microbiol. 2006;9:180–186.
- [36] Rolli J, Loukili N, Levrand S, et al. Bacterial flagellin elicits widespread innate immune defense mechanisms, apoptotic signaling, and a sepsis-like systemic inflammatory response in mice. Crit Care. 2010;14:R160.
- [37] Hayashi F, Smith KD, Ozinsky A, et al. The innate immune response to bacterial flagellin is mediated by Toll-like receptor 5. Nature. 2001;410:1099–1103.
- [38] Zhao Y, Yang J, Shi J, et al. The NLRC4 inflammasome receptors for bacterial flagellin and type III secretion apparatus. Nature. 2011;477:596–600.
- [39] Yan SR, Qing G, Byers DM, et al. Role of MyD88 in diminished tumor necrosis factor alpha production by newborn mononuclear cells in response to lipopolysaccharide. Infect Immun. 2004;72: 1223-1229.

- [40] Franchi L, Kamada N, Nakamura Y, et al. NLRC4-driven production of IL-1 $\beta$  discriminates between pathogenic and commensal bacteria and promotes host intestinal defense. Nat Immunol. 2012;13:449–456.
- [41] Chilcott GS, Hughes KT. Coupling of flagellar gene expression to flagellar assembly in *Salmonella enterica* serovar *typhimurium* and *Escherichia coli*. Microbiol Mol Biol Rev. 2000;64:694–708.
- [42] Ko M, Park C. H-NS-Dependent regulation of flagellar synthesis is mediated by a LysR family protein. J Bacteriol. 2000;182:4670–4672.
- [43] Yakhnin AV, Baker CS, Vakulskas CA, et al. CsrA activates *flhDC* expression by protecting *flhDC* mRNA from RNase E-mediated cleavage. Mol Microbiol. 2013;87:851–866.
- [44] Jones BD, Lee CA, Falkow S. Invasion by *Salmonella typhimurium* is affected by the direction of flagellar rotation. Infect Immun. 1992;60:2475–2480.
- [45] Schmitt CK, Ikeda JS, Darnell SC, et al. Absence of all components of the flagellar export and synthesis machinery differentially alters virulence of *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium in models of typhoid fever, survival in macrophages, tissue culture invasiveness, and calf enterocolitis. Infect Immun. 2001;69:5619–5625.
- [46] Mouslim C, Hughes KT, Kubori T. The effect of cell growth phase on the regulatory cross-talk between flagellar and Spi1 virulence gene expression. PLoS Pathog. 2014;10:e1003987.
- [47] Drecktrah D, Knodler LA, Ireland R, et al. The mechanism of *Salmonella* entry determines the vacuolar environment and intracellular gene expression. Traffic. 2006;7:39–51.
- [48] Arpaia N, Godec J, Lau L, et al. TLR signaling is required for Salmonella typhimurium virulence. Cell. 2011;144:675–688.
- [49] Ryan D, Pati NB, Ojha UK, et al. Global transcriptome and mutagenic analyses of the acid tolerance response of *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2015;81:8054–8065.
- [50] Prost LR, Daley ME, Le Sage V, et al. Activation of the bacterial sensor kinase PhoQ by acidic pH. Mol Cell. 2007;26:165–174.