

Redox-Active Sensing by Bacterial DksA Transcription Factors Is Determined by Cysteine and Zinc Content

Matthew A. Crawford,^a Timothy Tapscott,^b Liam F. Fitzsimmons,^a Lin Liu,^a Aníbal M. Reyes,^c Stephen J. Libby,^d Madia Trujillo,^c Ferric C. Fang,^{d,e} Rafael Radi,^c Andrés Vázquez-Torres^{a,b,f}

Department of Immunology and Microbiology^a and Molecular Biology Program,^b University of Colorado School of Medicine, Aurora, Colorado, USA; Departamento de Bioquimica and Center for Free Radical and Biomedical Research, Facultad de Medicina, Universidad de la República, Montevideo, Uruguay^c; Department of Laboratory Medicine^d and Department of Microbiology,^e University of Washington School of Medicine, Seattle, Washington, USA; Veterans Affairs Eastern Colorado Health Care System, Denver, Colorado, USA^f

ABSTRACT The four-cysteine zinc finger motif of the bacterial RNA polymerase regulator DksA is essential for protein structure, canonical control of the stringent response to nutritional limitation, and thiol-based sensing of oxidative and nitrosative stress. This interdependent relationship has limited our understanding of DksA-mediated functions in bacterial pathogenesis. Here, we have addressed this challenge by complementing $\Delta dksA$ Salmonella with Pseudomonas aeruginosa dksA paralogues that encode proteins differing in cysteine and zinc content. We find that four-cysteine, zinc-bound (C4) and two-cysteine, zincfree (C2) DksA proteins are able to mediate appropriate stringent control in Salmonella and that thiol-based sensing of reactive species is conserved among C2 and C4 orthologues. However, variations in cysteine and zinc content determine the threshold at which individual DksA proteins sense and respond to reactive species. In particular, zinc acts as an antioxidant, dampening cysteine reactivity and raising the threshold of posttranslational thiol modification with reactive species. Consequently, C2 DksA triggers transcriptional responses in Salmonella at levels of oxidative or nitrosative stress normally tolerated by Salmonella expressing C4 orthologues. Inappropriate transcriptional regulation by C2 DksA increases the susceptibility of Salmonella to the antimicrobial effects of hydrogen peroxide and nitric oxide, and attenuates virulence in macrophages and mice. Our findings suggest that the redox-active sensory function of DksA proteins is finely tuned to optimize bacterial fitness according to the levels of oxidative and nitrosative stress encountered by bacterial species in their natural and host environments.

IMPORTANCE In order to cause disease, pathogenic bacteria must rapidly sense and respond to antimicrobial pressures encountered within the host. Prominent among these stresses, and of particular relevance to intracellular pathogens such as *Salmonella*, are nutritional restriction and the enzymatic generation of reactive oxygen and nitrogen species. The conserved transcriptional regulator DksA controls adaptive responses to nutritional limitation, as well as to oxidative and nitrosative stress. Here, we demonstrate that each of these functions contributes to bacterial pathogenesis. Our observations highlight the importance of metabolic adaptation in bacterial pathogenesis and show the mechanism by which DksA orthologues are optimized to sense the levels of oxidative and nitrosative stress encountered in their natural habitats. An improved understanding of the conserved processes used by bacteria to sense, respond to, and limit host defense will inform the development of novel strategies to treat infections caused by pathogenic, potentially multidrug-resistant bacteria.

Received 12 December 2015 Accepted 15 March 2016 Published 19 April 2016

Citation Crawford MA, Tapscott T, Fitzsimmons LF, Liu L, Reyes AM, Libby SJ, Trujillo M, Fang FC, Radi R, Vázquez-Torres A. 2016. Redox-active sensing by bacterial DksA transcription factors is determined by cysteine and zinc content. mBio 7(2):e02161-15. doi:10.1128/mBio.02161-15.

Editor Jeff F. Miller, UCLA School of Medicine

Copyright © 2016 Crawford et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial-ShareAlike 3.0 Unported license, which permits unrestricted noncommercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited. Address correspondence to Andrés Vázquez-Torres, Andres.Vazquez-Torres@ucdenver.edu.

Description of the challenges associated with particular microbial lifestyles (3). DksA affects gene transcription by interacting directly with RNAP (4). DksA orthologues maintain a highly conserved coiledcoil domain that has been demonstrated to access the secondary channel of RNAP and interact with the trigger loop domain of the β' subunit of the polymerase (5, 6). Although the mechanism(s) by which DksA regulates transcription is multifaceted and remains unsettled, it appears that the interaction of DksA with RNAP affects the stability of the open promoter complex and influences transcriptional initiation (4, 7). In addition to the coiledcoil domain, DksA contains a globular domain that is separated from the C-terminal α -helix by a variable hinge region. In most annotated DksA orthologues, this critical interface contains a



FIG 1 Functional complementation of the stringent response by paDksA and paDksA2 in *Salmonella*. (A) In C4 DksA proteins, the interdomain hinge region (») contains a four-cysteine zinc finger motif; in C2 proteins, this region contains two conserved cysteine residues and no Zn²⁺ cofactor. The structures shown were previously reported for *E. coli* DksA (C4; Protein Data Bank [PDB] code 1TJL) and *P. aeruginosa* DksA2 (C2; PDB code 4IJJ) (5, 8). (B) The primary amino acid sequence of the hinge region is shown for stmDksA, paDksA, and paDksA2. Cysteine residues (\downarrow), similarities (:), and identities (*) are indicated. (C) Guanosine pentaphosphate and tetraphosphate [(p)ppGpp] were measured in nucleotide extracts (see Fig. S3B in the supplemental material) prepared from bacteria treated with or without 0.4 mg/ml SHX. Data, expressed as the ratio of (p)ppGpp/[(p)pGpp + GTP], are the means ± standard errors of the means (SEM) (n = 3). (D) Bacteria were grown on LB or EG agar. Images shown are representative of 4 experiments. (E) The optical density at 600 nm (OD₆₀₀) of bacteria grown in LB, EG, or EGCA medium was measured over time. Data are the means ± SEM (n = 3). P < 0.001 when $\Delta dksA$ *Salmonella* grown in EG or EGCA medium were compared to stmdksA-expressing controls.

four-cysteine (C4) zinc finger motif proposed to serve a structural purpose essential to protein function (5). The recently resolved structure of a two-cysteine, zinc-deficient (C2) DksA orthologue, however, indicates that the zinc finger motif is not needed for protein structure or canonical regulation of the stringent response (8). Indeed, four- and two-cysteine DksA orthologues each access the secondary channel of RNAP, mediate similar mechanisms of transcriptional regulation, and functionally complement one another in bacteria experiencing nutritional limitation (8, 9). Variations in cysteine and zinc content, however, may distinctly impact the reported capacity of DksA to sense reactive oxygen species (ROS) and reactive nitrogen species (RNS) (10).

ROS and RNS, prominent antimicrobial effectors of innate host defense, damage an array of biomolecules in the microbial cell, causing disruptions in metabolism, protein synthesis, and the maintenance of DNA integrity (11). Many of the bacterial tactics used to counter oxidative and nitrosative stress are controlled by redox-active transcriptional regulators that induce the expression of protective detoxification, repair, and metabolic programs (12, 13). Recent work by our laboratory has demonstrated that cysteine thiol groups (R-SH) in the zinc finger motif of the DksA of Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium (stmDksA) sense ROS and RNS (10). Oxidative or nitrosative modification of stmDksA sensory thiols triggers a loss of protein α -helicity and release of the coordinated zinc ion (10). The transcriptional response mediated by oxidized stmDksA in vivo is characterized by the downregulation of genes encoding translational machinery, as well as amino acid biosynthesis and transport (10, 14). DksA has also been shown to regulate the synthesis of glutathione (GSH) and

support NAD(P)H/NAD(P)⁺ redox balance through regulatory control of discrete steps in the pentose phosphate pathway and tricarboxylic acid cycle (15). This regulatory profile is distinct from the stringent response, independent of ppGpp, and reversible by the reducing agent dithiothreitol (DTT) (14, 15). Collectively, adaptive changes mediated by oxidized stmDksA appear to promote redox buffering and biomolecule repair, thereby supporting *Salmonella* resistance to oxidative and nitrosative stress.

We hypothesized that the capacity of DksA to sense ROS and RNS is conserved among disparate DksA orthologues and that variations in cysteine and zinc content differentially influence this function. Site-directed mutagenesis of sensory cysteine residues has been used to distinguish functional roles in a number of thiolbased sensors. This approach, however, cannot reasonably be used to examine DksA function, as mutagenesis of cysteine residues in the hinge region of DksA abolishes transcriptional control and results in $\Delta dksA$ phenotypic traits (4, 9). Here, we have taken advantage of the natural variation among DksA orthologues to test our hypothesis. This approach has provided a unique opportunity to examine the conservation of redox-active sensing among DksA orthologues, investigate the role of the thiol microenvironment in sensing reactive species, and apply these insights to the ability of DksA to promote bacterial pathogenesis in macrophage and murine models of infection.

RESULTS

Functional complementation of stringent control by C4 and C2 DksA orthologues in *Salmonella*. Four-cysteine, zinc-binding (C4) and two-cysteine, zinc-deficient (C2) orthologues of DksA maintain analogous structures (Fig. 1A) and interact similarly with RNAP (5, 8, 9). Pseudomonas aeruginosa encodes both a C4type DksA (paDksA) and a C2-type DksA (paDksA2) paralogue (8, 9). These proteins display similarity to stmDksA (see Fig. S1 in the supplemental material), and each mediates stringent control in vivo (9); however, differences in thiol content and zinc coordination within the hinge region of these proteins (Fig. 1B) are likely to influence the sensing of reactive species. To examine this possibility, we placed codon-optimized padksA and padksA2 (see Fig. S2) under the control of the native stmdksA promoter and cloned these alleles into the chromosome of $\Delta dksA$ Salmonella. The expression of padksA and padksA2 by Salmonella was indistinguishable from that of stmdksA in both the logarithmic and stationary phases of growth (see Fig. S3A). The production of guanosine pentaphosphate and tetraphosphate in response to the amino acid analog serine hydroxymate (SHX), which elicits stringent control (16), was also equal among stmdksA-, padksA-, and padksA2-expressing Salmonella (Fig. 1C). Moreover, complementation with either padksA or padksA2 relieved amino acid auxotrophy in $\Delta dksA$ Salmonella grown on minimal E salts glucose (EG) agar (Fig. 1D, top) or liquid medium (Fig. 1E, middle). Bacterial growth in Luria-Bertani (LB; Fig. 1E, left) or EG medium supplemented with 0.1% Casamino Acids (EGCA; Fig. 1E, right) was also indistinguishable among Salmonella expressing stmdksA, padksA, or padksA2. These data demonstrate that both paDksA and paDksA2 mediate appropriate stringent control in Salmonella experiencing nutritional limitation and are consistent with similar observations made in Escherichia coli and P. aeruginosa that have shown that variations in cysteine and zinc content do not affect regulatory control of the stringent response (9).

Susceptibility of Salmonella expressing C4 or C2 DksA orthologues to oxidative and nitrosative stress. We next investigated the abilities of padksA- and padksA2-expressing Salmonella to resist oxidative killing by hydrogen peroxide (H2O2) (Fig. 2A) and the bacteriostatic effects of nitric oxide ('NO) (Fig. 2B). Salmonella expressing stmdksA or padksA displayed comparable levels of resistance to oxidative and nitrosative stress, indicating that the ability of DksA to promote bacterial defense against ROS and RNS is conserved among C4 orthologues. In contrast, Salmonella expressing padksA2 were hypersusceptible to the antimicrobial effects of H_2O_2 and the 'NO donor (Z)-1-[N-(2-aminoethyl)-N-(2-ammonioethyl)amino]diazen-1-ium-1,2-diolate (DETA NONOate [dNO]). We previously reported that $\Delta dksA$ Salmonella exhibit diminished levels of the cellular antioxidant GSH (15). Consistent with this determination, $\Delta dksA$ Salmonella demonstrated a more oxidized intrabacterial redox environment in the absence of oxidative stress, as determined by using the redox-sensitive green fluorescent protein roGFP2 (Fig. 2C) (17). In contrast, Salmonella expressing stmdksA, padksA, or padksA2 displayed comparably reduced redox potentials. This observation indicates that the increased susceptibility of padksA2-expressing Salmonella to ROS and RNS is due to flawed antioxidative and antinitrosative responses, not deficiencies in basal reducing power.

Thiol reactivity among C4 and C2 DksA orthologues. Redoxactive sensory cysteine residues are typically maintained as an unprotonated thiolate (R^-S^-) that is stabilized via interactions with specific features of the protein microenvironment, including hydrogen bond networks and metal cofactors (18, 19). To determine whether paDksA2 is capable of sensing reactive species, we examined thiol reactivity toward the ROS H₂O₂ and the RNS peroxyni-



FIG 2 Bacterial susceptibility to the antimicrobial effects of ROS and RNS. (A) Bacteria were treated with H_2O_2 , and survival was measured by CFU determination. Data, expressed as the percentage of the result for the respective untreated control, are the means \pm SEM (n = 3). ***, P < 0.001, and ns, nonsignificant, compared to the results for analogously treated stm*dksA*-expressing *Salmonella*. (B) Bacteria were treated with 300 μ M of the 'NO donor dNO, and OD₆₀₀ was measured over time. Data are the means \pm SEM (n = 3). P < 0.001 when the results for pa*dksA2*- and stm*dksA*-expressing *Salmonella* were compared. (C) Relative intrabacterial redox potential was determined using roGFP2 and is expressed as the normalized ratios of the emission signals at 510 nm obtained by excitation at 405 and 480 nm; increased ratiometric fluorescence indicates a more oxidizing intrabacterial environment. Data are the means \pm SEM (n = 3). ***, P < 0.001, and ns, nonsignificant, compared to the results for untreated, stm*dksA*-expressing *Salmonella* to the results for and expressing *Salmonella* were compared. (C) Relative intrabacterial redox potential was determined using roGFP2 and is expressed as the normalized ratios of the emission signals at 510 nm obtained by excitation at 405 and 480 nm; increased ratiometric fluorescence indicates a more oxidizing intrabacterial environment. Data are the means \pm SEM (n = 3). ***, P < 0.001, and ns, nonsignificant, compared to the results for untreated, stm*dksA*-expressing *Salmonella*.

trite, the sum of peroxynitrous acid (ONOOH) and peroxynitrite anion (ONOO⁻). Each of these molecules has been shown previously to modify cysteine thiols in stmDksA (10).

Thiol oxidation with H₂O₂ was quantified over time for recombinant stmDksA, paDksA, and paDksA2 (Fig. 3A). The pseudo-first-order rate constant (k_{obs}) was plotted against the H₂O₂ concentration (see Fig. S4A in the supplemental material) to obtain the second-order rate constant (k) for each protein. The preceding kinetic analysis demonstrated paDksA2 ($k = 65.1 \pm$ $2.5 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ [mean \pm 95% confidence interval]) to be more readily modified with H_2O_2 than stmDksA ($k = 0.64 \pm 0.03 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) and paDksA ($k = 1.33 \pm 0.05 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$). The reactivities of paDksA and paDksA2 toward peroxynitrite were also assessed and showed paDksA ($k = 2,420 \pm 60 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) and paDksA2 (k = $1,430 \pm 95 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) to react similarly with peroxynitrite (see Fig. S4B). Interestingly, the extent of thiol modification mediated by equimolar treatment with peroxynitrite was observed to be greater for paDksA2 than for zinc-bound stmDksA and paDksA (Fig. 3B). These data demonstrate that cysteine thiols in the hinge region of paDksA2 are modifiable by ROS and RNS. This conclusion indicates that thiol-based sensing of ROS and RNS is a conserved function of DksA regardless of zinc coordination.

The increased sensitivity of paDksA2 thiols toward reactive species compared to the sensitivities of the zinc-coordinating thiols of stmDksA and paDksA raises the possibility that the Zn²⁺



FIG 3 Thiol reactivities of stmDksA, paDksA, and paDksA2 toward H_2O_2 and peroxynitrite. Thiol oxidation in the indicated recombinant DksA proteins (50 μ M) at 37°C and pH 7.4 was determined by the loss of DTNB labeling. The percentage of total thiol content is expressed relative to the results for DTT-reduced controls. (A) DksA proteins were treated with H_2O_2 , and thiol consumption was measured over time. Data are the means \pm SEM (n = 3 or 4). The data were fitted to an exponential function, and the k_{obs} values obtained were used to determine rate constants (see Fig. S4A in the supplemental material). (B) DksA proteins were treated with equimolar concentrations of peroxynitrite for 5 min. Data are the means \pm SEM (n = 3). ***, P < 0.001 compared to the results for stmDksA. (C) Reduced zinc-bound and zinc-deficient stmDksA proteins were treated with P_{2O_2} , swere treated with P_{2O_2} , and thiol consumption was measured over time. Data are the means \pm standard deviations (SD) (n = 2). ***, P < 0.001 compared to the results for zinc-bound stmDksA. (D) Reduced zinc-bound and zinc-deficient stmDksA proteins were treated with P_{2O_2} , swere treated with P_{2O_2} , swere treated with P_{2O_2} , swere treated with P_{2O_2} , P < 0.001 compared to the results for zinc-bound stmDksA. (D) Reduced zinc-bound and zinc-deficient stmDksA proteins were treated with P_{2O_2} , P < 0.001 compared to the results for zinc-bound stmDksA. (D) Reduced zinc-bound and zinc-deficient stmDksA proteins were treated with P_{2O_2} , P < 0.001 when zinc-deficient stmDksA proteins were treated with P_{2O_2} , P < 0.001 when zinc-bound and zinc-deficient stmDksA proteins were compared.

cofactor acts as an antioxidant that increases the threshold of thiol reactivity in C4 DksA orthologues. To directly test this notion, we compared thiol oxidation between zinc-bound and zinc-deficient stmDksA. The Zn²⁺ cofactor of stmDksA was removed by treatment with the reversible thiol-reactive agent S-methyl methanethiosulfonate (MMTS). Treatment of stmDksA with MMTS resulted in the complete release of coordinated zinc (see Fig. S4C in the supplemental material). Subsequent reduction with DTT restored the original free thiol content, yielding reduced, zincdeficient stmDksA (see Fig. S4D). Importantly, we have previously shown, by circular dichroism, that reduced, zinc-deficient stmDksA retains the secondary structure of the zinc-bound protein (10). Exposure of zinc-deficient stmDksA to air resulted in considerable thiol oxidation (Fig. 3C). The thiols of zinc-deficient stmDksA were also hypersensitive to oxidation with H2O2 as measured in an anaerobic chamber (Fig. 3D). Taken together, these investigations demonstrate that the coordination of zinc in C4 DksA orthologues mediates an antioxidant function that increases the threshold of thiol modification.

Transcriptional regulation by C4 and C2 DksA orthologues in *Salmonella* **experiencing oxidative or nitrosative stress.** That *Salmonella* expressing paDksA2 are more susceptible to the antimicrobial effects of ROS and RNS, despite the ability of this C2 DksA orthologue to detect reactive species, suggests that paDksA2 misregulates the adaptive response of *Salmonella* experiencing oxidative or nitrosative stress. To investigate this prospect, we examined changes in gene expression in response to ROS and RNS using quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR). These analyses focused on transcriptional changes among *livJ*, which encodes a component of the branched-chain amino acid transport system, as well as *rplU* and *rpsM*, which encode ribosomal proteins. Each of these genes has been shown to be down-regulated in a DksA-dependent fashion in *Salmonella* experiencing oxidative or nitrosative stress (10, 15).

As Salmonella expressing paDksA2 are hypersusceptible to the bactericidal effects of H2O2, we examined the transcriptional changes that occur in response to 15 μ M H₂O₂. At this concentration of H₂O₂, stmdksA-, padksA-, and padksA2-expressing Salmonella each experienced a comparable level of oxidative stress (Fig. 2C; see also Fig. S5A in the supplemental material) and maintained viability (Fig. 2A). Transcriptional analysis showed that padksA2-expressing Salmonella underwent significantly greater down-regulation of *livJ*, *rplU*, and *rpsM* upon exposure to H₂O₂ than did stmdksA- and padksA-expressing bacteria (Fig. 4A). Salmonella expressing stmdksA or padksA responded similarly to one another upon treatment, and changes in gene expression were consistent with the use of suboptimal levels of H₂O₂ for triggering responses from zinc-bound C4 DksA orthologues. As anticipated, treatment of stmdksA- and padksA-expressing Salmonella with higher levels of H_2O_2 (100 μ M) resulted in the down-regulation of livJ, rplU, and rpsM expression to levels comparable to those mediated by paDksA2 at 15 μ M H₂O₂ (see Fig. S5C). To determine



FIG 4 DksA-dependent transcriptional responses to ROS *in vivo* and *in vitro*. (A) Target gene expression levels, normalized to the expression of the house-keeping gene *rpoD*, in bacteria treated with 15 μ M H₂O₂ are expressed as the percentage of the result for the respective untreated control. Data are the means \pm SEM (n = 3). *, P < 0.05, and ns, nonsignificant, compared to the results for stm*dksA*-expressing *Salmonella*. Representative transcript levels for untreated and H₂O₂-treated bacteria are reported in Fig. S5B in the supplemental material. (B) *In vitro* transcription from *PlivJ* was measured in reaction mixtures containing RNAP and the indicated reduced (red.) or 50 μ M H₂O₂-treated DksA proteins. The image shown is representative of the results of 3 experiments. (C) *In vitro* differences in regulatory control were quantified by densitometry. Data [(oxidized/reduced) × 100] are the means \pm SEM (n = 3). **, P < 0.01 compared to the results for gaDksA.

whether the disparate transcriptional responses mediated by C4 and C2 DksA orthologues to H_2O_2 reflect direct effects on transcription, we compared the ability of reduced or oxidized paDksA and paDksA2 to regulate *in vitro* transcription from the *livJ* promoter (*PlivJ*) (Fig. 4B and C). As previously reported (10), RNAP alone was unable to initiate transcription from *PlivJ*. The inclusion of reduced paDksA or paDksA2 activated transcription, consistent with the ability of each of these proteins to direct stringent control *in vivo*. Upon oxidation with 50 μ M H₂O₂, paDksA2 but not paDksA mediated a marked reduction in *PlivJ* transcription.

In vivo and in vitro transcriptional analyses were also performed to define RNS-mediated changes in gene expression. Exposure to 25 μ M of the 'NO donor spermine NONOate (sNO) did not affect the growth of either padksA- or padksA2-expressing Salmonella (see Fig. S6A in the supplemental material). The expression of livJ, rplU, and rpsM was down-regulated in padksA2expressing Salmonella upon treatment with sNO (Fig. 5A). Bacteria expressing padksA also exhibited reduced transcription of *livJ*, rplU, and rpsM; however, these effects were milder than those observed for padksA2 organisms. Similar results were observed when dNO was used as the 'NO donor (see Fig. S6B). In vitro transcription from PlivJ was also examined for paDksA and paDksA2 in response to the RNS peroxynitrite (Fig. 5B and C). Peroxynitrite treatment of these DksA orthologues resulted in transcriptional down-regulation, particularly by paDksA2. Cumulatively, our investigations demonstrate that C4 and C2 DksA orthologues facilitate similar regulatory outputs in response to ROS and RNS; however, the C2 DksA orthologue paDksA2 does



FIG 5 DksA-dependent transcriptional response to RNS *in vivo* and *in vitro*. (A) Target gene expression levels, normalized to that of the housekeeping gene *rpoD*, in bacteria treated with 25 μ M sNO are expressed as the percentage of the result for the respective untreated control. Data are the means \pm SEM (n = 3). *, P < 0.05, and **, P < 0.01, compared to the results for padksA-expressing Salmonella. Representative transcript levels for untreated and sNO-treated bacteria are reported in Fig. S6C in the supplemental material. (B) *In vitro* transcription from *PlivJ* was measured in reaction mixtures containing RNAP and the indicated reduced (red.) or 25 μ M peroxynitrite-treated DksA proteins. The image shown is representative of the results of 3 experiments. (C) *In vitro* differences in regulatory control were quantified by densitometry. Data [(oxidized/reduced) \times 100] are the means \pm SEM (n = 3). ***, P < 0.001 compared to the results for paDksA.

so at lower levels of oxidative or nitrosative stress. These findings are consistent with the notion that the thiol microenvironment of DksA governs the oxidative/nitrosative threshold at which DksAdependent transcriptional responses are triggered and that differences in the hinge region of disparate DksA orthologues directly influence this quality.

Virulence of Salmonella expressing C4 or C2 DksA orthologues. The ability of Salmonella to survive and replicate in macrophages following phagocytosis is an essential aspect of pathogenesis and requires that Salmonella respond effectively to nutritional limitation (20). To test the capacity of paDksA and paDksA2 to support intracellular survival and replication, we infected J774 macrophage-like cells with $\Delta dksA$ -, stmdksA-, padksA-, and padksA2-expressing Salmonella. Importantly, under the experimental conditions examined here, the amount of superoxide $(O_2^{\cdot-})$ produced by J774 cells in response to bacterial infection or treatment with phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate is under the limit of detection by lucigenin-mediated chemiluminescence (see Fig. S7A in the supplemental material). The absence of a respiratory burst permits the specific study of nutritional challenges encountered by Salmonella within host cells, independent of oxidative stress. As expected due to their inability to mediate stringent control, $\Delta dksA$ bacteria were incapable of intracellular growth in J774 cells (Fig. 6A). Salmonella expressing stmdksA, padksA, or padksA2 survived and replicated intracellularly, validating the presence of a functional stringent response and the ability to overcome intracellular nutritional limitation. We next examined bacterial survival within primary peritoneal macrophages isolated from immunocompetent C57BL/6 mice and capable of generating ROS and RNS or from congenic gp91phox^{-/-}



FIG 6 ROS- and RNS-dependent disparities in the abilities of C4 and C2 DksA orthologues to functionally complement *Salmonella* pathogenesis *in vivo*. (A) Intracellular replication in J774 cells 20 h postinfection as measured by CFU determination. Data, expressed as fold change compared to the number of intracellular bacteria determined 2 h after infection, are the means \pm SEM (n = 3). ***, P < 0.001, and ns, nonsignificant, compared to the results for stm*dksA*-expressing *Salmonella*. (B) Intracellular survival and replication of *Salmonella* in C57BL/6 and gp91phox^{-/-} primary macrophages was determined by CFU determination. Data, expressed as CFU/ml, are the means \pm SEM (n = 2 or 3). *, P < 0.05 compared to the results for stm*dksA*-expressing *Salmonella*. (D) Mortality among C57BL/6 mice challenged with the indicated bacteria. Percent survival represents combined mortality from 12 to 15 mice per group; ***, P < 0.001 compared to the results for stm*dksA*-expressing *Salmonella*. (D and E) Mortality among gp91phox^{-/-} mice represents combined data from 6 to 8 mice per group. P = 0.49 and P < 0.001 when pa*dksA2*- and stm*dksA*-expressing *Salmonella* were compared in gp91phox^{-/-} and iNOS^{-/-} mice, respectively.

animals unable to generate O_2^{--} (see Fig. S7B and C). Survival within immunocompetent macrophages was significantly reduced among $\Delta dksA$ and padksA2-expressing Salmonella compared to the survival of stmdksA- and padksA-expressing bacteria (Fig. 6B). In the absence of phagocyte-derived O_2^{--} , Salmonella expressing padksA2 were able to survive and replicate. In contrast, while $\Delta dksA$ bacteria were able to survive in gp91phox^{-/-} macrophages, these bacteria were still unable to replicate, likely as a consequence of their inability to overcome the nutritional restrictions imposed by the host cells.

We also examined the virulence of $\Delta dksA$, stmdksA-, padksA-, and padksA2-expressing Salmonella in a murine model of acute infection (Fig. 6C). Salmonella deficient in DksA cannot respond appropriately to nutritional limitation or oxidative/nitrosative stress and were observed to be severely attenuated. Salmonella expressing paDksA, which is capable of appropriately mediating both nutritional and oxidative/nitrosative responses in the context of Salmonella, demonstrated virulence equivalent to that of stmdksA-expressing bacteria. The virulence of Salmonella expressing paDksA2 was intermediate to the preceding phenotypes. This observation is in agreement with the ability of Salmonella expressing paDksA2 to respond appropriately to nutritional stress, but not to oxidative and nitrosative stress. Indeed, the attenuation observed for Salmonella expressing paDksA2 in immunocompetent mice was fully relieved in gp91phox^{-/-} mice (Fig. 6D). Attenuation was also diminished in iNOS^{-/-} mice (Fig. 6E). The

incomplete restoration of virulence by *Salmonella* expressing paDksA2 in iNOS^{-/-} mice is likely owed to the increased production of $O_2^{\cdot-}$ observed in this host background during infection (21). Taken together, the results of these investigations indicate that Gram-negative bacteria harbor DksA orthologues that are finely tuned to sense and respond to the levels of oxidative and nitrosative stress encountered in their particular environmental niches.

DISCUSSION

The bacterial RNAP regulator DksA orchestrates metabolic adaptation in response to antimicrobial pressures encountered in natural and host environments. Although highly conserved in Gramnegative bacteria, DksA proteins maintain hinge regions that vary in cysteine and zinc content. Our investigations have revealed that these variations differentially govern the threshold at which DksA proteins respond to reactive species, suggesting that the natural disparity inherent among DksA orthologues reflects a mechanism to influence the redox-active sensory function of DksA while preserving canonical stringent control. In particular, the absence of the Zn^{2+} cofactor in paDksA2, or its removal from stmDksA, is associated with increased thiol reactivity, demonstrating that zinc serves an antioxidant function in C4 DksA orthologues. This function is similar to the role of zinc in the redox-sensitive anti-sigma factor RsrA (22) and supports theoretical considerations that have suggested that zinc coordination by thiol groups limits nucleophilicity, thereby raising the free energy barrier of oxidative modification and dampening thiol reactivity (23). Differences in reactivity among C4 and C2 DksA orthologues may also be influenced by other local determinants of thiol reactivity, such as hydrogen bond networks and charged amino acid residues (19). Cumulatively, it appears that distinct variations in the thiol microenvironment of DksA sensory cysteine residues finely tune the threshold at which DksA proteins respond to oxidative and nitrosative stress.

Oxidized C4 and C2 DksA orthologues mediate similar transcriptional responses, indicating that the adaptive changes mediated by DksA in response to oxidative and nitrosative stress are a generalizable survival strategy. However, paDksA2 failed to direct appropriate antioxidative and antinitrosative responses in Salmonella and was not well suited for promoting the fitness of this enteropathogen in macrophage and murine models of infection. Our observations indicate that the capacity of DksA to appropriately sense and respond to host-derived ROS and RNS contributes to Salmonella pathogenesis. Moreover, the underperformance of the C2 orthologue paDksA2 in Salmonella was associated with hypersensitivity toward reactive species, suggesting that the threshold of sensing of oxidative or nitrosative stress by DksA orthologues is important to the promotion of bacterial fitness. Taking into account estimated intrabacterial thiol concentrations and rates of oxidation (see Table S1 in the supplemental material), the C4 orthologues stmDksA and paDksA (~0.10 \times 10⁻³ s⁻¹) react with H₂O₂ less efficiently than does the principle cellular reductant GSH (0.87 \times 10⁻³ s⁻¹) at physiological pH (24). The presence of 1 to 3 mM GSH in the bacterial cell would therefore be expected to protect the 25 μ M of C4 DksA protein reportedly in the cytoplasm of Gram-negative bacteria from steady-state intracellular H_2O_2 concentrations estimated to be ~20 nM (25–27). The 15 to 40 μ M of H₂O₂ generated in the inflammatory response to Salmonella consumes GSH (15, 28). The resulting drop in redox buffering capacity may allow for the oxidation of C4 DksA thiols, thus inducing DksA-mediated antioxidative and antinitrosative defenses critical to reestablishing reducing power and promoting Salmonella pathogenesis. In contrast to the zinc-bound C4 orthologues, paDksA2 $(3.26 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1})$ would be a preferred target for thiol oxidation with H₂O₂ compared to GSH. Therefore, in the context of Salmonella, the increased sensitivity of paDksA2 toward ROS and RNS may undermine pathogenesis by inappropriately triggering transcriptional changes at levels of oxidative and nitrosative stress tolerated by C4 DksA proteins. Along these lines, it is important to note that the respiratory burst of host phagocytes does not end abruptly; rather, the production of O_2^{-} diminishes over several hours as measured by lucigenin- or luminoldependent chemiluminescence (21). This observation, taken together with the hyperreactivity of paDksA2, may suggest that the adaptive changes mediated by paDksA2 in response to reactive species inappropriately persist during association with phagocytes, perhaps explaining the attenuation of Salmonella expressing paDksA2 in macrophage and murine models of infection.

P. aeruginosa is an extremely versatile bacterium, capable of colonizing an extensive range of environmental and host niches. It has been shown that *Pseudomonas* preferentially employs paDksA2 under zinc-limited growth conditions (9), indicating that which DksA paralog *Pseudomonas* utilizes might be dictated by environmental cues. The more sensitive C2 paralog paDksA2 might be advantageous for monitoring redox homeostasis during the colonization of hypoxic environments met by *P. aeruginosa* in

soil and cystic fibrosis lesions (29). The notion that DksA proteins might be specialized according to the levels of oxidative stress experienced by bacteria in their environments is similar to the preferential utilization of specific PerR orthologues according to the reactivity of these sensory regulators (30). DksA and PerR exemplify the novel realization that the sensory activity of redoxactive regulatory proteins is finely tuned to the levels of reactive species encountered by bacteria.

The unique biochemical features of the amino acid cysteine are utilized in protein structure, redox-based sensing, enzymatic catalysis, and metal coordination. While all known DksA orthologues maintain distinct hinge regions, containing one, two, or four cysteine residues, variations in cysteine content seem to have little effect on DksA structure or regulatory control (8, 9). Mutagenesis of these cysteine residues, however, invariably disrupts the structural integrity of DksA and abolishes transcriptional control (4, 8, 9). Structural analyses of C4 and C2 DksA orthologues have demonstrated DksA to have a small, marginally stable hydrophobic core (5, 8). It has been proposed that cysteine residues in the hinge region of DksA, regardless of zinc coordination, may promote structural integrity, especially in regard to the orientations of the globular and coiled-coil domains (5, 8). Thus, the conservation of cysteine residues in all DksA orthologues may serve interdependent roles in structure and redox-active sensing. The changes in α -helical content that occur upon oxidative or nitrosative modification of DksA support this interdependence (10). Posttranslational modification of DksA by ROS or RNS may trigger conformational changes that influence interaction with RNAP and result in altered transcriptional control. This proposed mechanism is generally consistent with a number of prokaryotic and eukaryotic redox-active transcription factors that display reversible ROS- and RNS-dependent structural changes associated with altered regulatory profiles (12, 13, 31). DksA-dependent transcriptional changes mediated in response to ROS and RNS could also result from the functional inactivation of this RNAP regulatory protein. Indeed, the induction of antioxidant programs by several redox-active transcriptional regulators, including RsrA and PerR, stems precisely from functional inactivation by reactive species (12, 31). If this were the case for DksA, however, we would expect to observe derepression among genes encoding ribosomal proteins, as these loci are repressed in a DksA-dependent manner. However, as illustrated by the results for *rpsM* and *rplU*, oxidized DksA further represses the expression of these genes. Additionally, transcriptional down-regulation from PlivJ by oxidized DksA in vitro is dose dependent in regard to DksA (10).

The reactivity of DksA proteins toward H_2O_2 is several orders of magnitude lower than that of dedicated peroxide sensors like OxyR or thiol-dependent peroxidases, which catalyze H_2O_2 and peroxynitrite reduction with rate constants of ~10⁵ to 10⁷ M⁻¹ s⁻¹ (12, 18, 19). Thus, it is possible that DksA thiol groups could be oxidized by bacterial peroxidases *in vivo*, as has been described for eukaryotic transcription factors such as Yap1 (32). The oxidation of DksA by bacterial peroxidases would form a robust redox relay approach by which to affect the integration of nutritional, oxidative, and nitrosative signals by DksA over a range of physiological conditions.

Collectively, our investigations suggest that individual Gramnegative bacterial species maintain DksA proteins that possess uniquely tailored sensory cysteine residues that are finely tuned by variations in the thiol microenvironment to the oxidative and nitrosative stresses encountered in their particular niches. These findings demonstrate an essential role for the variability observed among the hinge regions of DksA orthologues and raise the intriguing possibility that the specific control of thiol-based sensing is a critical driving force behind the molecular evolution of DksA.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Detailed descriptions of the methodologies and statistical analyses used in this study are provided in Text S1 in the supplemental material.

Bacterial strains. *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium strain 14028s and its derivatives used in this study are described in Table S2 in the supplemental material.

Growth conditions. Amino acid auxotrophies were examined by growth in EG medium. Unless otherwise noted, bacterial susceptibilities and transcriptional responses to ROS and RNS were examined in EGCA medium.

Measurement of (p)ppGpp and intrabacterial redox potential. The production of (p)ppGpp in nucleotide extracts isolated from radiolabeled bacteria treated with or without SHX was measured using formic acid extraction and separation by thin-layer chromatography. Intrabacterial redox potentials were determined by fluorescence measurement as reported for roGFP2 in *Salmonella* (17).

Transcriptional analysis. Changes in gene expression were determined by qPCR; the primers and probes used for these analyses are listed in Table S2 in the supplemental material. *In vitro* transcriptional analysis from PlivJ (-128 to +320) was performed as described previously by our laboratory (10). The resultant transcripts were resolved by electrophoresis and visualized by phosphorimaging.

Protein purification and measurement of thiol reactivity. The purification of recombinant stmDksA, paDksA, and paDksA2 was performed by glutathione *S*-transferase (GST) affinity isolation followed by size exclusion chromatography (10). Protein thiol reactivity toward H_2O_2 was determined using 5,5'-dithiobis-(2-nitrobenzoic acid) (DTNB) labeling of free thiol groups (24). Zinc-deficient stmDksA was prepared by treatment with MMTS, followed by reduction with DTT. The reactivities of paDksA and paDksA2 with peroxynitrite were determined using stopped-flow kinetics (33).

Macrophage isolation and animal challenges. All studies involving animals were reviewed and approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at the University of Colorado—Denver Anschutz Medical Campus, under protocol number 56413(07)1E. The levels of intracellular survival and replication of *Salmonella* were determined using a standard gentamicin protection assay with a multiplicity of infection of 10. *Salmonella* virulence in a murine model of acute infection was examined by inoculating mice with approximately 300 bacteria by intraperitoneal injection.

Statistical analysis. Statistical analysis and graphing were performed using GraphPad Prism 4.0 software; a *P* value of <0.05 was considered to be significant.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

Supplemental material for this article may be found at http://mbio.asm.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1128/mBio.02161-15/-/DCSupplemental.

- Figure S1, TIF file, 0.9 MB.
- Figure S2, TIF file, 2.9 MB.
- Figure S3, TIF file, 1.8 MB. Figure S4, TIF file, 3.8 MB.
- Figure S5, TIF file, 6.2 MB.
- Figure S6, TIF file, 4.6 MB.
- Figure S7, TIF file, 2.4 MB.
- Table S1, DOCX file, 0.01 MB.
- Table S2, DOCX file, 0.02 MB.
- Text S1, DOCX file, 0.05 MB.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank B. Brett Finlay for the roGFP2 vector pfpv25 and Claudia Colon-Echevarria for assistance with preliminary studies.

FUNDING INFORMATION

This work, including the efforts of Andres Vazquez-Torres, was funded by Veterans Administration (US) (IO1 BX002073). This work, including the efforts of Andres Vazquez-Torres, was funded by HHS | National Institutes of Health (NIH) (R01 AI54959). This work, including the efforts of Matthew Crawford, was funded by HHS | National Institutes of Health (NIH) (F32 AI108249). This work, including the efforts of Timothy Tapscott, was funded by HHS | National Institutes of Health (NIH) (T32 GM008730). This work, including the efforts of Liam F. Fitzsimmons, was funded by HHS | National Institutes of Health (NIH) (T32 AI108243). This work, including the efforts of Liam F. Fitzsimmons, was funded by HHS | National Institutes of Health (NIH) (T32 AI052066 and F31 AI118223). This work, including the efforts of Andres Vazquez-Torres, was funded by Burroughs Wellcome Fund (BWF).

The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

REFERENCES

- Dalebroux ZD, Swanson MS. 2012. ppGpp: magic beyond RNA polymerase. Nat Rev Microbiol 10:203–212. http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ nrmicro2720.
- Potrykus K, Cashel M. 2008. (p)ppGpp: still magical? Annu Rev Microbiol 62:35–51. http://dx.doi.org/10.1146/annurev.micro.62.081307.162903.
- Dalebroux ZD, Svensson SL, Gaynor EC, Swanson MS. 2010. ppGpp conjures bacterial virulence. Microbiol Mol Biol Rev 74:171–199. http:// dx.doi.org/10.1128/MMBR.00046-09.
- Paul BJ, Barker MM, Ross W, Schneider DA, Webb C, Foster JW, Gourse RL. 2004. DksA: a critical component of the transcription initiation machinery that potentiates the regulation of rRNA promoters by ppGpp and the initiating NTP. Cell 118:311–322. http://dx.doi.org/ 10.1016/j.cell.2004.07.009.
- Perederina A, Svetlov V, Vassylyeva MN, Tahirov TH, Yokoyama S, Artsimovitch I, Vassylyev DG. 2004. Regulation through the secondary channel—structural framework for ppGpp-DksA synergism during transcription. Cell 118:297–309. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2004.06.030.
- Lennon CW, Ross W, Martin-Tumasz S, Toulokhonov I, Vrentas CE, Rutherford ST, Lee JH, Butcher SE, Gourse RL. 2012. Direct interactions between the coiled-coil tip of DksA and the trigger loop of RNA polymerase mediate transcriptional regulation. Genes Dev 26:2634–2646. http:// dx.doi.org/10.1101/gad.204693.112.
- Haugen SP, Ross W, Gourse RL. 2008. Advances in bacterial promoter recognition and its control by factors that do not bind DNA. Nat Rev Microbiol 6:507–519. http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nrmicro1912.
- Furman R, Biswas T, Danhart EM, Foster MP, Tsodikov OV, Artsimovitch I. 2013. DksA2, a zinc-independent structural analog of the transcription factor DksA. FEBS Lett 587:614–619. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/ j.febslet.2013.01.073.
- Blaby-Haas CE, Furman R, Rodionov DA, Artsimovitch I, de Crécy-Lagard V. 2011. Role of a Zn-independent DksA in Zn homeostasis and stringent response. Mol Microbiol 79:700–715. http://dx.doi.org/ 10.1111/j.1365-2958.2010.07475.x.
- Henard CA, Tapscott T, Crawford MA, Husain M, Doulias PT, Porwollik S, Liu L, McClelland M, Ischiropoulos H, Vázquez-Torres A. 2014. The 4-cysteine zinc-finger motif of the RNA polymerase regulator DksA serves as a thiol switch for sensing oxidative and nitrosative stress. Mol Microbiol 91:790–804. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/mmi.12498.
- Fang FC. 2004. Antimicrobial reactive oxygen and nitrogen species: concepts and controversies. Nat Rev Microbiol 2:820-832. http://dx.doi.org/ 10.1038/nrmicro1004.
- Hillion M, Antelmann H. 2015. Thiol-based redox switches in prokaryotes. Biol Chem 396:415–444. http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/hsz-2015 -0102.
- Vázquez-Torres A. 2012. Redox active thiol sensors of oxidative and nitrosative stress. Antioxid Redox Signal 17:1201–1214. http://dx.doi.org/ 10.1089/ars.2012.4522.
- 14. Henard CA, Vázquez-Torres A. 2012. DksA-dependent resistance of Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium against the antimicrobial activity

of inducible nitric oxide synthase. Infect Immun 80:1373–1380. http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/IAI.06316-11.

- Henard CA, Bourret TJ, Song M, Vázquez-Torres A. 2010. Control of redox balance by the stringent response regulatory protein promotes antioxidant defenses of *Salmonella*. J Biol Chem 285:36785–36793. http:// dx.doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M110.160960.
- 16. Pizer LI, Merlie JP. 1973. Effect of serine hydroxamate on phospholipid synthesis in *Escherichia coli*. J Bacteriol 114:980–987.
- Van der Heijden J, Bosman ES, Reynolds LA, Finlay BB. 2015. Direct measurement of oxidative and nitrosative stress dynamics in *Salmonella* inside macrophages. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 112:560–565. http:// dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1414569112.
- Netto LE, de Oliveira MA, Monteiro G, Demasi AP, Cussiol JR, Discola KF, Demasi M, Silva GM, Alves SV, Faria VG, Horta BB. 2007. Reactive cysteine in proteins: protein folding, antioxidant defense, redox signaling and more. Comp Biochem Physiol C Toxicol Pharmacol 146:180–193. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cbpc.2006.07.014.
- Ferrer-Sueta G, Manta B, Botti H, Radi R, Trujillo M, Denicola A. 2011. Factors affecting protein thiol reactivity and specificity in peroxide reduction. Chem Res Toxicol 24:434–450. http://dx.doi.org/10.1021/ tx100413v.
- Fields PI, Swanson RV, Haidaris CG, Heffron F. 1986. Mutants of Salmonella typhimurium that cannot survive within the macrophage are avirulent. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 83:5189–5193. http://dx.doi.org/ 10.1073/pnas.83.14.5189.
- Vazquez-Torres A, Jones-Carson J, Mastroeni P, Ischiropoulos H, Fang FC. 2000. Antimicrobial actions of the NADPH phagocyte oxidase and inducible nitric oxide synthase in experimental salmonellosis. I. Effects on microbial killing by activated peritoneal macrophages in vitro. J Exp Med 192:227–236. http://dx.doi.org/10.1084/jem.192.2.227.
- Li W, Bottrill AR, Bibb MJ, Buttner MJ, Paget MS, Kleanthous C. 2003. The role of zinc in the disulphide stress-regulated anti-sigma factor RsrA from *Streptomyces coelicolor*. J Mol Biol 333:461–472. http://dx.doi.org/ 10.1016/j.jmb.2003.08.038.
- 23. Kassim R, Ramseyer C, Enescu M. 2011. Oxidation of zinc-thiolate complexes of biological interest by hydrogen peroxide: a theoretical study. Inorg Chem 50:5407–5416. http://dx.doi.org/10.1021/ic200267x.
- 24. Winterbourn CC, Metodiewa D. 1999. Reactivity of biologically im-

portant thiol compounds with superoxide and hydrogen peroxide. Free Radic Biol Med 27:322–328. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0891 -5849(99)00051-9.

- Owens RA, Hartman PE. 1986. Export of glutathione by some widely used Salmonella *typhimurium* and *Escherichia coli* strains. J Bacteriol 168: 109–114.
- Rutherford ST, Lemke JJ, Vrentas CE, Gaal T, Ross W, Gourse RL. 2007. Effects of DksA, GreA, and GreB on transcription initiation: insights into the mechanisms of factors that bind in the secondary channel of RNA polymerase. J Mol Biol 366:1243–1257. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/ j.jmb.2006.12.013.
- Seaver LC, Imlay JA. 2001. Hydrogen peroxide fluxes and compartmentalization inside growing *Escherichia coli*. J Bacteriol 183:7182–7189. http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JB.183.24.7182-7189.2001.
- Winterbourn CC, Hampton MB, Livesey JH, Kettle AJ. 2006. Modeling the reactions of superoxide and myeloperoxidase in the neutrophil phagosome: implications for microbial killing. J Biol Chem 281: 39860–39869. http://dx.doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M605898200.
- Worlitzsch D, Tarran R, Ulrich M, Schwab U, Cekici A, Meyer KC, Birrer P, Bellon G, Berger J, Weiss T, Botzenhart K, Yankaskas JR, Randell S, Boucher RC, Döring G. 2002. Effects of reduced mucus oxygen concentration in airway *Pseudomonas* infections of cystic fibrosis patients. J Clin Invest 109:317–325. http://dx.doi.org/10.1172/JCI13870.
- Ji CJ, Kim JH, Won YB, Lee YE, Choi TW, Ju SY, Youn H, Helmann JD, Lee JW. 2015. *Staphylococcus aureus* PerR is a hypersensitive hydrogen peroxide sensor using iron-mediated histidine oxidation. J Biol Chem 290:20374–20386. http://dx.doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M115.664961.
- Antelmann H, Helmann JD. 2011. Thiol-based redox switches and gene regulation. Antioxid Redox Signal 14:1049–1063. http://dx.doi.org/ 10.1089/ars.2010.3400.
- Delaunay A, Pflieger D, Barrault MB, Vinh J, Toledano MB. 2002. A thiol peroxidase is an H₂O₂ receptor and redox-transducer in gene activation. Cell 111:471-481. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0092 -8674(02)01048-6.
- 33. Alvarez B, Ferrer-Sueta G, Freeman BA, Radi R. 1999. Kinetics of peroxynitrite reaction with amino acids and human serum albumin. J Biol Chem 274:842–848.