Development and utilization of *Treponema pallidum* expressing green fluorescent protein to study spirochete-host interactions and antibody-mediated clearance: expanding the toolbox for syphilis research.

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1 Syphilis is a sexually transmitted infection caused by the highly invasive and immunoevasive 2 spirochetal pathogen Treponema pallidum subsp. pallidum (TPA). Untreated syphilis can lead to 3 infection of multiple organ systems, including the central nervous system. The alarming increase 4 in syphilis cases globally underscores the importance of developing novel strategies to 5 understand the complexities of syphilis pathogenesis. In this study, we took advantage of recent 6 advances in *in vitro* cultivation and genetic manipulation of syphilis spirochetes to engineer a 7 TPA strain that constitutively expresses green fluorescent protein (GFP). GFP⁺ TPA grew 8 identically to the Nichols parent strain *in vitro* and exhibited wild-type infectivity in the rabbit 9 model. We then used the GFP⁺ strain to visualize TPA interactions with host cells during co-10 cultivation in vitro, within infected rabbit testes, and following opsonophagocytosis by murine 11 bone marrow-derived macrophages. Development of fluorescent strain also enabled us to 12 develop a flow cytometric-based assay to assess antibody-mediated damage to the spirochete's 13 fragile outer membrane (OM), demonstrating dose-dependent growth inhibition and OM 14 disruption in vitro. Notably, we observed greater OM disruption of GFP⁺ TPA with sera from 15 immune rabbits infected with the TPA Nichols strain compared to sera generated against the 16 genetically distinct SS14 strain. These latter findings highlight the importance of OM protein-17 specific antibody responses for clearance of TPA during syphilitic infection. The availability of 18 fluorescent TPA strains paves the way for future studies investigating spirochete-host 19 interactions as well as functional characterization of antibodies directed treponemal OM 20 proteins, the presumptive targets for protective immunity.

21 Importance

22 Syphilis, a sexually transmitted infection caused by Treponema pallidum (TPA), remains a 23 pressing threat to global public health. TPA has a remarkable and still poorly understood ability 24 to disseminate rapidly from the site of inoculation and establish persistent infection throughout 25 the body. Recent advances in in vitro cultivation and genetic manipulation of syphilis spirochetes 26 enabled the development of fluorescent TPA. In the study, we generated and characterized an 27 infectious TPA strain that constitutively expresses green fluorescent protein and used this strain 28 to visualize interaction of TPA with host cells and functionally characterize antibodies directed 29 against treponemal outer membrane proteins. Most notably, we assessed the ability of surface-30 bound antibodies to inhibit growth of TPA in vitro and/or disrupt the spirochete's fragile outer 31 membrane. Fluorescent TPA strains provide a powerful new tool for elucidating host-pathogen 32 interactions that enable the syphilis spirochete to establish infection and persistent long-term 33 within its obligate human host.

34

35 **Running Title:** Expanding the toolbox for basic and applied syphilis research.

36

37 Keywords

38 Treponema pallidum, syphilis, spirochetes, BamA, GFP, flow cytometry, opsonophagocytosis,

39 bone marrow-derived murine macrophages, bactericidal antibodies

40

41 Introduction

42 Syphilis is a complex, multi-phase sexually transmitted disease caused by the highly invasive 43 and immunoevasive spirochete Treponema pallidum subsp. pallidum (TPA) (1, 2). Following 44 colonization of skin and mucosal surfaces, early and widespread hematogenous dissemination 45 of spirochetes is the rule during acquired human syphilis, as evidenced by the many organ 46 systems, including the central nervous system, TPA invades to establish persistent, often 47 lifelong, infection (1, 2). No form of the disease better exemplifies TPA's invasiveness than 48 gestational syphilis (2, 3). When syphilis is acquired during pregnancy, TPA readily penetrates 49 the fetal-placental barrier, often giving rise to serious consequences in the unborn offspring, 50 including demise of the fetus or neonate (2, 4). Despite efforts by the Centers for Disease 51 Control and Prevention (CDC) and World Health Organization to curtail the spread of syphilis, 52 its incidence continues to increase in the United States and worldwide (1, 2, 5, 6). As of 2022, 53 the last year for which complete data are available from the CDC, more than 200,000 cases of 54 syphilis were reported in the United States, representing a ~17% increase compared to 2021 55 (7). The same year also saw 3,761 reported cases of congenital syphilis, a ~32% increase from 56 2021 (8). These alarming trends underscore the importance of developing novel approaches to 57 better understand the complexities of syphilis pathogenesis and the mechanisms underlying 58 protective immune responses (1, 2).

59 The historical inability to propagate *TPA* continuously *in vitro* has been a major roadblock 60 for developing genetic tools to identify TPA virulence determinants and characterize host-61 pathogen interactions in vitro and in the experimental rabbit model (9, 10). In 1981, Fieldsteel, 62 Cox, and Moeckli (11) reported that coculture of TPA with Sf1Ep cottontail rabbit skin epithelial 63 cells in modified tissue culture media under microaerophilic conditions improved survival of TPA 64 in vitro, supporting up to 100-fold multiplication, but could not sustain growth long-term. 65 Subsequent refinement of this coculture system by Edmondson, Norris, and colleagues (12) in 66 2018 enabled reproducible, long-term replication of TPA in vitro. This groundbreaking

67 accomplishment was followed not long after by the first reported genetic manipulation of in vitrocultivated TPA by chemical transformation (13, 14). Bacteria genetically modified to express 68 69 fluorescent reporters have been instrumental for tracking pathogens, including other 70 spirochetes, as they bind to and penetrate diverse cell types and tissues in vitro and in vivo (15-71 20). Grillova et al. (21) recently described a TPA strain SS14 expressing red-shifted green 72 fluorescent protein, establishing the feasibility of using fluorescent reporters for syphilis 73 research. Herein, we build upon this pioneering report by generating a green fluorescent strain 74 in the genetically distinct TPA Nichols background. We then used this GFP⁺ strain to visualize 75 host-pathogen interactions during co-cultivation in vitro, within infected rabbit testes, and 76 following opsonophagocytosis by murine bone marrow-derived macrophages. We also 77 developed a flow cytometry-based assay to assess antibody-mediated growth inhibition and/or 78 disruption of the syphilis spirochete's fragile outer membrane (OM), presumptive markers for 79 bacterial killing in the rabbit model and, presumably, humans. Our findings illustrate how 80 fluorescently labelled TPA strains can be used to investigate host-pathogen interactions and 81 clearance of treponemes during syphilitic infection.

82

83 RESULTS

84 TPA constitutively expressing green fluorescent protein exhibits wild-type viability and 85 cellular adhesiveness. To genetically engineer a green fluorescent TPA strain, we used the 86 strategy described by Romeis et al. (13) to transform the WT TPA Nichols strain with a suicide 87 vector encoding tandem Extra-superfolder green fluorescent protein (GFP) (22) and kanamycin-88 resistance (kanR) transgenes in place of the native tprA locus (pMC5836; Fig. S1A). Extra-89 superfolder GFP was selected for these studies as it folds more efficiently and fluoresces 90 brighter than enhanced GFP (23, 24). As a control, we also transformed WT TPA Nichols with a 91 version of the suicide vector encoding only the kanR transgene (pMC5722; Fig. S1B). Following 92 recovery, transformants were passaged in TpCM-2 medium containing 200 µg/ml kanamycin 93 (TpCM-2Kan). By the third passage in vitro (day 42), motile treponemes were observed for TPA 94 transformed with kanR and gfp-kanR constructs but only the latter were fluorescent (GFP⁺) (Fig. 95 1A and Video S1-S2). Replacement of *tprA* in both strains was confirmed by PCR amplification 96 of *TPA* genomic DNA (Fig. S1C-D and Table S1). As shown in Fig. 1B, WT, *kanR* and GFP⁺ *TPA* 97 displayed highly similar growth profiles over 12 passages (168 days). Consistent with prior 98 studies using nonfluorescent TPA (25), confocal composite images (Fig. 1C-D and Video S3) of 99 in vitro-cultivated GFP⁺ TPA showed numerous treponemes on the surfaces of Sf1Ep cells; 100 despite exhaustive efforts, we were unable to find any intracellular organisms.

101 To evaluate expression of GFP in TPA harvested from Sf1Ep cells, we employed flow 102 cytometry, a technique used extensively by us (19, 20, 26) and others (27-29) to track 103 fluorescent Borrelia burgdorferi, the Lyme disease spirochete. Given the narrow width (~0.2 nm) 104 (30) and elongated, helical waveform morphology of TPA (12, 31), separating spirochete 105 populations from background noise by light scattering proved to be challenging. Instead, we 106 used staining of GFP⁺ TPA with propidium iodide (PI), a membrane-impermeant, fluorescent 107 DNA dye, to exclude flow cytometric events caused by debris. After harvest, treponemes were 108 fixed with 2% paraformaldehyde, permeabilized with 0.01% Triton X-100, and counterstained

109 with PI. Using unstained WT TPA to set gating parameters, we eliminated GFP/PI double-110 negative events using a dump gate (Fig. S2A) and then established a gating strategy for PI⁺ and 111 GFP⁺ using detergent-treated WT TPA stained with PI (Fig. S2B) and untreated GFP⁺ TPA (Fig. 112 S2C). In the absence of detergent, <1% of GFP⁺ TPA stained with PI, confirming that 113 trypsinization to release treponemes during harvest does not disrupt the spirochete's delicate 114 OM (32). After eliminating double-negative events, ~97% of detergent-treated treponemes 115 harvested from Sf1Ep cells were PI⁺ (Fig. 2A); ~96% of these were GFP⁺ with a mean 116 fluorescence intensity (MFI) of 7381± 346. Essentially identical results were obtained by gating 117 first on GFP; 97.8% of GFP⁺ events also were PI⁺ (Fig. 2B). Collectively, these data confirm the 118 feasibility of using flow cytometry to quantitate fluorescent TPA populations.

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120 Whole-genome sequencing to confirm replacement of tprA with gfp-kanR in TPA Nichols. 121 Whole-genome sequencing (WGS) was performed on DNA extracted from in vitro-cultivated 122 GFP⁺ TPA at passages 6, 9 and 12 to confirm replacement of tprA with the gfp-kanR cassette 123 and rule out additional insertions of the cassette elsewhere in the genome. Using the Nichols 124 reference genome (CP004010.2), few if any reads mapped to the *tprA* locus in the GFP⁺ TPA 125 strain (Fig. S3). In contrast, abundant reads mapped to this region using a Nichols genome 126 modified in silico to contain the gfp-kanR cassette (Fig. S3). Except for reads mapping to the 127 tpp47 and flaA1 promoters used to drive transcription of kanR and gfp, respectively, we saw no 128 evidence for insertion of either transgene elsewhere in the chromosome. Searches for the 129 pUC19 backbone used to generate pMC5836 yielded only spurious reads. A comparison of 130 WGS data for GFP⁺ TPA passages 6, 9 and 12 detected a total of 28 polymorphisms in at least 131 one in vitro passage compared to the TPA Nichols NCBI reference genome. Fifteen were 132 present in the parental strain (TPA Nichols-Farmington) used to generate the GFP⁺ (Table S2). 133 Of the remaining 13 differences, all but one were present in all three passages. Most of the 134 differences in the GFP⁺ strain were either single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) or small (1to 2-bp) indels within homopolymeric regions that result in a frameshift mutation. Only one frameshift occurred within a gene (tp0040/mcp1) encoding a protein of known function. Of note, three of the frameshift mutations identified in the GFP⁺ strain but not the WT parent were identified independently by Edmondson *et al.* (33) in their *TPA* Nichols isolate. Importantly, no SNPs were detected in the *gfp-kanR* cassette in any of the passages. These data suggest that although the parental Nichols isolate used to generate the GFP⁺ strain is most likely non-clonal, the engineered strain is highly stable *in vitro*.

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143 GFP⁺ TPA exhibits wild-type infectivity in the rabbit model and comparable expression of 144 **GFP** in vitro and following rabbit passage. To confirm that GFP⁺ TPA retained WT infectivity, we inoculated rabbits intratesticularly with a total of 2×10^7 in vitro-cultivated GFP⁺ or WT TPA. 145 146 In three independent experiments, rabbits inoculated with either strain developed orchitis within 147 12-14 days (Fig. 3A). Moreover, we saw no significant difference in the number of motile GFP⁺ 148 and WT treponemes recovered at the time of harvest (in vitro \rightarrow Rabbit 1; Fig. 3A and Video S4-149 5). Serial passage of each strain into a second rabbit yielded highly similar results with 150 comparable values for both days to onset of orchitis and treponeme recovery (Rabbit 1 \rightarrow 151 Rabbit 2; Fig. 3A) in all three experiments. WGS analysis of GFP⁺ TPA recovered from rabbit 152 testes confirmed that the *gfp-kanR* insertion was stable *in vivo* (Fig. S3), with only one additional 153 SNPs, a 2-bp insertion within a non-coding region, were identified between in vitro passage 6 154 and rabbit passage 2 (Table S2); the single unique SNP, a 2-bp insertion in a polyG tract in the 155 genome of Rabbit 1, occurred within a non-coding region. Confocal imaging of cryosections of testes obtained at the time of sacrifice revealed numerous GFP⁺ treponemes attached to the 156 157 surface of testicular cells (Fig. 3B and Video S6); as in the in vitro studies, intracellular 158 organisms were not identified in testes tissue. Lymph nodes and blood samples collected at the 159 time of sacrifice from WT and GFP⁺ TPA-infected Rabbit 2 demonstrated comparable spirochete

burdens by qPCR, confirming comparable hematogenous dissemination and invasion of distal
tissues by the GFP⁺ strain (Fig. 3C).

To evaluate whether the levels of GFP *in vivo* are comparable to those observed *in vitro*, we performed flow cytometry on treponemes from infected testes following harvest applying the same gating strategy described above. After removing double negative events, ~95% of PI⁺ events were GFP⁺ with a mean MFI of 7583 \pm 309 (Fig. 4A), essentially identical to the value (7381 \pm 346, per above) following *in vitro* cultivation. Conversely, ~95% of GFP⁺ events were PI⁺ when gating on the GFP⁺ population (Fig. 4B).

168 Lastly, we assessed the ability of GFP⁺ TPA to cause cutaneous lesions following 169 intradermal inoculation of rabbits (n = 3) with graded doses ($10^5 - 10^1$ per site) of both strains on 170 either side of the same animal. Beginning 7 days post-inoculation (p.i.) until sacrifice on day 30. 171 lesions were measured daily. As shown in Fig. 5A-B and Fig. S4, the overall size and time 172 course for lesions elicited by WT and GFP⁺ TPA were not significantly different (p > 0.05). However, the lesions produced by GFP⁺ *TPA* at the 10^5 dose were significantly ($p \le 0.05$) larger 173 174 than those produced by the WT parent between days 14-23 p.i. (Fig. 5B). Lesions produced by 175 WT and GFP⁺ TPA at the 10^4 - 10^2 doses were not significantly different over the course of the 176 experiment (day 7 - day 30 p.i.). In contrast, lesions produced by WT TPA at the 10¹ dose day 177 28-30 p.i. were larger than those for the GFP⁺ strain, possibly indicating a slight decrease in 178 infectivity for the fluorescent strain. At the time of sacrifice (day 30 p.i.), we saw no significant 179 differences in spirochete burdens based on normalized copy numbers of polA for the WT and GFP⁺ strains at sites inoculated with 10⁴ or 10⁵ organisms (Fig. 5C). 180

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Opsonophagocytosis of GFP⁺ TPA by murine bone marrow-derived macrophages.
Macrophage-mediated opsonophagocytosis of TPA is widely considered to be critical for
spirochete clearance (10). From the standpoint of vaccine development, opsonophagocytosis

185 assays are essential for evaluating the potential protective capacity of antibodies directed 186 against surface-exposed epitopes (34-36). We reasoned that incorporation of GFP⁺ TPA into 187 this assay would expedite sample processing and analysis by eliminating the need to visualize 188 macrophage-associated treponemes via indirect immunofluorescence. Accordingly, we used our 189 recently developed ex vivo assay employing murine bone marrow-derived macrophages (37) to 190 evaluate uptake and degradation of in vitro-cultivated GFP⁺ TPA following incubation with 191 mouse syphilitic sera (MSS) generated against TPA Nichols or antiserum against the TPA 192 Nichols BamA β -barrel extracellular loop 4 (α -BamA ECL4), both of which are strongly opsonic 193 (37, 38). To preserve proteinaceous surface epitopes, treponemes used for opsonophagocytosis 194 assay were recovered from Sf1Ep cells using Dissociation buffer rather than trypsin-EDTA (39). 195 Normal mouse sera (NMS) and antisera against TP0751, a lipoprotein which, in our hands, is 196 not an opsonic target (37, 40), were used as negative controls. Consistent with prior studies 197 using nonfluorescent WT TPA harvested from rabbit testes (37, 38), preincubation of in vitro-198 cultivated GFP⁺ TPA with 10% MSS or α -BamA-ECL4 substantially increased internalization by 199 BMDMs compared to NMS and α -TP0751 controls (Fig. 6A). For each serum, we determined 200 the phagocytic index, a measure of opsonophagocytosis that considers the number of 201 macrophages with ingested organisms as well as the number of treponemes phagocytosed per 202 cell (37, 41). As shown in Fig. 6B, phagocytic indices for MSS and α -BamA ECL4 were 203 significantly greater than those for NMS and α -TP0751, which were equivalent to the 'no sera' 204 control.

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Immune rabbit serum and antibodies targeting BamA extracellular loop 4 inhibit growth and damage *TPA* OMs during *in vitro* cultivation. We recently demonstrated that sera from immune rabbits and antibodies targeting ECLs of specific *TPA* OM embedded β -barrel proteins (OMPs) can inhibit growth and even kill *TPA* Nichols in the absence of complement during *in*

210 vitro cultivation (41). We, therefore, sought to determine if GFP⁺ TPA could be used to quantify 211 the growth-inhibiting and/or bactericidal effects of α-ECL antibodies in vitro as an Fc receptor-212 and complement-independent 'surrogate of protection' for vaccine development. Consistent with 213 our prior studies (41), neither NRS nor α -TP0751 antibodies had a measurable impact on 214 growth in vitro (Fig. 7A). In contrast, IRS generated using the Nichols strain and antisera 215 directed against ECL4 of the Nichols BamA dramatically ($p \le 0.0001$) reduced spirochete 216 numbers to levels at or below the starting inoculum (Fig. 7A). We reasoned that damage to 217 TPA's fragile OM (35) during incubation with surface-directed antibodies could be used as a 218 marker for bacterial killing. To investigate how co-cultivation with different antibodies affects OM integrity, we took advantage of our finding that intact GFP⁺ TPA exclude PI in the absence of 219 220 detergent (Fig. S2C); GFP⁺ TPA staining for PI following antibody incubation (see Fig. S5 for 221 gating strategies for individual antisera), therefore, would indicate organisms with disrupted 222 OMs (Fig. S2B). As shown in Fig. 7B-C, in the absence of antibodies, <1% of in vitro-cultivated 223 GFP⁺ TPA were PI⁺. We also saw negligible staining with PI when GFP⁺ TPA were co-cultivated 224 with either NRS (1.14%) or α -TP0751 antibodies (4.57%). In contrast, co-cultivation with two 225 independent immune sera obtained from rabbits infected with the Nichols strain (IRS Nic-1 and 226 Nic-2) led to a marked increase in PI⁺ treponemes (~45-52%; $p \le 0.0001$) compared to both 227 NRS and α -TP0751 (Fig. 7B-C). The effect was even more pronounced (~96% of treponemes 228 were PI⁺) when GFP⁺ TPA were co-cultivated with α -BamA ECL4 antibodies (Fig. 7B-C). 229 Interestingly, two independent IRS obtained from rabbits infected with the SS14 strain (IRS 230 SS14-1 and SS14-2) also decreased the growth of GFP⁺ TPA Nichols, but to a lesser extent 231 than the Nichols-specific IRS (approximately one-log₁₀; Fig. 7A) and with a comparatively 232 modest increase in PI labeling (~12-18%) (Fig. 7B-C). Given that both IRS SS14-1 and SS14-2 233 strongly inhibited growth of the TPA SS14 strain (41), the decreased effectiveness of these sera 234 against the heterologous strain likely reflects OMP variability between these two TPA reference

- strains (42-44). However, it also is possible that the SS14 IRS used in these studies are less
- effective at inhibiting growth compared to their Nichols counterparts.

237 Discussion

238 The refinement of systems for the long-term cultivation in vitro (12, 39) and genetic manipulation 239 (13, 45) of TPA has ushered in a new era for syphilis research. Importantly, the ability to 240 transform TPA enabled targeted mutagenesis (13, 14) as well as, most recently, the generation 241 of a fluorescent TPA SS14 isolate (21). In this study, we generated a GFP⁺ TPA Nichols isolate 242 that replicated at wild-type levels in vitro, was fully virulent in rabbits infected by intratesticular 243 and intradermal inoculation, and disseminated to distal sites at levels comparable to the 244 parental strain. We then used this strain to assess functional antibodies within syphilitic serum 245 generated during experimental infection with TPA and following immunization with a protein 246 scaffold containing TPA Nichols BamA ECL4, a known opsonic target (37, 41). Our findings 247 illustrate the broad utility of fluorescent reporters for dissecting host-pathogen interactions 248 during syphilitic infection, including antibody-mediated damage to the spirochetal OM.

249 Previous studies have shown that TPA adheres to a broad range of host cells, including 250 epithelial, fibroblast, and endothelial cells (46-51). Preincubation of TPA with IRS and human 251 syphilitic sera blocks spirochete attachment to host cells and/or extracellular matrix 252 components, implying the existence of specific surface adhesins (46-52). Short- and long-term 253 in vitro cultivation of TPA, an extreme auxotroph, also requires continuous intimate contact with 254 host cells (11, 12), presumably to scavenge host-derived nutrients. An important question, 255 therefore, is whether TPA is exclusively an extracellular pathogen within its obligate human host 256 and whether intracellular residence is part of its strategy for persistence and immune evasion; 257 indeed, sightings of ostensibly viable treponemes within Sf1Ep and other nonphagocytic cells 258 have been reported over the years (25, 53, 54). Herein we showed the utility of GFP⁺ TPA for 259 assessing cellular interactions by live spirochetes in vitro and in vivo. Consistent with TPA being 260 predominantly an extracellular pathogen (55), confocal imaging of GFP⁺ TPA co-cultured with 261 Sf1Ep cells and within testes from infected rabbits revealed numerous surface-attached 262 spirochetes and no evidence of intracellular organisms. Vascular escape by TPA is a critical 263 step in hematogenous dissemination and target organ invasion (2, 56). Classic electron 264 microscopy studies showed TPA migrating through the intercellular junctions separating human 265 umbilical vein endothelial cells, a process designated 'inter-junctional penetration' (48, 57), a 266 finding also consistent with the spirochete's extracellular lifestyle. The concept that OMPs can 267 have both physiological and virulence-related functions is well established (58-61) and can be 268 applied to TPA now that its repertoire of OMPs - the TPA OMPeome - has been delineated 269 (34). Live imaging of GFP⁺ TPA should help elucidate how syphilis spirochetes penetrate tissues 270 and, in concert with mutagenesis, help identify the responsible OMP culprits. Recently, we 271 generated evidence that antibodies directed against specific ECLs of the spirochete's FadL fatty 272 acid transporters prevent their attachment to Sf1EP cells (41). Blockage of attachment of GFP⁺ 273 TPA by antibodies against ECLs provides an additional means of assessing the contribution(s) 274 of individual TPA OMPs to adherence and dissemination, information of great value for vaccine 275 design as well as unraveling of key events during the disease process.

276 Antibody-mediated clearance by macrophages is thought to be crucial for controlling 277 syphilitic infection (10, 35). While there currently is no 'true' correlate of protection for syphilis in 278 humans, ex vivo opsonophagocytosis assays using sera from experimentally-infected animals 279 and human syphilitic sera are regarded as a surrogate of protection (36, 37, 41, 62-64). Analysis 280 of the molecular architecture of the TPA OM indicates that the presumptive targets for opsonic 281 antibodies in immune sera reside largely within the OMPeome (9, 30, 34, 35, 65, 66). 282 Previously, we demonstrated that antibodies against ECLs of several OMPs, including BamA 283 ECL4, are strongly opsonic in assays using rabbit peritoneal macrophages and murine bone 284 marrow-derived macrophages (37, 41). Using GFP⁺ TPA, we streamlined this assay by 285 eliminating the need for antibody labeling to detect surface-bound versus internalized 286 organisms. Understanding TPA interactions with macrophages is also directly relevant for 287 efforts to deconvolute the spirochete's strategies for 'stealth pathogenicity' (9). It has long been 288 known that only a subset of organisms incubated with IRS or antibodies to individual OMPs are

289 susceptible to internalization by macrophages, leading to the assumption that there is 290 heterogeneous surface antigenicity within spirochete populations (63, 65, 67). The need for 291 surface-directed antibodies to promote macrophage uptake theoretically provides a window 292 during early infection during which TPA can disseminate and invade while bypassing innate 293 immune pathogen surveillance systems (68). Furthermore, studies by our group have shown 294 that, because of the lack of lipopolysaccharide and the paucity of lipoproteins on the spirochetal 295 surface (35), macrophage activation requires internalization and degradation of TPA within 296 phagocytic vacuoles, thereby liberating PAMPs for binding to Toll-like receptors lining the 297 vacuole (36, 69). GFP⁺ TPA represents an important addition to the armamentarium for studying 298 the underlying cell and immunobiology of this enigmatic disease.

299 Staining with the impermeant dye PI provided a straightforward means of using flow 300 cytometry to assess OM integrity as a quantifiable presumptive marker for spirochete killing 301 during incubation with IRS and anti-ECL antibodies. Flow cytometric analyses of GFP⁺ TPA co-302 cultivated in the presence of heat-inactivated IRS or BamA ECL4-specific antisera demonstrated 303 that both appear to exert their bactericidal effects by damaging the spirochete's fragile OM by a 304 complement- and Fc-receptor-independent mechanism. Cryoelectron microscopy has shown 305 that antibodies against ECL4 of E. coli BamA freeze the BAM complex in the 'open' 306 conformation, preventing insertion of newly synthesized OMPs into the OM bilayer (70). It is 307 reasonable to presume that interference with OM biogenesis is responsible for the loss of OM 308 integrity and resultant potent bactericidal effect of TPA BamA ECL4 antibodies observed herein. 309 BamA antibodies also may be a major contributor to the killing capacity of IRS. Importantly, the 310 substantively greater capacity for OM disruption by anti-BamA ECL4 clearly argues for the 311 importance of including this antigen in a syphilis vaccine cocktail. Studies in the 1970s using 312 IRS to passively immunize rabbits against intradermal inoculation revealed that IRS is 313 protective, but that TPA replication and lesion formation resumed once serum administration 314 was discontinued (71, 72). It is tempting to speculate that the *in vitro* observations made herein reflect the suppressive effects of immune sera reported in these classic studies. In addition to providing a novel analytic tool to clarify *TPA*'s enigmatic interactions with surface-directed antibodies, the PI-GFP flow cytometric assay provides a means for delineating the protective mechanisms of an ECL antiserum as well as the ability of organisms to evade its growth inhibitory and/or killing effects, which could be clinically significant as antibody titers decline following vaccination.

321 While rabbits infected with TPA develop complete immunity to homologous challenge, 322 protection against heterologous isolates is less robust (73). Consistent with these and other 323 studies (41), we observed significantly less growth inhibition and OM damage when the GFP⁺ 324 TPA Nichols strain was co-cultivated with heterologous IRS generated against the SS14 strain. 325 We interpret these results to indicate the importance of TPA strain-specific antibodies for 326 maximal bactericidal activity. Evidence for sequence variability within OMPs encoded by TPA 327 clinical isolates is well documented (37, 41, 44, 74-78). Even single nonsynonymous amino acid 328 substitutions in ECL4 of BamA can abrogate antibody binding (38). Substitutions in ECL3 from 329 the FadL ortholog TP0865 also markedly affected antigenicity in SS14 compared to the Nichols 330 (41). In a clinical scenario, antibodies targeting conserved ECLs likely provide a measure of 331 cross-immunity, while OMP variability provides a means for immune evasion by organisms 332 circulating within at-risk human populations. How these two factors balance out is a major issue 333 requiring further investigation. Phenotypic characterization of isogenic GFP⁺ TPA strains 334 expressing OMP ECL variants could help determine how sequence variability impacts clearance 335 by functional antibodies in IRS and antisera from ECL-immunized animals, facilitating screening 336 to identify ECL combinations capable of protecting against heterologous strains.

337

338 Methods

Ethics Statement. Animal experiments were conducted following the *Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals* (8th Edition) in accordance with protocols reviewed and approved by
 the UConn Health Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (AP-201085) under the
 auspices of Public Health Service assurance number A3471-01 (D16-00295).

343

Routine propagation of *TPA* in rabbits. *TPA* Nichols was propagated by intratesticular inoculation of adult male New Zealand White (NZW) rabbits as previously described (64, 65). Treponemes were harvested at peak orchitis in 0.5 - 1 ml of CMRL medium (ThermoFisher) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated normal rabbit sera (NRS). After 2 hrs, treponemes were recovered and enumerated by darkfield microscopy (DFM) using a Petroff-Hausser counting chamber (Hausser Scientific, Horsham, PA, USA).

350

351 Generation of immune rabbit and mouse syphilitic sera. Immune rabbit sera (IRS) against 352 TPA Nichols and SS14 strains were generated by inoculation of rapid plasma reagin-353 nonreactive adult male NZW rabbits (n = 2 per strain) in each testis with 1×10^7 treponemes in 354 0.5 ml of CMRL supplemented with 10% NRS. The immune status of each rabbit was confirmed 355 60 days post-inoculation by intradermal challenge with 1×10^3 freshly extracted TPA of the 356 same strain at each of eight sites on their shaved backs. Animals were euthanized and 357 exsanguinated once their immune status had been confirmed by lack of lesion development. 358 Animal identification numbers (ID#) for IRS Nic-1 and Nic-2 were ID#112 and ID#717, 359 respectively. Animal IDs for IRS SS14-1 and SS14-2 were ID#759 and ID#761, respectively. To 360 generate mouse syphilitic sera (MSS), five male and five female 6- to 8-week-old C3H/HeJ mice 361 were inoculated intradermally, intraperitoneally, intrarectally, and intra-genitally with a total of 1 x

362 10⁸ total organisms per animal as previously described (37, 79). Mice were sacrificed on day 84
 363 post-inoculation and exsanguinated to create a pool of MSS.

364

365 In vitro cultivation of TPA. TPA were co-cultured with cottontail rabbit epithelial cells (Sf1Ep) in 366 TPA culture medium 2 (TpCM-2) under microaerophilic (MA) conditions as previously described (12, 39). Briefly, Sf1Ep were seeded at 2×10^4 cells per well in a 24-well culture plate and 367 368 incubated overnight at 37°C. The following day, wells were washed with TpCM-2 followed by the 369 addition of fresh TpCM-2 medium and 2.5×10^6 TPA were added per well. After 7 days and 370 weekly thereafter, treponemes were harvested by trypsinization, enumerated by DFM, and 371 passaged on to fresh Sf1Ep cells. The same procedure was used for in vitro cultivation in 6-well plates with the exception that Sf1Ep cells were seeded at 5×10^4 cells per well and 5×10^6 TPA 372 373 were added per well.

374

375 Routine DNA manipulation and cloning. Escherichia coli Stellar cells (TaKaRa, Mountain 376 View, CA) were used for routine cloning and isolation of plasmid DNA. E. coli ClearColi strain 377 (Research Corporation Technologies, Tucson, AZ) was used for isolation of lipopolysaccharide-378 free plasmid DNA. E. coli cultures were maintained in Lysogeny broth (LB) or LB agar 379 supplemented with the appropriate antibiotics (ampicillin, 100 μ g/ml and/or kanamycin, 50 380 µg/ml). Plasmid DNA was purified from *E. coli* using QIAprep kits (Qiagen, Valencia, CA, USA) 381 according to manufacturer's instructions. Synthetic gene fragments were purchased from 382 Integrated DNA Technologies, Inc. (Coralville, IA, USA). TPA genomic DNA was extracted using 383 the DNeasy Blood and Tissue kit (Qiagen). Oligonucleotide primers (Table S1) were purchased 384 from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Routine cloning was performed using the In-Fusion 385 HD Cloning Plus kit (Takara Bio USA, Inc., Mountain View, CA, USA). Routine and high-fidelity 386 PCR amplifications were performed using RedTag (Denville Scientific, Metuchen, NJ, USA) and

CloneAmp HiFi (Takara Bio USA, Inc.), respectively. Plasmid constructs were confirmed by
Sanger sequencing (Azenta Life Sciences, South Plainfield, NJ, USA) using primers listed in
Table S1 and analyzed using MacVector (MacVector, Inc., Cary, NC, USA).

390

391 Construction of a suicide vector for replacement of tprA with a GFP cassette. A suicide 392 vector used for chromosomal insertion of a cassette containing extra-superfolder GFP and a 393 kanamycin-resistance marker (kanR) was generated by cloning a \sim 4.3 kb amplification product 394 containing tprA (tp0009) plus flanking DNA into BamHI-digested pUC19 using primers tprA-FW 395 and tprA-RV (Table S1 and Fig. S1A). The tprA coding sequence was then replaced with a 396 fragment containing codon-optimized kanR from Proteus vulgaris (80) under the control of the 397 tpp47 (tp0574) promoter and ribosomal binding site (RBS) (pMC5722; Fig. S1A). A synthetic 398 fragment containing a codon-optimized version of extra-superfolder GFP (22, 24) under the 399 control of the *flaA1* (tp0249) promoter and RBS (81) was then inserted upstream of kanR 400 (pMC5836; Fig. S1B).

401

402 Generation of fluorescent TPA. A TPA Nichols strain constitutively expressing GFP was 403 generated by transforming in vitro-cultivated treponemes with 15 µg of lipopolysaccharide-free 404 pMC5836 plasmid DNA (Fig. S1A) as previously described (13, 45). Briefly, TPA co-cultured with Sf1Ep cells for 1-week were trypsinized to release bound treponemes. $\sim 5 \times 10^7$ organisms 405 406 were transferred to one well of a 24-well plate seeded the prior day with 2×10^4 Sf1Ep cells. 407 The total volume in each well was brought to 2.5 ml with pre-equilibrated TpCM-2 and returned 408 to the incubator. After 2 days, 1 ml of spent media was removed and replaced with 1 ml of fresh 409 pre-equilibrated TpCM-2. On day 4, spent media was removed gently and replaced with 0.5 ml 410 of Transformation Buffer (50 mM CaCl₂, 10 mM Tris pH 7.4) containing 15 µg of LPS-free 411 plasmid DNA. Following a 10 min incubation at 34°C under MA conditions, cells were washed

412 twice gently with pre-equilibrated TpCM-2 and recovered overnight in 2.5 ml of fresh TpCM-2 at 413 37°C under MA conditions. The following day, kanamycin (200 µg/ml final concentration; Sigma-414 Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) was added and plates were returned to the incubator for 48 hours. 415 Following incubation, the media was exchanged with fresh TpCM-2 containing 200 µg/ml 416 kanamvcin (TpCM-2Kan) per well. After two weeks. TPA were trypsinized, enumerated by DFM. 417 and passaged to a new 24-well plate seeded with fresh Sf1Ep cells in TpCM-2Kan. Untreated, 418 Transformation buffer (TB) alone, and "no kanamycin" control transformations were performed 419 in parallel. Wells were examined biweekly by DFM and/or epifluorescence microscopy for motile 420 treponemes. Once co-cultures reached a density of $\sim 3 \times 10^7$ TPA per ml, cells were trypsinized, 421 enumerated by DMF, and then passed into 6-well plates seeded with 5×10^4 Sf1Ep cells per 422 well. Allelic replacement of tprA with either gfp-kanR or kanR was confirmed by PCR 423 amplification of genomic DNA using primers described in Table S1 and Fig. S1C-D. The 424 resulting nonfluorescent (kanR) and GFP⁺ (gfp-kanR) strains were designated SRL001 and 425 SRL002, respectively.

426

427 Whole-genome sequencing. Genomic DNA was extracted from in vitro-cultivated GFP⁺ TPA 428 collected at passages 6 (week 12), 9 (week 20) and 12 (week 26) as described above. For 429 GFP⁺ TPA libraries were generated using Kapa Hyper Prep kit (Kapa Biosystems, Inc., 430 Wilmington, MA, USA) and sequenced on an Illumina iSeg 100 system (Illumina, San Diego, 431 CA, USA), utilizing 150-base paired-end reads. To determine if genetic engineering induced 432 novel mutations, we also sequenced the WT parent used to generate the GFP⁺ strain, 433 designated 'Nichols-Farmington', using DNA extracted from infected testes tissue, mixed with 434 purified human DNA at 1:99 ratio of total DNA as previously described (82). Libraries were 435 prepared using SureSelect XT HS target enrichment system (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, 436 CA) with sequencing performed on the Illumina MiSeq system (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA)

437 as previously described (83). Raw read data were analyzed using a modified version of the 438 bioinformatic pipeline available at https://github.com/IDEELResearch/tpallidum genomics. 439 Quality control of the raw reads was performed using FastQC (84), followed by adapter trimming 440 with Cutadapt (v4.4)(85). Reads with a sequence quality score ≥ 20 were retained. Processed 441 reads were aligned to the NCBI Nichols strain reference genome (CP004010.2) (42, 86) using 442 minimap2 (v2.26) (87). Reads mapping to the highly variable tprK locus (14, 88-90) were 443 eliminated from our analyses. Post-alignment filtering and variant calling were conducted with 444 SAMtools and BCFtools (v1.9) (91). Transgenic insert breakpoints were identified using Gridds 445 (v2.13.2) (92). Statistical analysis and visualization were carried out using R (v4.3.3) (93) and 446 ggplot2 (v3.5.1) (94). Raw read data for all passages of the GFP⁺ and WT Nichols-Farmington 447 TPA were deposited in the Sequence Read Archive database (BioProject PRJNA1134712).

448

Flow cytometric comparison of GFP expression by GFP⁺ TPA cultivated in vitro and 449 450 **recovered from rabbits.** $\sim 2 \times 10^8$ in vitro-cultivated GFP⁺ TPA were harvested from a 6-well 451 plate as described above. For comparison with *in vivo*, $\sim 4 \times 10^8$ GFP⁺ *TPA* were harvested from 452 rabbit testes at peak orchitis as described above. Non-fluorescent WT TPA Nichols grown under 453 the same conditions were included as a negative control. Treponemes were pelleted at $8,000 \times$ 454 g for 10 minutes, washed twice with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), and fixed for 10 min at 455 4°C in PBS containing 2% paraformaldehyde and 0.001% PI (1.5 μ M final conc.) in the 456 presence or absence of 0.01% Triton X-100. After fixation, treponemes were pelleted at $8.000 \times$ 457 g for 10 minutes, washed twice with PBS, and the resulting pellet was resuspended in 200 µl of 458 PBS and transferred to a 96-well plate; 25 μ l of each sample was analyzed on a FACSymphony 459 A5 SE flow cytometer (BD Biosciences, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA). Data were analyzed using 460 FlowJo Version 10.7.1 software (BD Biosciences). The mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) and 461 percentages (%) of PI⁺ and/or GFP⁺ events were calculated from data filtered to exclude non462 spirochetal (PI/GFP double negative) events. Details regarding the gating strategy used for 463 analysis of flow cytometry data are presented in Fig. S2.

464

Virulence testing of GFP⁺ TPA by intratesticular inoculation. Infectivity of in vitro-cultivated 465 466 WT and GFP⁺ TPA was compared by intratesticular inoculation of NZW rabbits as described 467 above (see Routine propagation of TPA in rabbits). At peak orchitis, animals were sacrificed and 468 spirochete viability and burdens in testes determined by DFM. WT and GFP⁺ TPA harvested 469 from the first rabbit (Rabbit 1) were used to inoculate a second NZW rabbit (Rabbit 2). At peak 470 orchitis, the second rabbit for each strain was sacrificed and spirochete viability and burdens in 471 testes determined by DFM. Popliteal lymph nodes (LNs; two per rabbit, per strain, per 472 experiment) and whole blood (three 1-ml aliquots per rabbit, per strain, per experiment) were 473 collected from Rabbit 2 at the time of sacrifice to assess dissemination by qPCR. Individual LNs 474 were placed in 200 µl of DNA/RNA Shield (Zymo), while each 1 ml blood sample was mixed with 475 2 mls of DNA/RNA Shield (Zymo). Samples were stored at -20°C until extraction using the 476 DNeasy Blood and Tissue kit (Qiagen). qPCR assays for *polA* and rabbit β -actin were 477 performed as previously described (40, 63). WT and GFP⁺ TPA were compared in three 478 independent serial passage experiments. Statistical analyses were conducted using Prism (v. 479 9.5.1; GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA). An unpaired two-tailed t-test was used to 480 compare the number of WT and GFP⁺ TPA burdens. A p-value of ≤ 0.05 was considered 481 statistically significant.

482

483 **Assessment of infectivity of GFP⁺** *TPA* by intradermal challenge. Serial dilutions of *in vitro*-484 cultivated WT and GFP⁺ *TPA* $(10^5 - 10^1$ treponemes per site) in CMRL with 10% NRS were 485 used to inoculate each side of the shaved backs of male NZW rabbits. Animals were examined 486 daily to monitor the development, morphologic appearance, and progression of lesions. Lesions 487 were measured daily with digital calipers beginning 7 days p.i. until sacrifice on day 30. After 488 euthanasia, the dorsal skin was depilated to remove any remaining fur, cleaned with 70% 489 ethanol, and cutaneous lesions were excised using a 4 mm punch biopsy tool for cryosectioning 490 (described below) and qPCR. Tissues were placed in DNA/RNA Shield (Zymo) and stored at -491 20°C until extraction using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue kit (Qiagen). qPCR assays for polA 492 and rabbit β -actin were performed as previously described (40, 63). Statistical analyses were 493 conducted using Prism (v. 9.5.1; GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA). A repeated 494 measures two-tailed ANOVA was used to compare lesion circumferences at each time point for 495 rabbits inoculated with the same dose of either WT or GFP⁺ TPA. A paired t-test was used to compare spirochete burdens for WT and GFP⁺ TPA in lesions for 10^5 and 10^4 inocula. 496 497 Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons was applied and p-values ≤ 0.05 were 498 considered significant.

499

500 Confocal imaging of GFP⁺ TPA co-cultured with Sf1Ep rabbit epithelial cells. Round glass 501 cover slips (13 mm) were autoclaved and transferred to a six-well culture plate seeded with 5 \times 502 10⁴ Sf1Ep cells per well and then incubated overnight at 37°C. The following day, wells were washed with TpCM-2 and 5×10^6 GFP⁺ TPA in TpCM-2 added per well. After 7 days at 37°C 503 504 under MA conditions, cells were washed twice with PBS then fixed for 15 min with 4% 505 paraformaldehyde in PBS. After fixation, cells were washed with TpCM-2 as described above 506 and cover slips transferred to clean 6-well plate containing 2 ml of 1X PBS per well. Sf1Ep cell 507 membranes were stained with Cholera Toxin AF647 (200 ng/ml final conc; ThermoFisher) (95) 508 for 30 min followed by staining of host cell nuclei with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI, 5 509 µg/ml final conc.; ThermoFisher) for 10 min. After two washes with PBS, coverslips were 510 transferred cell side down onto a clean slide containing VECTASHIELD mounting medium 511 (Vector Laboratories, Inc.) and sealed with nail polish. Individual 1 µm optical sections were

acquired using a Zeiss 880 confocal microscope equipped with 63X/1.4 Plan-Apochromat oil
objective and processed using ZEN3.5 Blue (Carl Zeiss Microscopy, White Plains, NY, USA).

514

515 Confocal imaging of GFP⁺ TPA in infected tissues. GFP⁺ TPA-infected testis tissue (~0.5 – 1 516 cm) was fixed in 2% paraformaldehyde for 1 hr at 4°C and then washed at least three times with 517 PBS for 10 min at room temperature. For cryosectioning, fixed testis tissues were transferred to 518 15% sucrose in PBS for 6-12 hrs, followed by overnight incubation at 4°C in 20% sucrose in 519 PBS before being embedded in OCT compound using a 2-methyl-butane/dry ice/ethanol bath. 520 Embedded tissues were stored at -80°C until sectioning. 7 µm sections were cut using a Leica 521 CM3050 S cryostat. Prior to imaging, sections were incubated for 30 min with Cholera Toxin 522 AF647 (200 ng/ml final conc.; ThermoFisher) (95), washed briefly with PBS containing 0.05% 523 Tween 20 (PBST) followed by incubation with DAPI (5 µg/ml final conc.; ThermoFisher) for 10 524 min. Slides were washed thoroughly three times with PBST, rinsed with deionized water, and 525 allowed to air dry. Sections were preserved in VECTASHIELD mounting medium (Vector 526 Laboratories, Inc.), sealed with a coverslip. Individual 1 µm optical sections were acquired using 527 a Zeiss 880 confocal microscope equipped with a with 63x/1.4 Plan-Apochromat oil objective. 528 Images were processed using ZEN3.5 Blue.

529

530 **Opsonophagocytosis assay of GFP⁺** *TPA* by murine bone marrow-derived macrophages. 531 Bone marrow-derived macrophages were generated from C3H/HeJ mice as previously 532 described (37, 41), plated at a final concentration of 1×10^5 cells per well in Millicell EZ 8-well 533 chamber slides (Sigma-Aldrich), and incubated overnight at 37°C. The following day, the 534 medium was replaced with fresh Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) supplemented 535 with 10% FBS prior to the addition of *TPA*. For opsonophagocytosis assays, *in vitro*-cultivated 536 GFP⁺ treponemes were harvested using Dissociation media as previous described (39). For 537 opsonization, $\sim 1 \times 10^6$ TPA in 250 µl was preincubated at RT for 2 hr in DMEM supplemented 538 with 1:10 dilutions of mouse syphilitic sera (MSS) generated against TPA Nichols (37) or mouse 539 antisera directed against TPA Nichols BamA ECL4 (38). Following preincubation, all conditions 540 with or without sera were added to cells for 4 h at 37°C and an MOI of 10:1. Negative controls 541 included normal mouse sera (NMS) and mouse antisera directed against TP0751 (40). 542 Following a 4 h incubation, supernatants were removed and macrophages were 543 fixed/permeabilized with 2% paraformaldehyde and 0.01% Triton X-100 for 10 min at RT. Each 544 well was rinsed with PBS and blocked with 1% bovine serum albumin in PBS overnight at 4°C. 545 Wells were then incubated with Cholera Toxin AF647 (200 ng/ml final conc; ThermoFisher) for 546 30 min and DAPI (5 µg/ml final conc; ThermoFisher) for 10 min and washed thoroughly three 547 times with PBST, rinsed with deionized water to remove salt, and allowed to air dry. Samples 548 were preserved in VECTASHIELD mounting medium (Vector Laboratories, Inc., Newark, CA, 549 USA), sealed with a coverslip. Internalization of TPA was assessed in a blinded fashion by 550 acquiring epifluorescence images of at least 100 macrophages per well using an Olympus BX-551 41 microscope equipped with a 40x/1.00 UPIan-Apochromat oil iris objective. Images were 552 processed with VisiView (v. 5.0.0.7; Visitron Systems GmbH). Assays were performed in 553 triplicate for each condition tested. The phagocytic index for each sample was calculated by 554 dividing the number of internalized spirochetes by the total number of cells imaged and 555 multiplying by 100. Confocal images (12-15 1-µm optical sections) were acquired using a Zeiss 556 880 equipped with a 63x/1.4 Plan-Apochromat oil objective and processed using ZEN3.5 Blue. 557 Statistical analyses were conducted using Prism (v. 9.5.1; GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, 558 USA). One-way ANOVA was used to compare phagocytic indices using Newman-Keuls and 559 Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons, respectively. p-values ≤ 0.05 were considered 560 significant.

561

562 Flow cytometric assessment of growth inhibition and OM disruption during incubation 563 with IRS and antibodies to BamA ECL4. Sf1Ep cells were cultured in a 24-well plate ON as described above. 2.5×10^6 freshly harvested GFP⁺ TPA were added to each well along with 564 565 10% NRS, IRS from two Nichols immune rabbits (IRS Nic-1 and IRS Nic-2), or IRS from two 566 SS14 immune rabbits (IRS SS14-1 and IRS SS14-2), or rabbit polyclonal antisera against TPA 567 Nichols BamA ECL4 (37, 38) or TP0751 (40) and then incubated under MA conditions. All 568 assays were performed in triplicate. After seven days, spent media was transferred to a clean 569 centrifuge tube, cells were washed once with 200 µl of trypsin-EDTA (Sigma-Aldrich), and the 570 recovered material was combined with the spent media from the same well. An additional 200 µl 571 of trypsin-EDTA was then added to each well and incubated at 34°C for 5 min to release 572 treponemes. Following trypsinization, the combined material from each well was centrifuged at 573 $130 \times g$ for 5 min and the number of total treponemes recovered enumerated by DFM as 574 described above. The combined material from each well was processed for flow cytometry and 575 analyzed as described above. The percentage of PI⁺ organisms within the GFP⁺ population was 576 determined after excluding non-spirochetal (*i.e.*, double negative) events as shown in Fig. S2. 577 Statistical analyses were conducted using Prism (v. 9.5.1; GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, 578 USA). A two-way ANOVA and a one-way ANOVA were used to compare TPA growth in vitro, and 579 % PI staining with Tukey correction for multiple comparisons, respectively. p-values ≤ 0.05 were 580 considered significant.

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582

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607 Figure Legends

608

609 Fig 1. GFP⁺ TPA Nichols grows comparably to WT in vitro and localizes predominantly to 610 the surface of rabbit epithelial cells. (A) Representative epifluorescence image of in vitro-611 cultivated GFP⁺ TPA in suspension following harvest from Sf1Ep cells using trypsin-EDTA. (B) 612 Growth curves for GFP⁺ (green) and kanR (orange) TPA in the presence of kanamycin and the 613 wild-type (WT) parent grown in the presence (black) and absence (blue) of kanamycin. (C) 614 Representative confocal image (1 µm optical section) of GFP⁺ TPA co-cultured with Sf1Ep cells 615 labeled with DAPI (blue) and Cholera Toxin AF647 (magenta), which stain host cell nuclei and 616 plasma membranes, respectively. (D) Digital enlargement (3X) of boxed area in C. Z-stack of 617 individual 1 µm optical sections showing surface localization of TPA can be found in Video S3.

618

Fig 2. Flow cytometric analysis of GFP expression by GFP⁺ *TPA* during *in vitro* cultivation. Flow cytometry of GFP⁺ *TPA* dissociated from Sf1Ep cells using Trypsin-EDTA (see Methods). Gating strategies used to eliminate double-negative background events and define PI⁺ and GFP⁺ populations are shown in Fig. S2. Events within the red boxed area in the top left panel were used to quantify (**A**) GFP⁺ events within the PI⁺ population and (**B**) PI⁺ events within the GFP⁺ population. Results are representative of three independent experiments.

625

Fig 3. GFP⁺ *TPA* exhibits WT intratesticular growth, hematogenous dissemination, and localization to lymph nodes following intratesticular inoculation. (A) Schematic representation and results for serial passage of *in vitro*-cultivated WT (white) and GFP⁺ (cyan) *TPA* in rabbit testes. The total number of motile treponemes for each strain/condition were determined by darkfield microscopy. 'Days' indicates the times required for *TPA*-infected testes to reach peak orchitis; bars indicate the means ± standard deviations. No significant differences 632 $(p \le 0.05)$ were observed between WT and GFP⁺ *TPA* for either timing of orchitis or burdens in 633 testes. Table and graphs represent data from three independent serial passage experiments. (B) Representative 1 µm optical sections of GFP⁺ TPA (green) revealing numerous extracellular 634 635 treponemes in rabbit testes harvested at peak orchitis and stained with DAPI (blue) and Cholera 636 Toxin Subunit B (magenta). Z-stacks of individual 1 µm optical sections showing surface 637 localization of GFP⁺ TPA can be found in Video S6. (C) Bar graphs depicting spirochete 638 burdens for WT (white) and GFP⁺ (cyan) TPA in blood (n = 3 replicates per rabbit, per strain, per 639 experiment) and popliteal lymph nodes (n = 2 replicates per rabbit, per strain, per experiment) 640 collected at sacrifice. Bars represent the means ± SEMs for TPA polA determined by qPCR 641 normalized per 1 \times 10⁶ copies of rabbit β -actin for Rabbit 2 for each strain from three 642 independent experiments. Symbols (triangle, square and circle) represent data points from 643 individual animals.

644

Fig 4. Expression of GFP by TPA harvested from rabbit testes. Flow cytometry of GFP⁺ *TPA* harvested from rabbit testes (*in vivo*), permeabilized with 0.01% Triton X-100, and counterstained with PI. Gating strategies used to eliminate non-spirochetal double-negative events and define PI⁺ and GFP⁺ populations are shown in Fig. S2. Events within the red boxed area in the top left panel were used to quantify (**A**) GFP⁺ events within the PI⁺ population and (**B**) PI⁺ events within the GFP⁺ population. Results are representative of three independent experiments.

652

Fig 5. GFP⁺ *TPA* exhibits wild-type infectivity in rabbits by intradermal challenge. (A) Representative images of dermal lesions 23 days after intradermal inoculation with graded doses $(1 \times 10^5 - 1 \times 10^1)$ of GFP⁺ (left) and WT (right) *TPA*. (B) Lesion circumferences (mm) for sites inoculated with 1 x 10^5 GFP⁺ or WT *TPA*. Values represent the means ± standard deviations for three animals. *, $p \le 0.05$; **, $p \le 0.01$; ***, $p \le 0.001$. Arrow indicates the time point at which images in panel A were obtained. (**C**) Treponemal burdens in sites inoculated with 1×10^5 and 1×10^4 GFP⁺ or WT *TPA*. Bars represent the means ± standard deviations for *TPA polA* values normalized per 10⁴ copies of rabbit β-actin determined by qPCR. Symbols (triangle, square and circle) represent data points from three individual animals.

662

663 Fig 6. Opsonophagocytosis of GFP⁺ TPA by murine bone marrow-derived macrophages. 664 (A) Representative 9-12 µm composite confocal images showing internalization and 665 degradation of GFP⁺ TPA (green) by murine bone marrow-derived macrophages following pre-666 incubation with murine syphilitic serum (MSS) generated against TPA Nichols or mouse 667 polyclonal antisera against BamA ECL4. Normal mouse sera (NMS) and mouse polyclonal 668 antisera against TP0751, a non-opsonic periplasmic lipoprotein, were used as negative controls. 669 White arrowheads indicate TPA on the surfaces of macrophages. Magenta, cholera toxin 670 AF647; blue, DAPI. (B) Phagocytic indices for samples shown in panel A. Bars represent the 671 mean ± standard deviation for three biological replicates per condition. ****, $p \leq 0.0001$ 672 compared to NMS.

673

674 Fig 7. Disruption of TPA outer membranes by immune rabbit sera and rabbit anti-BamA 675 ECL4. (A) Enumeration of GFP⁺ TPA co-cultured in vitro with Sf1Ep cells in the presence of 676 normal rabbit serum (NRS), immune rabbit serum (IRS) from two Nichols immune rabbits (IRS 677 Nic-1 and IRS Nic-2) or two SS14 immune rabbits (IRS SS14-1 and IRS SS14-2), and rabbit 678 antisera against either TP0751 or BamA ECL4. Symbols indicate the spirochete densities before 679 (open) and seven days after (closed) the addition of antisera. (B) Flow cytometry histograms 680 portraying the percentages of PI⁻ (cyan) and PI⁺ (magenta) organisms gated from GFP⁺ 681 populations incubated with the indicated sera at a final concentration of 10% (also see Fig. S5).

682 (C) Percentage of PI^+ organisms within each GFP⁺ population. Bars represent the 683 mean ± standard deviation for three biological replicates per condition. *, $p \le 0.05$; or **** $p \le$ 684 0.0001 compared to NRS.

685 Supplemental Material

686

687 Fig S1. Replacement of tprA with extra-superfolder GFP and/or a kanamycin resistance 688 gene. Plasmids used to replace tprA in the TPA Nichols chromosome with a constitutively 689 expressed codon-optimized extra-superfolder green fluorescent protein (*afp*) transgene under 690 the control of the *flaA1* promoter and a kanamycin-resistance gene (kanR) from Proteus 691 mirabilis under the control of the tpp47 promoter (pMC5836) (A) or the kanR cassette alone (B). 692 Schematics showing the chromosomal regions used to insert the *afp-kanR* (C) and *kanR* (D) 693 cassettes. Arrows are used to indicate locations of primers (Table S1) used to confirm insertion. 694 The expected size in base pairs (bp) for each amplicon is indicated above the corresponding 695 line. Agarose gel images showing the corresponding PCR amplicons obtained using genomic 696 DNA from GFP⁺ (C), kanR (D) TPA Nichols strains are shown below. Genomic DNA from WT 697 TPA was used as a negative (no insert) control. Neg, No DNA control. DNA ladder (bp) is 698 shown on the left of gels in C and D.

699

Fig S2. Gating strategies used for flow cytometric analysis of WT and GFP⁺ *TPA*. (A) Flow cytometry panels for unstained WT *TPA* used to define and exclude non-spirochetal (*i.e.*, double-negative) events. (B) Flow cytometry panels for detergent-treated (+ Triton), *in vitro*cultivated WT *TPA* stained with PI used to define the spirochete population. (C) Flow cytometry panels for, *in vitro*-cultivated GFP⁺ *TPA* stained with PI in the absence of detergent (- Triton) used to define the GFP⁺ population and confirm exclusion of PI by intact treponemes. Results are representative of three independent experiments.

707

Fig S3. Whole-genome sequencing to confirm replacement of *tprA* with *gfp-kanR* in GFP⁺
 TPA. Genome sequencing confirms the replacement of *tprA* with the *gfp-kanR* cassette in GFP⁺
 TPA. Assembled reads for *tprA* and flanking regions from GFP⁺ TPA after 6, 9 and 12 passages

in vitro (**A-C**) and serial passages in rabbit testes (**D**, **E**) mapped against the *TPA* Nichols reference genome (left panels) and modified genome containing the *gfp-kanR* transgenes in place of *trpA* (right panels). The gaps in coverage in A-E left panels demonstrate complete replacement of the native *trpA* coding sequence in GFP⁺ *TPA*.

715

716 Fig S4. Rabbit intradermal inoculations with GFP⁺ TPA mirrors lesion development of WT

- 717 **TPA.** Lesion circumferences measured in mm and averaged from rabbits (n = 3) inoculated
- intradermally with graded doses $(1x10^4 1x10^1)$ of GFP⁺ and WT *TPA*. Lesions were measured
- pti beginning day 7 p.i. until sacrifice (day 30 p.i.). Values represent the mean ± standard deviation
- for three biological replicates per condition. **, $p \le 0.01$; or *** $p \le 0.001$.
- 721

Fig S5. Gating strategy used to assess OM disruption of *in vitro*-cultivated GFP⁺ *TPA*. Flow cytometric panels used to exclude non-spirochetal (*i.e.*, double negative) events and then assessing the percentage of PI^+ organisms within the GFP⁺ population for each serum. Results

are representative of three independent experiments.

726 Video S1. Epifluorescence video showing motility of *in vitro*-cultivated GFP⁺ *TPA* Nichols

- 727 strain.
- 728
- 729 Video S2. Epifluorescence video showing motility of *kanR TPA* Nichols strain.
- 730
- 731 Video S3. Z-stack of individual 1 μm optical sections showing surface localization of *in*
- 732 *vitro*-cultivated GFP⁺ *TPA* Nichols strain co-cultured with Sf1Ep rabbit epithelial cells.
- 733
- 734 Video S4. Epifluorescence video showing motility of GFP⁺ *TPA* Nichols strain harvested
- 735 from rabbit testes.
- 736
- 737 Video S5. Epifluorescence video showing motility of WT *TPA* Nichols strain harvested
 738 from rabbit testes.
- 739
- 740 Video S6. Z-stack of individual 1 μ m optical sections showing surface localization of 741 GFP⁺ *TPA* Nichols strain harvested from rabbit testes.
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