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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 Syphilis is a sexually transmitted infection caused by the highly invasive and immunoevasive spirochetal pathogen *Treponema pallidum* subsp. *pallidum* (*TPA*). Untreated syphilis can lead to infection of multiple organ systems, including the central nervous system. The alarming increase in syphilis cases globally underscores the importance of developing novel strategies to understand the complexities of syphilis pathogenesis. In this study, we took advantage of recent advances in *in vitro* cultivation and genetic manipulation of syphilis spirochetes to engineer a *TPA* strain that constitutively expresses green fluorescent protein (GFP). GFP⁺ *TPA* grew 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- cultivation *in vitro*, within infected rabbit testes, and following opsonophagocytosis by murine bone marrow-derived macrophages. Development of fluorescent strain also enabled us to develop a flow cytometric-based assay to assess antibody-mediated damage to the spirochete's 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 immune rabbits infected with the *TPA* Nichols strain compared to sera generated against the genetically distinct SS14 strain. These latter findings highlight the importance of OM protein- specific antibody responses for clearance of *TPA* during syphilitic infection. The availability of fluorescent *TPA* strains paves the way for future studies investigating spirochete-host interactions as well as functional characterization of antibodies directed treponemal OM proteins, the presumptive targets for protective immunity.

Importance

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

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

Keywords

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

bone marrow-derived murine macrophages, bactericidal antibodies

Introduction

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

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

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

RESULTS

 TPA **constitutively expressing green fluorescent protein exhibits wild-type viability and cellular adhesiveness.** To genetically engineer a green fluorescent *TPA* strain, we used the strategy described by Romeis *et al.* (13) to transform the WT *TPA* Nichols strain with a suicide vector encoding tandem Extra-superfolder green fluorescent protein (GFP) (22) and kanamycin- resistance (*kanR*) transgenes in place of the native *tprA locus* (pMC5836; Fig. S1A). Extra- superfolder GFP was selected for these studies as it folds more efficiently and fluoresces brighter than enhanced GFP (23, 24). As a control, we also transformed WT *TPA* Nichols with a version of the suicide vector encoding only the *kanR* transgene (pMC5722; Fig. S1B). Following recovery, transformants were passaged in TpCM-2 medium containing 200 μg/ml kanamycin (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. 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 displayed highly similar growth profiles over 12 passages (168 days). Consistent with prior studies using nonfluorescent *TPA* (25), confocal composite images (Fig. 1C-D and Video S3) of *in vitro-cultivated GFP⁺ TPA* showed numerous treponemes on the surfaces of Sf1Ep cells; despite exhaustive efforts, we were unable to find any intracellular organisms.

 To evaluate expression of GFP in *TPA* harvested from Sf1Ep cells, we employed flow cytometry, a technique used extensively by us (19, 20, 26) and others (27-29) to track fluorescent *Borrelia burgdorferi*, the Lyme disease spirochete. Given the narrow width (~0.2 nm) (30) and elongated, helical waveform morphology of *TPA* (12, 31), separating spirochete 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 DNA dye, to exclude flow cytometric events caused by debris. After harvest, treponemes were 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); \sim 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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 Whole-genome sequencing to confirm replacement of *tprA* **with** *gfp***-***kanR* **in** *TPA* **Nichols**. Whole-genome sequencing (WGS) was performed on DNA extracted from *in vitro*-cultivated GFP⁺ 122 *TPA* at passages 6, 9 and 12 to confirm replacement of *tprA* with the *gfp*-*kanR* cassette and rule out additional insertions of the cassette elsewhere in the genome. Using the Nichols reference genome (CP004010.2), few if any reads mapped to the *tprA* locus in the GFP⁺ 124 *TPA* strain (Fig. S3). In contrast, abundant reads mapped to this region using a Nichols genome modified *in silico* to contain the *gfp*-*kanR* cassette (Fig. S3). Except for reads mapping to the *tpp47* and *flaA1* promoters used to drive transcription of *kanR* and *gfp*, respectively, we saw no evidence for insertion of either transgene elsewhere in the chromosome. Searches for the 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 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). 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 (1 to 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, 137 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 140 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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GFP⁺ 143 *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, 145 we inoculated rabbits intratesticularly with a total of 2×10^7 in vitro-cultivated GFP⁺ or WT *TPA*. 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* → 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 156 testes obtained at the time of sacrifice revealed numerous $GFP⁺$ treponemes attached to the 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 160 burdens by qPCR, confirming comparable hematogenous dissemination and invasion of distal 161 tissues by the $GFP⁺$ strain (Fig. 3C).

162 To evaluate whether the levels of GFP *in vivo* are comparable to those observed *in vitro*, 163 we performed flow cytometry on treponemes from infected testes following harvest applying the 164 same gating strategy described above. After removing double negative events, $\sim 95\%$ of PI⁺ 165 events were GFP⁺ with a mean MFI of 7583 \pm 309 (Fig. 4A), essentially identical to the value 166 (7381 ± 346, per above) following *in vitro* cultivation. Conversely, ~95% of GFP⁺ events were PI⁺ 167 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 (10⁵ – 10¹ 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 ($p > 0.05$). 173 However, the lesions produced by GFP⁺ TPA at the 10⁵ dose were significantly ($p \le 0.05$) larger 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 10⁴-10² 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 180 GFP⁺ strains at sites inoculated with 10^4 or 10^5 organisms (Fig. 5C).

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Opsonophagocytosis of GFP⁺ 182 *TPA* **by murine bone marrow-derived macrophages**. 183 Macrophage-mediated opsonophagocytosis of *TPA* is widely considered to be critical for 184 spirochete clearance (10). From the standpoint of vaccine development, opsonophagocytosis

 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 this assay would expedite sample processing and analysis by eliminating the need to visualize macrophage-associated treponemes via indirect immunofluorescence. Accordingly, we used our 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 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 (37, 38). To preserve proteinaceous surface epitopes, treponemes used for opsonophagocytosis assay were recovered from Sf1Ep cells using Dissociation buffer rather than trypsin-EDTA (39). Normal mouse sera (NMS) and antisera against TP0751, a lipoprotein which, in our hands, is not an opsonic target (37, 40), were used as negative controls. Consistent with prior studies 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 the phagocytic index, a measure of opsonophagocytosis that considers the number of 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' control.

 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 208 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 219 integrity, we took advantage of our finding that intact GFP⁺ TPA exclude PI in the absence of 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 (\sim 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 SS14-1 and SS14-2) also decreased the growth of GFP⁺ 230 *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

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

Discussion

 The refinement of systems for the long-term cultivation *in vitro* (12, 39) and genetic manipulation (13, 45) of *TPA* has ushered in a new era for syphilis research. Importantly, the ability to 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 that replicated at wild-type levels *in vitro*, was fully virulent in rabbits infected by intratesticular and intradermal inoculation, and disseminated to distal sites at levels comparable to the parental strain. We then used this strain to assess functional antibodies within syphilitic serum generated during experimental infection with *TPA* and following immunization with a protein scaffold containing *TPA* Nichols BamA ECL4, a known opsonic target (37, 41). Our findings illustrate the broad utility of fluorescent reporters for dissecting host-pathogen interactions during syphilitic infection, including antibody-mediated damage to the spirochetal OM.

 Previous studies have shown that *TPA* adheres to a broad range of host cells, including epithelial, fibroblast, and endothelial cells (46-51). Preincubation of *TPA* with IRS and human syphilitic sera blocks spirochete attachment to host cells and/or extracellular matrix components, implying the existence of specific surface adhesins (46-52). Short- and long-term *in vitro* cultivation of *TPA*, an extreme auxotroph, also requires continuous intimate contact with host cells (11, 12), presumably to scavenge host-derived nutrients. An important question, therefore, is whether *TPA* is exclusively an extracellular pathogen within its obligate human host and whether intracellular residence is part of its strategy for persistence and immune evasion; 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 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 Sf1Ep cells and within testes from infected rabbits revealed numerous surface-attached spirochetes and no evidence of intracellular organisms. Vascular escape by *TPA* is a critical step in hematogenous dissemination and target organ invasion (2, 56). Classic electron microscopy studies showed *TPA* migrating through the intercellular junctions separating human umbilical vein endothelial cells, a process designated 'inter-junctional penetration' (48, 57), a finding also consistent with the spirochete's extracellular lifestyle. The concept that OMPs can have both physiological and virulence-related functions is well established (58-61) and can be applied to *TPA* now that its repertoire of OMPs – the *TPA* OMPeome – has been delineated (34). Live imaging of GFP⁺ *TPA* should help elucidate how syphilis spirochetes penetrate tissues 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⁺ *TPA* by antibodies against ECLs provides an additional means of assessing the contribution(s) of individual *TPA* OMPs to adherence and dissemination, information of great value for vaccine design as well as unraveling of key events during the disease process.

 Antibody-mediated clearance by macrophages is thought to be crucial for controlling syphilitic infection (10, 35). While there currently is no 'true' correlate of protection for syphilis in humans, *ex vivo* opsonophagocytosis assays using sera from experimentally-infected animals and human syphilitic sera are regarded as a surrogate of protection (36, 37, 41, 62-64). Analysis of the molecular architecture of the *TPA* OM indicates that the presumptive targets for opsonic antibodies in immune sera reside largely within the OMPeome (9, 30, 34, 35, 65, 66). Previously, we demonstrated that antibodies against ECLs of several OMPs, including BamA 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 eliminating the need for antibody labeling to detect surface-bound versus internalized organisms. Understanding *TPA* interactions with macrophages is also directly relevant for efforts to deconvolute the spirochete's strategies for 'stealth pathogenicity' (9). It has long been known that only a subset of organisms incubated with IRS or antibodies to individual OMPs are susceptible to internalization by macrophages, leading to the assumption that there is heterogeneous surface antigenicity within spirochete populations (63, 65, 67). The need for surface-directed antibodies to promote macrophage uptake theoretically provides a window during early infection during which *TPA* can disseminate and invade while bypassing innate immune pathogen surveillance systems (68). Furthermore, studies by our group have shown that, because of the lack of lipopolysaccharide and the paucity of lipoproteins on the spirochetal surface (35), macrophage activation requires internalization and degradation of *TPA* within 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.

 Staining with the impermeant dye PI provided a straightforward means of using flow 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- cultivated in the presence of heat-inactivated IRS or BamA ECL4-specific antisera demonstrated that both appear to exert their bactericidal effects by damaging the spirochete's fragile OM by a complement- and Fc-receptor-independent mechanism. Cryoelectron microscopy has shown that antibodies against ECL4 of *E. coli* BamA freeze the BAM complex in the 'open' conformation, preventing insertion of newly synthesized OMPs into the OM bilayer (70). It is reasonable to presume that interference with OM biogenesis is responsible for the loss of OM integrity and resultant potent bactericidal effect of *TPA* BamA ECL4 antibodies observed herein. BamA antibodies also may be a major contributor to the killing capacity of IRS. Importantly, the substantively greater capacity for OM disruption by anti-BamA ECL4 clearly argues for the importance of including this antigen in a syphilis vaccine cocktail. Studies in the 1970s using IRS to passively immunize rabbits against intradermal inoculation revealed that IRS is protective, but that *TPA* replication and lesion formation resumed once serum administration 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.

 While rabbits infected with *TPA* develop complete immunity to homologous challenge, 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⁺ *TPA* Nichols strain was co-cultivated with heterologous IRS generated against the SS14 strain. We interpret these results to indicate the importance of *TPA* strain-specific antibodies for maximal bactericidal activity. Evidence for sequence variability within OMPs encoded by *TPA* clinical isolates is well documented (37, 41, 44, 74-78). Even single nonsynonymous amino acid substitutions in ECL4 of BamA can abrogate antibody binding (38). Substitutions in ECL3 from the FadL ortholog TP0865 also markedly affected antigenicity in SS14 compared to the Nichols (41). In a clinical scenario, antibodies targeting conserved ECLs likely provide a measure of cross-immunity, while OMP variability provides a means for immune evasion by organisms 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 expressing OMP ECL variants could help determine how sequence variability impacts clearance by functional antibodies in IRS and antisera from ECL-immunized animals, facilitating screening to identify ECL combinations capable of protecting against heterologous strains.

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).

 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).

 Generation of immune rabbit and mouse syphilitic sera. Immune rabbit sera (IRS) against *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 \times 10⁷ treponemes in 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 same strain at each of eight sites on their shaved backs. Animals were euthanized and exsanguinated once their immune status had been confirmed by lack of lesion development. Animal identification numbers (ID#) for IRS Nic-1 and Nic-2 were ID#112 and ID#717, respectively. Animal IDs for IRS SS14-1 and SS14-2 were ID#759 and ID#761, respectively. To 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

 10^8 total organisms per animal as previously described (37, 79). Mice were sacrificed on day 84 post-inoculation and exsanguinated to create a pool of MSS.

 In vitro **cultivation of** *TPA*. *TPA* were co-cultured with cottontail rabbit epithelial cells (Sf1Ep) in *TPA* culture medium 2 (TpCM‐2) under microaerophilic (MA) conditions as previously described 367 (12, 39). Briefly, Sf1Ep were seeded at 2×10^4 cells per well in a 24-well culture plate and 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 weekly thereafter, treponemes were harvested by trypsinization, enumerated by DFM, and 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 \times 10⁴ cells per well and 5 x 10 6 *TPA* were added per well.

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

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

 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 pMC5836 plasmid DNA (Fig. S1A) as previously described (13, 45). Briefly, *TPA* co-cultured 405 vith Sf1Ep cells for 1-week were trypsinized to release bound treponemes. \sim 5 \times 10⁷ organisms 406 were transferred to one well of a 24-well plate seeded the prior day with 2 \times 10⁴ Sf1Ep cells. The total volume in each well was brought to 2.5 ml with pre-equilibrated TpCM-2 and returned to the incubator. After 2 days, 1 ml of spent media was removed and replaced with 1 ml of fresh 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 μ g of LPS-free plasmid DNA. Following a 10 min incubation at 34°C under MA conditions, cells were washed 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 μ g/ml final concentration; Sigma- 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 μ g/ml kanamycin (TpCM-2Kan) per well. After two weeks, *TPA* were trypsinized, enumerated by DFM, and passaged to a new 24-well plate seeded with fresh Sf1Ep cells in TpCM-2Kan. Untreated, Transformation buffer (TB) alone, and "no kanamycin" control transformations were performed 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 well. Allelic replacement of *tprA* with either *gfp*-*kanR* or *kanR* was confirmed by PCR 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 SRL002, respectively.

Whole-genome sequencing. Genomic DNA was extracted from *in vitro*-cultivated GFP⁺ *TPA* collected at passages 6 (week 12), 9 (week 20) and 12 (week 26) as described above. For GFP⁺ *TPA* libraries were generated using Kapa Hyper Prep kit (Kapa Biosystems, Inc., Wilmington, MA, USA) and sequenced on an Illumina iSeq 100 system (Illumina, San Diego, 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, designated 'Nichols-Farmington', using DNA extracted from infected testes tissue, mixed with purified human DNA at 1:99 ratio of total DNA as previously described (82). Libraries were prepared using SureSelect XT HS target enrichment system (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA) with sequencing performed on the Illumina MiSeq system (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA) as previously described (83). Raw read data were analyzed using a modified version of the bioinformatic pipeline available at https://github.com/IDEELResearch/tpallidum_genomics. 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 \geq 20 were retained. Processed reads were aligned to the NCBI Nichols strain reference genome (CP004010.2) (42, 86) using minimap2 (v2.26) (87). Reads mapping to the highly variable *tprK* locus (14, 88-90) were eliminated from our analyses. Post-alignment filtering and variant calling were conducted with SAMtools and BCFtools (v1.9) (91). Transgenic insert breakpoints were identified using Gridds (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 *TPA* were deposited in the Sequence Read Archive database (BioProject PRJNA1134712).

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Flow cytometric comparison of GFP expression by GFP⁺ 449 *TPA* **cultivated** *in vitro* **and** 450 **recovered from rabbits.** \sim 2 \times 10⁸ *in vitro*-cultivated GFP⁺ TPA were harvested from a 6-well 451 plate as described above. For comparison with *in vivo*, \sim 4 \times 10⁸ 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 µl 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 non-

 spirochetal (PI/GFP double negative) events. Details regarding the gating strategy used for analysis of flow cytometry data are presented in Fig. S2.

Virulence testing of GFP⁺ *TPA* **by intratesticular inoculation.** Infectivity of *in vitro*-cultivated 466 WT and GFP⁺ TPA was compared by intratesticular inoculation of NZW rabbits as described 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 from the first rabbit (Rabbit 1) were used to inoculate a second NZW rabbit (Rabbit 2). At peak orchitis, the second rabbit for each strain was sacrificed and spirochete viability and burdens in testes determined by DFM. Popliteal lymph nodes (LNs; two per rabbit, per strain, per experiment) and whole blood (three 1-ml aliquots per rabbit, per strain, per experiment) were 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 2 mls of DNA/RNA Shield (Zymo). Samples were stored at -20°C until extraction using the 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 independent serial passage experiments. Statistical analyses were conducted using Prism (v. 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 statistically significant.

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 used to inoculate each side of the shaved backs of male NZW rabbits. Animals were examined daily to monitor the development, morphologic appearance, and progression of lesions. Lesions were measured daily with digital calipers beginning 7 days p.i. until sacrifice on day 30. After euthanasia, the dorsal skin was depilated to remove any remaining fur, cleaned with 70% ethanol, and cutaneous lesions were excised using a 4 mm punch biopsy tool for cryosectioning (described below) and qPCR. Tissues were placed in DNA/RNA Shield (Zymo) and stored at - 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 conducted using Prism (v. 9.5.1; GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA). A repeated measures two-tailed ANOVA was used to compare lesion circumferences at each time point for rabbits inoculated with the same dose of either WT or GFP⁺ *TPA.* A paired *t*-test was used to 496 compare spirochete burdens for WT and GFP⁺ TPA in lesions for 10⁵ and 10⁴ inocula. 497 Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons was applied and p -values ≤ 0.05 were considered significant.

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 503 washed with TpCM-2 and 5×10^6 GFP⁺ TPA in TpCM-2 added per well. After 7 days at 37°C under MA conditions, cells were washed twice with PBS then fixed for 15 min with 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS. After fixation, cells were washed with TpCM-2 as described above and cover slips transferred to clean 6-well plate containing 2 ml of 1X PBS per well. Sf1Ep cell membranes were stained with Cholera Toxin AF647 (200 ng/ml final conc; ThermoFisher) (95) for 30 min followed by staining of host cell nuclei with 4′,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI, 5 509 ga/ml final conc.; ThermoFisher) for 10 min. After two washes with PBS, coverslips were transferred cell side down onto a clean slide containing VECTASHIELD mounting medium (Vector Laboratories, Inc.) and sealed with nail polish. Individual 1 μ m 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).

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 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 PBS before being embedded in OCT compound using a 2-methyl-butane/dry ice/ethanol bath. 520 Embedded tissues were stored at -80 $^{\circ}$ C until sectioning. 7 μ m sections were cut using a Leica CM3050 S cryostat. Prior to imaging, sections were incubated for 30 min with Cholera Toxin 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 μ g/ml final conc.; ThermoFisher) for 10 min. Slides were washed thoroughly three times with PBST, rinsed with deionized water, and allowed to air dry. Sections were preserved in VECTASHIELD mounting medium (Vector 526 Laboratories, Inc.), sealed with a coverslip. Individual 1 μ m optical sections were acquired using a Zeiss 880 confocal microscope equipped with a with 63x/1.4 Plan-Apochromat oil objective. Images were processed using ZEN3.5 Blue.

Opsonophagocytosis assay of GFP⁺ *TPA* **by murine bone marrow-derived macrophages.** 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 chamber slides (Sigma-Aldrich), and incubated overnight at 37°C. The following day, the medium was replaced with fresh Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) supplemented 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 10⁶ TPA in 250 µl was preincubated at RT for 2 hr in DMEM supplemented with 1:10 dilutions of mouse syphilitic sera (MSS) generated against *TPA* Nichols (37) or mouse antisera directed against *TPA* Nichols BamA ECL4 (38). Following preincubation, all conditions with or without sera were added to cells for 4 h at 37°C and an MOI of 10:1. Negative controls included normal mouse sera (NMS) and mouse antisera directed against TP0751 (40). Following a 4 h incubation, supernatants were removed and macrophages were 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. Wells were then incubated with Cholera Toxin AF647 (200 ng/ml final conc; ThermoFisher) for 546 30 min and DAPI (5 μ g/ml final conc; ThermoFisher) for 10 min and washed thoroughly three times with PBST, rinsed with deionized water to remove salt, and allowed to air dry. Samples were preserved in VECTASHIELD mounting medium (Vector Laboratories, Inc., Newark, CA, USA), sealed with a coverslip. Internalization of *TPA* was assessed in a blinded fashion by acquiring epifluorescence images of at least 100 macrophages per well using an Olympus BX- 41 microscope equipped with a 40x/1.00 UPlan-Apochromat oil iris objective. Images were processed with VisiView (v. 5.0.0.7; Visitron Systems GmbH). Assays were performed in triplicate for each condition tested. The phagocytic index for each sample was calculated by dividing the number of internalized spirochetes by the total number of cells imaged and 555 multiplying by 100. Confocal images (12-15 1- μ m optical sections) were acquired using a Zeiss 880 equipped with a 63x/1.4 Plan-Apochromat oil objective and processed using ZEN3.5 Blue. Statistical analyses were conducted using Prism (v. 9.5.1; GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, 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 significant.

 Flow cytometric assessment of growth inhibition and OM disruption during incubation with IRS and antibodies to BamA ECL4. Sf1Ep cells were cultured in a 24-well plate ON as 564 described above. 2.5 \times 10⁶ freshly harvested GFP⁺ TPA were added to each well along with 10% NRS, IRS from two Nichols immune rabbits (IRS Nic-1 and IRS Nic-2), or IRS from two SS14 immune rabbits (IRS SS14-1 and IRS SS14-2), or rabbit polyclonal antisera against *TPA* Nichols BamA ECL4 (37, 38) or TP0751 (40) and then incubated under MA conditions. All assays were performed in triplicate. After seven days, spent media was transferred to a clean 569 centrifuge tube, cells were washed once with 200 μ of trypsin-EDTA (Sigma-Aldrich), and the 570 recovered material was combined with the spent media from the same well. An additional 200 ul of trypsin-EDTA was then added to each well and incubated at 34°C for 5 min to release 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 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 determined after excluding non-spirochetal (*i.e*., double negative) events as shown in Fig. S2. Statistical analyses were conducted using Prism (v. 9.5.1; GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, 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 considered significant.

Acknowledgments

- We thank Morgan LeDoyt and Kemar Edwards for outstanding technical support. The authors would like to acknowledge support from Dr. Evan Jellison (UConn Health Flow Cytometry Core
- Facility), Dr. Zhifang Hao (UConn Health Research Histology Core), Susan Staurovsky (UConn
- Health Richard D. Berlin Center for Cell Analysis and Modeling) and Rachel Spreng (Duke
- Human Vaccine Institute).
-
- **Competing interests**
- J.B.P. reports research support from Gilead Sciences and non-financial support from Abbott
- Laboratories.
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-
- **Funding**
- This work was supported by NIAID grants U19 AI144177 and U01 AI182179 (J.D.R.), T32
- AI007151 (F.A.), Diversity Supplement U19 AI144177 (K.N.D and J.D.R) and research funds
- generously provided by Open Philanthropy/Good Ventures (K.L.H. and M.J.C) and Connecticut
- Children's (J.D.R, K.L.H. and M.J.C.).

Figure Legends

Fig 1. GFP⁺ *TPA* **Nichols grows comparably to WT** *in vitro* **and localizes predominantly to 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 wild-type (WT) parent grown in the presence (black) and absence (blue) of kanamycin. (**C**) 614 Representative confocal image (1 μ m optical section) of GFP⁺ TPA co-cultured with Sf1Ep cells labeled with DAPI (blue) and Cholera Toxin AF647 (magenta), which stain host cell nuclei and plasma membranes, respectively. (**D**) Digital enlargement (3X) of boxed area in **C**. Z-stack of individual 1 m optical sections showing surface localization of *TPA* can be found in Video S3.

Fig 2. Flow cytometric analysis of GFP expression by GFP⁺ *TPA* **during** *in vitro* 620 **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 622 define PI⁺ and GFP⁺ populations are shown in Fig. S2. Events within the red boxed area in the 623 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.

Fig 3. GFP⁺ *TPA* **exhibits WT intratesticular growth, hematogenous dissemination, and localization to lymph nodes following intratesticular inoculation.** (**A**) Schematic 628 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. 634 (B) Representative 1 µm optical sections of GFP⁺ TPA (green) revealing numerous extracellular 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 μ m 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.

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645 Fig 4. Expression of GFP by *TPA* harvested from rabbit testes. Flow cytometry of GFP⁺ 646 *TPA* harvested from rabbit testes (*in vivo*), permeabilized with 0.01% Triton X-100, and 647 counterstained with PI. Gating strategies used to eliminate non-spirochetal double-negative 648 events and define PI⁺ and GFP⁺ populations are shown in Fig. S2. Events within the red boxed 649 area in the top left panel were used to quantify (A) GFP⁺ events within the PI⁺ population and 650 (B) PI⁺ events within the GFP⁺ population. Results are representative of three independent 651 experiments.

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Fig 5. GFP⁺ 653 *TPA* **exhibits wild-type infectivity in rabbits by intradermal challenge.** (**A**) 654 Representative images of dermal lesions 23 days after intradermal inoculation with graded 655 doses (1 \times 10⁵ – 1 \times 10¹) of GFP⁺ (left) and WT (right) *TPA*. (**B**) Lesion circumferences (mm) for 656 sites inoculated with 1 x 10⁵ GFP⁺ or WT *TPA*. Values represent the means \pm standard 657 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 659 1×10^5 and 1 \times 10⁴ GFP⁺ or WT *TPA*. Bars represent the means ± standard deviations for *TPA 660 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.

Fig 6. Opsonophagocytosis of GFP⁺ *TPA* **by murine bone marrow-derived macrophages.** (**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- incubation with murine syphilitic serum (MSS) generated against *TPA* Nichols or mouse polyclonal antisera against BamA ECL4. Normal mouse sera (NMS) and mouse polyclonal antisera against TP0751, a non-opsonic periplasmic lipoprotein, were used as negative controls. White arrowheads indicate *TPA* on the surfaces of macrophages. Magenta, cholera toxin AF647; blue, DAPI. (**B**) Phagocytic indices for samples shown in panel A. Bars represent the 671 mean \pm standard deviation for three biological replicates per condition. ****, $p \le 0.0001$ compared to NMS.

 Fig 7. Disruption of *TPA* **outer membranes by immune rabbit sera and rabbit anti-BamA ECL4.** (A) Enumeration of GFP⁺ TPA co-cultured *in vitro* with Sf1Ep cells in the presence of normal rabbit serum (NRS), immune rabbit serum (IRS) from two Nichols immune rabbits (IRS Nic-1 and IRS Nic-2) or two SS14 immune rabbits (IRS SS14-1 and IRS SS14-2), and rabbit antisera against either TP0751 or BamA ECL4. Symbols indicate the spirochete densities before (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⁺ 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.

Supplemental Material

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

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 704 panels for, *in vitro*-cultivated GFP⁺ TPA stained with PI in the absence of detergent (- Triton) 705 used to define the GFP⁺ population and confirm exclusion of PI by intact treponemes. Results are representative of three independent experiments.

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⁺ 710 *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*.

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

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

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

724 assessing the percentage of PI⁺ organisms within the GFP⁺ population for each serum. Results

are representative of three independent experiments.

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

- **strain.**
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- **Video S2. Epifluorescence video showing motility of** *kanR TPA* **Nichols strain.**
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- **Video S3. Z-stack of individual 1 m optical sections showing surface localization of** *in*
- *vitro***-cultivated GFP⁺** *TPA* **Nichols strain co-cultured with Sf1Ep rabbit epithelial cells.**
-
- **Video S4. Epifluorescence video showing motility of GFP⁺** *TPA* **Nichols strain harvested**
- **from rabbit testes.**
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- **Video S5. Epifluorescence video showing motility of WT** *TPA* **Nichols strain harvested from rabbit testes.**
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- **Video S6. Z-stack of individual 1 m optical sections showing surface localization of GFP⁺** *TPA* **Nichols strain harvested from rabbit testes.**
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 $\mathsf C$

<u>10 μm</u>

 α -TP0751

 $\mathsf B$

GFP