# The *Staphylococcus aureus* KdpDE Two-Component System Couples Extracellular K<sup>+</sup> Sensing and Agr Signaling to Infection Programming<sup>∇</sup>†‡

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The Kdp system is widely distributed among bacteria. In *Escherichia coli*, the Kdp-ATPase is a high-affinity  $K^+$  uptake system and its expression is activated by the KdpDE two-component system in response to  $K^+$  limitation or salt stress. However, information about the role of this system in many bacteria still remains obscure. Here we demonstrate that KdpFABC in *Staphylococcus aureus* is not a major  $K^+$  transporter and that the main function of KdpDE is not associated with  $K^+$  transport but that instead it regulates transcription for a series of virulence factors through sensing external  $K^+$  concentrations, indicating that this bacterium might modulate its infectious status through sensing specific external  $K^+$  stimuli in different environments. Our results further reveal that *S. aureus* KdpDE is upregulated by the Agr/RNAIII system, which suggests that KdpDE may be an important virulence regulator coordinating the external  $K^+$  sensing and Agr signaling during pathogenesis in this bacterium.

Staphylococcus aureus is a significant human pathogen that causes a wide range of infections. Its capacity to cause diseases arises from its production of a diverse array of virulence factors during different stages of infection, including secreted proteins, such as serine protease (Ssp), nuclease, hemolysins, enterotoxins, lipase, and coagulase, and proteins exposed on the cell surface, such as protein A (Spa) and fibrinogen-, fibronectin-, and collagen-binding proteins (9, 14). Expression of these factors is regulated by a range of global regulators that mainly comprise two families: two-component regulatory systems, which are sensitive to environmental signals and consist of a sensor histidine kinase and a response regulator protein, and the Sar homologs, a family of DNA-binding proteins homologous to SarA (9, 14, 17, 31). Genomic scans have revealed that there are 16 two-component systems in the genome of S. aureus (28). Among these, several have been revealed to have specific physiological roles, including Agr (accessory gene regulator) and ArlRS, SaeRS, SrrAB, LytRS, VraRS, HssRS, and GraRS, some of which are known as virulence-associated sensor-regulator systems involved in the induced production of toxins and exoproteins and the regulation of biofilm formation (12, 20, 24, 28, 30, 33, 39, 49, 55). The Agr system is also the major quorum sensing system in which agrD encodes the autoinducing peptide pheromone (AIP), which activates the twocomponent AgrC-AgrA system; the latter two function as sensor and response regulator proteins, respectively (31, 33, 39).

As the most important quorum sensing system, Agr controls the expression of many virulence factors and primarily regulates alterations in the gene expression pattern when cells enter the post-exponential phase. In contrast, the physiological functions of several *S. aureus* two-component systems still remain to be explored. The orthologues of these systems are widely found in Gram-positive bacteria, suggesting that they play important roles in cell physiology (9).

The KdpDE two-component system was first characterized in Escherichia coli, in which proteins KdpD and KdpE regulate the production of the high-affinity K<sup>+</sup> transporter Kdp-ATPase (6, 19, 38, 40). In E. coli, Kdp-ATPase is an efficient K<sup>+</sup>-scavenging system that is expressed when cells are subjected to extreme K<sup>+</sup> limitation or osmotic upshock and other low-affinity K<sup>+</sup> transporters cannot meet the cellular requirements for K<sup>+</sup> (2, 4, 18, 26, 27, 29). The E. coli Kdp system consists of four proteins encoded by a single operon, kdpFABC, and its regulatory element, kdpDE, which is situated downstream of the kdpC gene (2, 19). Under K<sup>+</sup> limitation or high osmolarity imposed by a salt, the histidine kinase KdpD autophosphorylates and transfers the phosphoryl group to the response regulator KdpE (51). Phosphorylated KdpE exhibits increased affinity for a 23-bp sequence upstream of the canonical -35 and -10 regions of the kdpFABC promoter and thereby triggers kdpFABC transcription (47). A BLAST search of Kdp protein sequences shows that the Kdp-ATPase system is widely distributed among Gram-negative bacteria (e.g., E. coli, Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium LT2, and Clostridium acetobutylicum) and Gram-positive bacteria (e.g., Bacillus cereus E33L, Alicyclobacillus acidocaldarius, and Mycobacterium tuberculosis). In distantly related bacteria, the ordering of the kdpA, kdpB, and kdpC genes is relatively fixed, but the *kdpDE* genes show different arrangements (6, 44, 52). In S. aureus, the organization of the kdpFABC operon is similar to that of E. coli, but the kdpDE genes are arranged in a reverse orientation upstream of the kdpA gene. Although ex-

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perimental evidence has shown that the Kdp-ATPase system in several bacteria also functions as a high-affinity  $K^+$  transporter (1, 5, 21, 22, 50), the role of the Kdp system in pathogenic bacteria has not been investigated in detail.

Recently, several lines of evidence have shown that the twocomponent system KdpD-KdpE is involved in virulence in some bacteria. In Mycobacterium tuberculosis, deletion of kdpDE resulted in increased virulence. Mice infected with the M. tuberculosis kdpDE mutant died more rapidly than did those infected with wild-type bacteria (36). In S. aureus, the function of the Kdp system has not yet been clarified, although several reports have shown that the transcript level of kdpDE changes under certain environmental stresses (exposure to neutrophil microbicides or growth under biofilm conditions) (7, 35). Our previous work showed that the transcript level of kdpDE in the luxS mutant increased compared with that in the wild type and the addition of exogenous autoinducer 2 (AI-2) restored the parental phenotype; besides this, the inactivation of kdpDE resulted in a decreased transcript level of cap, indicating that the LuxS/AI-2 signaling system regulates capsular polysaccharide synthetase gene expression via KdpDE (56). All these data suggest that KdpDE might be a functional two-component system in S. aureus; however, detailed information about its physiological role and how it functions needs further exploration.

In the present study, we identified the function of KdpDE in S. aureus. In S. aureus NCTC8325, KdpDE displays a repression effect on the transcription of kdpFABC under all of the different K<sup>+</sup> conditions that were tested and KdpFABC is not a major  $K^+$  transporter. However, inactivation of *kdpDE* results in alterations of transcription for a range of virulence genes, including spa, cap, hla, aur, geh, and hlgB. In addition, our electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA) data showed that KdpE can directly bind to the promoter regions of most of these genes so as to regulate their transcription. Besides this, we also revealed that the transcript level of kdpDE was influenced by the external K<sup>+</sup> concentration, indicating that this bacterium might modulate its infectious status by sensing specific external K<sup>+</sup> stimuli in different environments. Finally, we found that Agr/RNAIII strongly activated the transcript level of kdpDE in the post-exponential phase of the cells, and we confirmed that this regulatory effect was via Rot.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Bacterial strains and growth conditions.** The bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study are described in Table 1. *Staphylococcus aureus* and *E. coli* were grown in Luria-Bertani (LB) medium or tryptic soy broth (TSB; soybean-casein digest medium USP; Oxoid) medium with the appropriate antibiotics for plasmid selection and maintenance. The mutants were constructed using a method previously described (11). All primers used in this study are listed in Table S1 in the supplemental material.

**Development of the CDM.** To study the effect of external  $K^+$  on *S. aureus* strains under an increasing gradient of  $K^+$  conditions, a formulation based on the one by Onoue and Mori was used (34). Initially, all potassium-containing salts of this medium were replaced with their sodium equivalents. The detailed composition of the formulation is described in Table S2 in the supplemental material. Three groups of wild-type bacteria were initially cultivated in chemically defined medium (CDM) with 0.2 mM K<sup>+</sup> to an optical density at 600 nm (OD<sub>600</sub>) of 0.3, and then K<sup>+</sup> was added to two groups of these until final concentrations of 4 mM and 100 mM were reached. Each group was divided into three parts on average, and the three parts of the cells were harvested after cultivation for 10 min, 40 min, and a longer time (about 3 h to reach an OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.5). The RNA from

each group was subsequently extracted for real-time reverse transcription-PCR (RT-PCR) assays.

Measurement of the internal potassium concentration of *S. aureus*. The cells were cultivated in CDMs with different  $K^+$  concentrations to an  $OD_{600}$  of 0.6, harvested by centrifugation, and then washed with deionized water six times to eliminate any residual  $K^+$  in the medium. The cleaned cells were dried and lysed with sulfuric acid (metal-oxide-semiconductor grade), and the internal potassium concentration was assessed using an AAnalyst 800 atomic absorption spectrometer (Perkin-Elmer Corporation).

Total RNA isolation, cDNA generation, real-time RT-PCR, and microarray processing. For the microarray assays, overnight cultures of S. aureus were diluted 1:100 in LB medium and grown to the late exponential phase (OD<sub>600</sub> = 2.0). Cells were collected by centrifugation and resuspended in Tris-EDTA (TE) buffer (pH 8.0) containing 10 g/liter lysozyme and 40 mg/liter lysostaphin. After incubation at 37°C for 5 min, S. aureus cells were prepared for total RNA extraction using the Trizol method (Invitrogen), and any residual DNA was removed with DNase (RNase free; TaKaRa). The cDNAs were synthesized and labeled according to the manufacturer's recommendations for S. aureus antisense genome arrays (Affymetrix Inc., Santa Clara, CA). Further preparation, hybridization, and scanning were conducted by the Biochip Company of Shanghai, China, Microarray data were analyzed with the Affymetrix Microarray Suite software 5.1 (Affymetrix Inc.) and a four-comparison survival method. Real-time RT-PCR was performed with the PrimeScript 1st Strand cDNA synthesis kit and the SYBR Premix Ex Taq (TaKaRa) using the StepOne real-time PCR system (Applied Biosystems). The quantity of cDNA measured by real-time PCR was normalized to the abundance of 16S cDNA. All the real-time PCR assays were repeated at least four times.

Purification of KdpE and Rot. The same purification methods were used for KdpE and Rot. Plasmid was transformed into E. coli BL21(DE3). The transformant was grown in 1 liter of LB at 37°C to an  $\mathrm{OD}_{600}$  of 0.3 and induced with 0.5 mM IPTG (isopropyl-β-D-thiogalactopyranoside) for 3 h. Cells were harvested by centrifugation and washed with cell washing buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, and 0.5 M NaCl). The cells were resuspended in 50 ml of lysis buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, and 0.5 M NaCl) and were then lysed by sonication and centrifuged at 12,500 rpm for 30 min at 4°C. The supernatant was mixed with 2 ml of Ni-NTA agarose solution (Invitrogen), and the suspension was loaded onto a column at 4°C. After the column was washed with 5 ml of washing buffer I (5 mM imidazole, 20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 0.5 M NaCl) and then with 100 ml of washing buffer II (20 mM imidazole, 20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 0.5 M NaCl) and 10 ml of washing buffer III (100 mM imidazole, 20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 0.5 M NaCl), the Rot protein was eluted with 5 ml of elution buffer (250 mM imidazole, 20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 0.5 M NaCl, 10% glycerol). The imidazole in the eluant was removed by using a Centrifuge Biomax-5 column (Millipore), and then the protein solution was stored at -80°C until use. The purity of the protein was analyzed by SDS-PAGE, and the protein concentration was measured using the Bradford assay with bovine serum albumin (BSA) as a standard.

**Electrophoretic mobility shift assay.** The DNA fragments containing the promoters were amplified from the *S. aureus* NCTC8325 chromosome. The PCR products were labeled using the digoxigenin (DIG) gel shift kit (Roche) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The labeled fragment was incubated at  $25^{\circ}$ C for 15 min with various amounts of purified proteins in 10 µl of incubation buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 100 mM NaCl, 3 mM magnesium acetate, 0.1 mM EDTA, 0.1 mM dithiothreitol). After incubation, the mixtures were electrophoresed in a 4% native polyacrylamide gel in an 0.5× Tris-borate-EDTA (TBE) buffer. The band shifts were detected and analyzed according to the manufacturer's instructions.

**DNase I footprinting assay.** The forward primer was synthesized and subsequently 5' labeled with 6-carboxyfluorescein (6-FAM), resulting in the labeled primer p-kdp-f-FAM. The labeled DNA fragments were prepared by PCR using *S. aureus* NCTC8325 genomic DNA as the template. The labeled DNA fragments were purified by PAGE. The DNase I footprinting assays were performed with a 3730XL DNA analyzer (Applied Biosystems) using a modified method based on previous studies (54).

S. aureus survival in human blood and in U937 monocytic cells. Heparinized venous blood samples were collected from healthy donors who provided written informed consent to participate in the study. The bacterial strains were harvested from TSB plates after being cultured at 37°C for 16 h, washed twice in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), and suspended to an OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.8. The heparinized human blood (1 ml) was inoculated with  $1 \times 10^6$  CFU of S. aureus and incubated at 37°C with shaking (250 rpm). A total of  $5 \times 10^6$  U937 monocytic cells were mixed with  $2 \times 10^6$  CFU of S. aureus opsonized with 10% normal human serum and incubated at 37°C under an atmosphere of 5% CO<sub>2</sub> with intermittent shaking. The bacteria were diluted to the appropriate concentration for testing at the

Strains		
S. aureus		
$WT^b$	NCTC8325, wild type	NARSA <sup>a</sup>
RN4220	8325-4, r <sup>-</sup>	NARSA
RN6911	agr locus in 8325-4 replaced by tetM	NARSA
SX8	8325 kdpDE::ermB	L. Zhao
SX9	8325 <i>kdpDE</i> :: <i>ermB</i> pLIkdpDE	L. Zhao
SX10	8325 kdpE::ermB	L. Zhao
SX11	8325 <i>kdpE::ermB</i> pLIkdpE	L. Zhao
SX13	8325 kdpFABC::ermB	This study
SX14	8325 <i>kdpFABC</i> :: <i>ermB</i> pLIkdpFABC	This study
SX15	8325 agr::ermB	This study
SX16	8325 agr::ermB pLIagr	This study
SX17	8325 RNAIII::ermB	This study
SX18	8325 RNAIII::ermB pLIRNAIII	This study
SX19	8325 rot::ermB	This study
SX20	8325 rot::ermB pLIrot	This study
SX21	RN6911 rot::ermB, agr rot double mutant	This study
E. coli		
DH5a	Clone host strain, $supE44 \ \Delta lacU169(\phi 80 \ lacZ\Delta M15)$ hsdR17 recA1 endA1 gyrA96 thi-1 relA1	Invitrogen
BL21	Expression strain, $F^- ompT hsdS(r_B^- m_B^-)$ gal dcm (DE3)	Invitrogen
Dlasmids		
pEASV Blunt	Clone vector Kap <sup>r</sup> Ap <sup>r</sup>	Transgen
pEAST-Dium $pET28_2(\pm)$	Every sector, Kan Ap	Novagen
pE120a(+)	pET28a(+) with <i>ldnE</i> gape	This study
pOKupE pGrot	pE128a(+) with <i>kapp</i> gene	This study
pGI0t	pE12escript derivative: source of $erm B$ gene: $Ap^r$	R Bruckner
pEC1 pBT2	Shuttle vector temperature sensitive $\Delta n^{\Gamma} (m^{\Gamma})$	R Bruckner
pBT2 pBTkdpFABC	nBT2 derivative for kdnF4BC mutagenesis: An <sup>r</sup> Cm <sup>r</sup> Em <sup>r</sup>	This study
pBTkdpDE	pBT2 derivative for kdpDE mutagenesis: Ap <sup>r</sup> Cm <sup>r</sup> Em <sup>r</sup>	L. Zhao
pBTkdpE	pBT2 derivative for $kdpE$ mutagenesis: Ap <sup>r</sup> Cm <sup>r</sup> Cm <sup>r</sup>	L. Zhao
pBTagr	nBT2 derivative, for <i>agr</i> mutagenesis: An <sup>r</sup> Cm <sup>r</sup> Em <sup>r</sup>	This study
pBTRNAIII	nBT2 derivative, for RNAIII mutagenesis: An <sup>r</sup> Cm <sup>r</sup> Em <sup>r</sup>	This study
pBTrot	nBT2 derivative, for rot mutagenesis: An <sup>r</sup> Cm <sup>r</sup> Em <sup>r</sup>	This study
pL150	Shuttle cloning vector An <sup>r</sup> Cm <sup>r</sup>	Addgene
pLikdpFABC	pI J50 with $kdnFABC$ and its promoter. Ap <sup>r</sup> Cm <sup>r</sup>	This study
pLIkdpDE	pLI50 with kdpDE and its promoter. Ap' $Cm^r$	L. Zhao
pLIkdpE	pL150 with kdpE and the promoter of kdp operon. Ap <sup>r</sup> Cm <sup>r</sup>	L. Zhao
pLlagr	pLI50 with <i>agr</i> operon and its promoter. Ap <sup>r</sup> Cm <sup>r</sup>	This study
pLIRNAIII	pLI50 with RNAIII and its promoter, $Ap^{r}$ Cm <sup>r</sup>	This study
pLIrot	pLI50 with <i>rot</i> and its promoter, $Ap^{r} Cm^{r}$	This study

Strain or plasmid

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<sup>a</sup> NARSA, Network on Antimicrobial Resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus*. <sup>b</sup> WT, wild type.

required intervals, and CFU were calculated by plate counts performed in duplicate on TSB agar. The percentage of *S. aureus* CFU that survived was determined by comparing the bacterial burden in each sample after the indicated time with the bacterial burden at the start of the assay (0 h).

Microarray data accession number. The microarray data and detailed protocols have been deposited in the CIBEX database (http://cibex.nig.ac.jp) with accession number CBX136.

#### RESULTS

KdpE can bind to the promoters of *kdpF* and *kdpD* and always represses transcription of the *kdpFABC* operon. The available genomic information shows that the organization of the *S. aureus* Kdp system is different from that in *E. coli*. In *E. coli*, the *kdpDE* operon is located downstream of *kdpC*, while in *S. aureus*, *kdpDE* is arranged in a reverse orientation upstream of *kdpA* (Fig. 1A). Since the *E. coli kdpDE* and other investigated *kdpDE* operons all activated the transcription of *kdpFABC*, it was reasonable for us to first investigate whether S. aureus kdpDE also has the same regulatory effect on the transcription of kdpFABC. The transcript levels of kdpFABC in the wild type, the kdpDE mutant, and the kdpE mutant were measured by real-time reverse transcription-PCR (RT-PCR) analysis. Unexpectedly, the transcript levels of kdpFABC in both the kdpDE mutant and the kdpE mutant displayed an increase compared with that in the wild type, whether the cells were grown in LB medium to an optical density at 600 nm (OD<sub>600</sub>) of 1, 2, or 3 (Fig. 1B), suggesting that, in contrast to all of the other investigated kdpDE operons, the S. aureus kdpDE represses transcription of kdpFABC throughout the growth phase. Since KdpE is the response regulator containing a helix-turn-helix DNA-binding domain, we supposed that its regulatory effect on the transcription of kdpFABC might be through direct binding to the promoter regions of the kdpFABC operon. In order to determine this, we carried out EMSAs. The intergenic region between kdpF and kdpD was divided into two

Source or reference



FIG. 1. Regulatory effect of KdpE on the *kdp* operon and *kdpDE* transcription. (A) Organization of the *kdp* operons in *S. aureus* and *E. coli*. The arrows indicate the directions of translation as determined from the nucleotide sequence. (B) The regulatory effect of KdpDE on the transcription of *kdpFABC* in cells grown in LB medium. The transcript levels of *kdpFABC* were compared using real-time RT-PCR in wild type (WT; *S. aureus* NCTC8325), SX8 (*kdpDE* mutant), SX9 (*kdpDE* mutant with a plasmid encoding KdpDE), SX10 (*kdpE* mutant), and SX11 (*kdpE* mutant with a plasmid encoding KdpDE), SX10 (*kdpE* mutant), and SX11 (*kdpE* mutant with a plasmid encoding KdpDE). The strains were grown in LB medium to OD<sub>600</sub>s of 1, 2, and 3. (C) The ability of KdpE to bind to the *kdpFABC* promoter as determined by EMSAs. (D) The regulatory effect of KdpE) on the transcription of *kdpD*. The transcript levels of *kdpD* perometra as determined by EMSAs. All the real-time PCR assays were repeated five times with similar results. Error bars indicate standard deviations.

parts, which were used as p-kdpF and p-kdpD, respectively. As expected, KdpE appeared to have a strong ability to bind to the promoter regions of *kdpFABC in vitro* (Fig. 1C).

Most of the response regulators of the two-component system can bind to the promoter region of their own operons and regulate transcription. Therefore, it was appropriate to investigate whether *S. aureus* KdpE also has this common feature. We performed real-time RT-PCR experiments and EMSAs for this purpose. Interestingly, our results showed that although KdpE can directly bind to the promoter region of *kdpDE* (Fig. 1E), it displayed no apparent influence on the transcription of this operon when the cells were grown in LB medium to different growth phases (Fig. 1D).

**KdpFABC is not a major**  $K^+$  **transporter in** *S. aureus.* In *E. coli*, KdpFABC is a highly efficient  $K^+$  transporter and inactivation of *kdpFABC* will result in notable growth inhibition of the cells when the external  $K^+$  concentration is low. However, according to the above data, the regulatory effect of *S. aureus* 



FIG. 2. KdpFABC is not a major K<sup>+</sup> transporter in *S. aureus*. (A) Comparison of growth rates of WT, SX8 (*kdpDE* mutant), and SX13 (*kdpFABC* mutant) in CDM with different K<sup>+</sup> concentrations. (B) Measurement of the internal K contents of the WT and SX13 (*kdpFABC* mutant) at different K<sup>+</sup> concentrations of 0.2 mM, 4 mM, 20 mM, and 100 mM. (C) The regulatory effect of KdpDE on the transcription of *kdpFABC* in cells grown under different external K<sup>+</sup> conditions. The transcript levels of *kdpFABC* were compared between WT, SX8 (*kdpDE* mutant), and SX10 (*kdpE* mutant) cells at different external K<sup>+</sup> concentrations of 0.2 mM, 4 mM, and 100 mM. The real-time PCR assay was repeated four times with similar results. Error bars indicate standard deviations.



FIG. 3. Influence of external K<sup>+</sup> on *kdpDE* transcription. (A and B) Influence of K<sup>+</sup> stimuli on the transcription of *kdpDE*. The transcript levels of *kdpD* and *kdpDE* in the WT were tested when the cells were grown under different K conditions for different times. Three groups of wild-type bacteria were initially cultivated in CDM with 0.2 mM K<sup>+</sup> to an OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.3, and then K<sup>+</sup> was added to two groups of these until final concentrations of 4 mM and 100 mM were reached. Each group was divided into three parts on average, and the three parts of the cells were harvested after cultivation for 10 min, and a longer time (about 3 h to reach an OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.5). (C) Experiments to explore whether or not the K<sup>+</sup> stimuli in the environment influenced the transcription of *kdpDE* through KdpE. The transcript levels of *kdpD* between WT and SX10 (*kdpE* mutant) under different K<sup>+</sup> conditions. All the real-time PCR assays were repeated four times with similar results. Error bars indicate standard deviations.

KdpDE on the transcription of kdpFABC appears to be contrary to that of its homolog in E. coli, which led us to suspect that the KdpFABC in S. aureus may not function like that in E. coli. We designed a series of experiments in order to explore whether the S. aureus KdpFABC is associated with K<sup>+</sup> transport. We first compared the growth rates of the wild type, the kdpDE mutant, and the kdpFABC mutant when they were grown in chemically defined medium (CDM) with different K<sup>+</sup> concentrations. The results showed that no remarkable difference was observed between the growth rates of the three strains, whether the external K<sup>+</sup> concentration was low or high (Fig. 2A). After this, we assessed the internal K contents of the wild type and the kdpFABC mutant strain when they were grown under different external K<sup>+</sup> conditions. As shown in Fig. 2B, the internal K contents of the *kdpFABC* mutants were quite high no matter which external K<sup>+</sup> condition they were grown under. When the external K<sup>+</sup> concentration was 0.2 mM or 4 mM, the internal K content of the *kdpFABC* mutant was a little lower than that of the wild type.

Under the other external K<sup>+</sup> conditions, the two strains showed no remarkable difference in the internal K content. We further investigated the regulatory effect of KdpDE on *kdpFABC* transcription when the cells were grown under different external K<sup>+</sup> conditions. Our results still confirmed that transcription of *kdpFABC* is repressed by KdpDE (Fig. 2C). Compared with the activation of *kdpFABC* transcription by KdpDE in *E. coli*, the sustained repression effect of KdpDE on *kdpFABC* in *S. aureus* strongly suggests that KdpFABC is not a major K<sup>+</sup> transporter.

**Transcription of** *kdpDE* is influenced by external  $K^+$  concentration. In *E. coli*, the transcript level of *kdpDE* changes with fluctuations in external  $K^+$  concentrations. Therefore, we performed experiments to determine whether or not the transcription of *S. aureus kdpDE* can also be influenced by external  $K^+$  concentrations. We tested the effects of three different  $K^+$  concentrations: 0.2 mM, which is close to the usual  $K^+$  concentration in the natural environment; 4 mM, which is almost equal to the  $K^+$  concentration in human blood and serum; and

TABLE 2. Main genes affected by	y Kdp	DE
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Gene function and identifier	Gene product	Fold change, mutant vs WT <sup>c</sup>
Metabolism genes		
SAOUHSČ 01389	Thioredoxin reductase	2
SAOUHSC 00113	AdhE product = $alcohol-acetaldehvde dehvdrogenase$	2
SAOUHSC 01619	Probable exodeoxyribonuclease VII small subunit	2.14
SAOUHSC 01825	Aminotransferase, class V	2
SAOUHSC 02281	IlvD product = dihydroxy-acid dehydratase	2.63
SAOUHSC 02282	IlvB product = acetolactate synthase large subunit	2.14
SAOUHSC 02283	Similar to acetolactate synthase small subunit	2.63
SAOUHSC 02671	NarK product = nitrite extrusion protein	2
SAOUHSC 02679	Similar to nitrate reductase delta chain	373
SAOUHSC 02680	NarH product = nitrate reductase beta chain	3.03
SAOLIHSC 02682	NasE product $=$ uroporphyrin III <i>C</i> -methyltransferase	2 29
SAOUHSC 02684	Nash product = $nitrite reductase$	2.2)
SAOUHSC 02004	Puruvoto ovidoso	2 14
SAOUIISC_02045	Processin 2 dehudrogenese	2.14
SAOUHSC_02945	A re A me du et — enginine deiminese	2 46
SAOUHSC_02909	AicA product – arginine definitiase	2.40
SAOUHSC_03011	HISB product = imidazole giycerolphosphate denydratase	2.14
SAOUHSC_03012	Hypothetical protein	2.29
SAOUHSC_03013	Histidinol dehydrogenase	2
SAOUHSC_01030	Putative NrdH-redoxin	2
SAOUHSC_00465	Veg product = VEG protein homolog	2.29
SAOUHSC_00898	ArgH product = argininosuccinate lyase	2.63
SAOUHSC_00899	ArgG product = argininosuccinate synthase	2.46
SAOUHSC_02118	Glutamyl-tRNA <sup>Gln</sup> amidotransferase subunit C	2.29
SAOUHSC_01191	RpmB product $= 50$ S ribosomal protein L28	0.47
SAOUHSC 01216	SucC product = succinyl-Co $A^a$ synthetase subunit beta	0.5
SAOUHSC 01218	SucD product = succinyl-CoA synthetase alpha subunit	0.5
SAOUHSC 00195	Acetyl-CoA acetyltransferase homolog	0.5
SAOUHSC 00196	Putative 3-hydroxyacyl-CoA dehydrogenase FadB	0.47
SAOUHSC 00197	Putative acvl-CoA dehvdrogenase FadD	0.5
SAOUHSC 00198	Putative acvl-CoA synthetase FadE	0.44
SAOUHSC 00199	Putative acetyl-CoA/acetoacetyl-CoA transferase	0.47
SAOUHSC 00206	Let E product = $I$ -lactate dehydrogenase	0.44
SAOUHSC 00365	AbpC product = alkyl bydroperovide reductase subunit C	0.5
SAOLIHSC 01002	$\Omega_{\rm uinol}$ oxidase polypentide IL $\Omega_{\rm Ov}$	0.5
SAOUHSC 02366	Eta $\Lambda$ product – fructore bisphosphate aldolare	0.5
SACCHSC_02300	1 bar product – Indelose-bisphosphate andolase	0.5
Cell surface protein genes		
SAOUHSC_01385	PstB product = phosphate ABC transporter	3.24
SAOUHSC_01386	Similar to phosphate ABC transporter	2.63
SAOUHSC 02311	KdpB product = probable potassium-transporting ATPase B	2
SAOUHSC 02310	KdpC product = probable potassium-transporting ATPase C	2.14
SAOUHSC 01990	Glutamate ABC transporter ATP-binding protein	4
SAOUHSC 00636	Similar to ABC transporter, permease protein	2.14
SAOUHSC 00637	Similar to ABC transporter ATP-binding protein	2.14
SAOUHSC 02661	ScrA product = $PTS^{b}$ system, sucrose-specific IIBC component	0.43
—		
Regulator genes		• 15
SAOUHSC_01384	Similar to negative regulator PhoU	2.46
SAOUHSC_01490	Hu product = DNA-binding protein II	0.44
SAOUHSC_02314	KdpD product = sensor protein	0.0059
SAOUHSC_02261	Accessory gene regulator protein B	0.5
SAOUHSC_02264	Accessory gene regulator protein C	0.5
SAOUHSC_02262	Accessory gene regulator protein D	0.41
SAOUHSC_02810	Transcriptional regulator, MerR family	0.44
SAOUHSC_00794	GapR product = glycolytic operon regulator	0.35
Virulence genes		
SAOUHSC 02620	Similar to multidrug resistance protein	2
SAOUHSC 02029	I raA family protain	2
SAOUHSC 02055	Similar to societary antigan procursor Sec.	2 63
$SAUURSC_02071$	Aux product – ging motolloprotainess superlining	2.03
SAUUHSC 00000	Au product = zinc metanoproteinase aureolysin See meduct = immune elebric $C$ big the energy $A$	2.29
SAUUHSC 00114	spa product = immunoglobulin G binding protein A precursor $C_{reg}$	0.31
SAUUHSC_00114	CapA	0.38
SAOUHSC_00115	СарВ	0.35
SAOUHSC_00116	CapC	0.35
SAOUHSC_00117	CapD	0.38
SAOUHSC_00118	CapE	0.44

Continued on following page

TABLE 2-Continued

SAOUHSC_00119      CapF      0.41        SAOUHSC_00120      CapG      0.44        SAOUHSC_00121      CapH      0.35        SAOUHSC_00122      CapI      0.43	
SAOUHSC_00120      CapG      0.44        SAOUHSC_00121      CapH      0.35        SAOUHSC_00122      CapI      0.43	
SAOUHSC_00121      CapH      0.35        SAOUHSC_00122      CapI      0.43	
SAOUHSC 00122 CapI 0.43	
-	
SAOUHSC_00123 CapJ 0.43	
SAOUHSC_00124 CapK 0.46	
SAOUHSC_00125 CapL 0.5	
SAOUHSC_00126 CapM 0.5	
SAOUHSC_00127 CapN 0.5	
SAOUHSC_00300 Geb product = glycerol ester hydrolase 0.41	
SAOUHSC_02260 Hld product = delta-hemolysin 0.38	
SAOUHSC_02709 HIgC product = gamma-hemolysin component C 0.47	
SAOUHSC_02710 HlgB product = gamma-hemolysin component B 0.41	
Hypothetical protein genes	
SAOUHSC_02384 Hypothetical protein 2	
SAOUHSC_02523 Hypothetical protein 2	
SAOUHSC 02858 Hypothetical protein 2	
SAOUHSC 01296 Hypothetical protein 2.46	
SAOUHSC_01729 Hypothetical protein 2.14	
SAOUHSC_01991 Hypothetical protein 2.82	
SAOUHSC_00202 Hypothetical protein 2	
SAOUHSC_02850 Hypothetical protein 2	
SAOUHSC_03047 Hypothetical protein 2	
SAOUHSC_01032 Hypothetical protein 2.14	
SAOUHSC_01072 Hypothetical protein 2.14	
SAOUHSC_00704 Hypothetical protein 2.29	
SAOUHSC_02886 Hypothetical protein 2.29	
SAOUHSC_01557 Hypothetical protein 0.38	
SAOUHSC_02521 Hypothetical protein 0.5	
SAOUHSC_02838 Hypothetical protein 0.38	
SAOUHSC_00091 Hypothetical protein 0.5	
SAOUHSC_00094 Hypothetical protein 0.44	
SAOUHSC_01675 Hypothetical protein 0.5	
SAOUHSC_01918 Hypothetical protein 0.5	
SAOUHSC_02781 Hypothetical protein 0.47	
SAOUHSC_02788 Hypothetical protein 0.33	
SAOUHSC_02805 Hypothetical protein 0.36	
SAOUHSC_00401 Hypothetical protein 0.5	
SAOUHSC_00413 Hypothetical protein 0.47	
SAOUHSC_01956 Hypothetical protein 0.47	
SAOUHSC_00414 Hypothetical protein 0.47	
SAOUHSC_00257 Hypothetical protein 0.5	
SAOUHSC_01109 Hypothetical protein 0.47	
SAOUHSC_01956 Hypothetical protein 0.47	
SAOUHSC_02796 Hypothetical protein 0.088	

<sup>a</sup> CoA, coenzyme A.

<sup>b</sup> PTS, phosphotransferase system.

<sup>c</sup> WT, wild type.

100 mM, which is similar to the normal  $K^+$  concentration in host cells. Three groups of wild-type bacteria were initially cultivated in CDM with 0.2 mM  $K^+$  to an OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.3, and then  $K^+$  was added to two groups of these to reach final  $K^+$ concentrations of 4 mM and 100 mM, respectively. In order to integrate the time factor, we cultivated the bacteria under specific  $K^+$  conditions for different times and then measured the transcript levels of *kdpD* and *kdpE* by using real-time RT-PCR analysis. As shown in Fig. 3A and B, when the external  $K^+$  concentration was 4 mM, the transcript levels of *kdpD* and *kdpE* remarkably decreased compared with those of the cells cultivated under 0.2 mM  $K^+$  conditions; when the external  $K^+$  concentration was 100 mM, this tendency to decrease became much more obvious. These data suggest that the tran-

scription of both kdpD and kdpE can be influenced by alterations in the external K<sup>+</sup> concentrations. Besides this, it was notable that these influences always existed whether the cultivation time was short (10 min and 40 min) or long (about 3 h), indicating that the external K<sup>+</sup> concentration has an instant effect on the transcription of kdpD and kdpE.

Furthermore, we measured kdpD transcript levels in the kdpE mutants growing in CDM at different external K<sup>+</sup> concentrations, and the results showed that inactivation of kdpE did not affect the influence of external K<sup>+</sup> concentration on the transcription of kdpD (Fig. 3C), suggesting that alterations in the transcript level of kdpD in response to changes in the external K concentration are not dependent on KdpE.

As mentioned above, our data showed that KdpE exhibited no

regulatory effects on the transcription of kdpD in the LB medium. To exclude the specific influence of the high K<sup>+</sup> concentration of the LB medium, we compared the transcript levels of kdpD between the wild type and the kdpE mutant under different K<sup>+</sup> conditions. As shown in Fig. 3D, when the external K<sup>+</sup> concentration was 0.2 mM, the transcript level of kdpD in the kdpE mutant was much higher than that of the wild type; however, when the external K<sup>+</sup> concentration was above 4 mM, this difference was no longer apparent. These results suggest that KdpE can repress the transcription of kdpD, but only when the cells are under the lowest external K<sup>+</sup> conditions.

KdpDE is a global regulator of virulence genes. To characterize the gene transcriptional profiling influence of KdpDE, DNA microarray assays were performed using the parental strain NCTC8325 and the kdpDE deletion mutant strain. The cells were grown in LB medium to an OD<sub>600</sub> of 2.0. A 2-fold induction ratio was used as the cutoff limit for comparing the transcriptional profiling of the wild type and the kdpDE mutant strain. Microarray data indicated that 48 genes were induced and 58 genes were repressed in the kdpDE mutant strain (Table 2). Of importance, the transcript levels of a range of virulence factor genes, such as spa, cap, hla, aur, geh, and hlgB, were altered in the kdpDE mutant strain (3, 8, 10, 13, 15, 25, 37, 42, 45, 46). Real-time RT-PCR experiments were conducted to further analyze the regulatory effect of KdpDE on the transcription of these genes. Our previous work showed that the inactivation of kdpDE resulted in a decreased transcript level of cap operon (36). Here, our results showed that the transcript levels of spa, hla, aur, geh, and hlgB displayed apparent alterations in the kdpDE mutant compared with those in the parental strain (Fig. 4A). Among these genes, spa and cap belong to the group of genes encoding cell wallassociated proteins and polysaccharides that play roles in bacterial colonization, while *hla*, *aur*, *geh*, and *hlgB* belong to the group of genes encoding the toxin proteins that facilitate local invasion. Interestingly, our results showed that the transcript levels of spa and cap decreased, whereas the transcript levels of hla, aur, geh, and *hlgB* all increased in the *kdpDE* mutant compared to those in the parental strain.

In addition, the transcript levels of spa, hla, aur, geh, and *hlgB* in the wild type and the *kdpE* mutant were also compared using real-time RT-PCR analysis. The results showed that KdpE displayed the same regulatory tendency as did KdpDE on the transcription of these virulence genes (Fig. 4A). Since KdpE is a DNA-binding protein, we further performed EM-SAs to investigate whether or not KdpE can regulate the transcription of these genes by directly binding to their promoter regions. As shown in Fig. 4B, KdpE can specifically bind to the promoter regions of all of these genes, except hla, in vitro. Meanwhile, we also measured the transcript levels of these virulence factors in the kdpFABC mutant, and the results showed that the transcription of these genes (spa, cap, hla, aur, geh, and hlgB) almost did not change in the mutant compared with the wild type (data not shown). These results suggest that, in S. aureus, KdpE is a global regulator which can bind to many virulence targets and regulate their transcription.

**Modulatory effect of KdpDE on expression of Spa.** According to the above data, KdpDE can modulate the transcription of *spa*. Since Spa is a representative cell wall-associated exoprotein and a major determinant of virulence in *S. aureus* (14, 16, 45), it was of importance to further investigate this modulatory effect.



FIG. 4. KdpDE is a global virulence regulator. (A) Comparative measurements of a range of virulence gene transcripts by real-time RT-PCR in WT, SX8 (kdpDE mutant), SX9 (kdpDE mutant with a plasmid encoding KdpDE), SX10 (kdpE mutant), and SX11 (kdpE mutant with a plasmid encoding KdpE). All of the strains were grown in LB medium to an  $OD_{600}$  of 1.7. The relative transcription of each gene compared to that of the constitutively expressed 16S rRNA gene in SX8, SX9, SX10, and SX11 was compared with that in the wild type, to which we assigned a value of 1. All the real-time PCR assays were repeated four times with similar results. Error bars indicate standard deviations. (B) The ability of KdpE to bind to these gene promoters as determined by EMSAs. The concentrations of KdpE used for p-hla EMSA were 0 µM, 0.5 µM, 1 µM, and 2 µM (from left to right, respectively); the concentrations of KdpE used for other EMSAs with other promoters were 0 µM, 0.5 µM, 1 µM, 2 µM, and 2 µM (from left to right, respectively). Tenfold unlabeled probes were used for the negative-control assays.

First, we examined this effect during the different growth phases of this bacterium. Three groups of strains (the wild type, the kdpDE mutant, the kdpDE mutant with the complementing plasmid, the kdpE mutant, and the kdpE mutant with the complementing plasmid) were cultivated in LB medium to  $OD_{600}$ s of 1, 2, and 3, respectively. The results of real-time RT-PCR revealed that the transcript levels of spa in the kdpDE mutant and the kdpE mutant were decreased compared to those in the wild type and the strains with the complementing plasmids, no matter which OD the cells were grown to (Fig. 5A), indicating that kdpDE can strongly activate the transcription of spa throughout the whole growth phase. We also performed Western blot assays to compare the protein levels of Spa between the kdpDE mutant and the wild type when they were grown to different growth phases, and the results confirmed that the expression of Spa in the kdpDE mutant was always lower than that in the wild type (see Fig. S1 in the supplemental material). In addition, previous studies showed that the expression of Spa enhanced bacterial virulence in a mouse bacteremia model and in macrophages due to its anti-



FIG. 5. Regulatory effect of KdpDE on *spa* expression. (A) Analysis of the transcriptional regulation of *spa* by KdpDE. The transcript levels of *spa* were compared using real-time RT-PCR in WT, SX8 (*kdpDE* mutant), SX9 (*kdpDE* mutant with a plasmid encoding KdpDE), SX10 (*kdpE* mutant), and SX11 (*kdpE* mutant with a plasmid encoding KdpE). Three groups of strains were grown in LB medium to  $OD_{600}$ s of 1, 2, and 3, respectively. (B) Comparative measurements of survival rates of WT, SX8, SX9, SX10, and SX11 in heparinized human blood. Results are from five separate blood donors. (C) Comparative measurements of survival rates of WT, SX8, SX9, SX10, and SX11 when cultured with U937 monocytic cells. The percentage of *S. aureus* CFU that survived was determined as described in Materials and Methods. (D) Influence of K<sup>+</sup> stimuli on the transcription of *spa* and *kdpD*. The transcript levels of *kdpD* and *spa* in WT were tested in cells grown under different K<sup>+</sup> conditions for different times. Three groups of wild-type bacteria were cultivated in CDM with 0.2 mM, 4 mM, and 100 mM K<sup>+</sup>. All the real-time PCR assays were repeated four times with similar results. Error bars indicate standard deviations.

phagocytic nature. Therefore, we examined the influences of the inactivation of *kdpDE* or *kdpE* on the survival of *S. aureus* in human whole blood and human U937 monocytic cells. As shown in Fig. 5B and C, the *kdpDE* and *kdpE* mutants exhibited significantly lower survival rates than did the wild type and the strain with the complementing plasmid in both human whole blood and human U937 monocytic cells, further demonstrating that inactivation of *kdpDE* repressed the expression of Spa.

As noted above, the transcription of kdpDE decreased with an increase in the external K<sup>+</sup> concentration. We also assessed the transcript levels of *spa* under different external K<sup>+</sup> conditions. Interestingly, the real-time RT-PCR data showed that the changing trend in the transcription of *spa* was the same as that of *kdpD* in transition from low to high external K<sup>+</sup> conditions (Fig. 5D). This observation, together with the regulatory effect of KdpDE on

the transcription of *spa* as investigated previously, further demonstrated that KdpDE in *S. aureus* can regulate the transcription of *spa* in response to  $K^+$  stimuli in the environment and that KdpDE will not always stimulate the transcription of *spa* when the external  $K^+$  concentration increases.

Identification of the KdpE binding sequence. To further identify the precise KdpE binding sequence, DNase I footprinting was performed. As shown in Fig. 6A, one region from -51 to -73 bp, relative to the translation start site of the *kdpF* gene, is protected, which is indicated by the disappearing nucleotide peaks in Fig. 6A, panel a, compared to Fig. 6A, panel b. These footprinting results demonstrated that KdpE binds to a 23-bp region (GCATACACATCTTAATGATTTCT) of the *kdpF* promoter, which is probably near the -35 to -10 transcriptional box of *kdpF* (Fig. 6B). This evidence led us to



FIG. 6. Identification of the KdpE-binding sequences by DNase I footprinting. (A) Identification of the KdpE-binding site on the promoter of kdpFABC by DNase I footprinting assays. The black frame indicates the DNA region protected from DNase I by KdpE. (B) KdpE-binding sequences on kdpF promoter regions.

conclude that the sustained repression effect of KdpE on kdpFABC transcription is most likely due to the fact that KdpE binds to the -35 to -10 transcriptional box of kdpFABC, thereby competitively inhibiting the binding of its transcriptional factors, such as  $\sigma$  factor and RNA polymerase.

**Agr/RNAIII activates the transcription of** *kdpDE* **by Rot.** We observed that the transcript levels of both *kdpD* and *kdpE* significantly increased when the cells were grown to the post-exponential phase in LB medium (Fig. 7A), suggesting that the transcription of *kdpDE* might be associated with the Agr quorum sensing system. In order to determine whether or not Agr/RNAIII is involved in the regulation of *kdpDE* transcription, we first made the *agr* mutant, the RNAIII mutant, and the strains with the complementing plasmids and subsequently compared the transcription.

script levels of *kdpDE* of these strains with that of the NCTC8325 parental strain. The results showed that the transcript levels of *kdpDE* in the *agr* mutant and the RNAIII mutant were much lower than that of the parental strain, while the strains with the complementing plasmids were restored to the parental phenotype (Fig. 7B), indicating that the Agr system can activate *kdpDE* transcription through RNAIII. We also cultivated the wild type and the *agr* mutant in CDMs with different K<sup>+</sup> concentrations and tested the transcript levels of *kdpD* of the two strains, and the results showed that the transcript level of *kdpD* of the *agr* mutant was also always much lower than that of the wild type under different K<sup>+</sup> conditions (see Fig. S2A in the supplemental material). Since RNAIII cannot directly activate target gene transcription, there certainly exists an intermediate component in this



FIG. 7. Agr/RNAIII activates the transcription of kdpDE by Rot. (A) Transcript levels of kdpD and kdpE in different growth phases. (B) Characterization of the regulatory effect of Agr/RNAIII on kdpDE transcription. The transcript levels of kdpD were measured using real-time RT-PCR in WT, SX15 (*agr* mutant), SX16 (*agr* mutant with a plasmid encoding the Agr system), SX17 (RNAIII mutant), and SX18 (RNAIII mutant with a plasmid encoding RNAIII). Three groups of strains were grown in LB medium to  $OD_{600}$ s of 1, 2, and 3, respectively. (C) Effect of Rot on kdpDE transcription. The transcript levels of kdpD were measured using real-time RT-PCR in WT, SX19 (*rot* mutant), and SX20 (*rot* mutant with a plasmid encoding Rot). Three groups of strains were grown in LB medium to  $OD_{600}$ s of 1, 2, and 3. (D) Effect of Rot on kdpDE transcription. The transcript levels of kdpD were measured using real-time RT-PCR in WT, SX19 (*rot* mutant), and SX20 (*rot* mutant with a plasmid encoding Rot). Three groups of strains were grown in LB medium to  $OD_{600}$ s of 1, 2, and 3. (D) Effect of Rot on kdpDE transcription. The transcript levels of kdpD were measured using real-time RT-PCR in WT, SN6911 (*agr* mutant), and SX21 (*agr rot* double mutant). Three groups of strains were grown in LB medium to  $OD_{600}$ s of 1, 2, and 3. All the real-time RT-PCR assays were repeated four times with similar results. Error bars indicate standard deviations. (E) The ability of Rot to bind to the kdpDE promoter as determined by EMSAs.

regulatory pathway. As described previously, the mask of rot translation by RNAIII is a key feature of the Agr function (23, 42). Therefore, we proposed that Agr upregulates kdpDE transcription probably through repressing rot translation. Furthermore, we tested the transcript levels of kdpD in the wild-type strain NCTC8325, the rot mutant, and the rot mutant with complementing plasmid when they were in different growth phases. The transcript level of kdpD in the rot mutant was much higher than that in the wild type when the cells were grown to an  $OD_{600}$ of 1 (early exponential phase), indicating that Rot strongly represses kdpDE transcription in this growth phase. The difference in transcript levels between the wild type and the rot mutant was not that apparent (Fig. 7C) when the cells were grown to the exponential phase ( $OD_{600}$  of 2 and 3), which was in accordance with the phenomenon that huge amounts of the RNAIII transcript accumulate in the wild type during the transition from the early exponential to the exponential phase. The accumulation of the RNAIII transcript inhibited the translation of rot, which, in return, diminished the Rot effect on kdpDE transcription. As shown in Fig. 7D, we also tested the transcript levels of kdpD in the wild type, RN6911 (agr mutant), and RN6911 with rot deletion (*agr rot* double mutant) when they were in different growth phases. The transcript level of *kdpD* in the *agr rot* double mutant was similar to that in the *rot* mutant but different from that in the *agr* mutant. These data demonstrated that Agr regulates *kdpDE* transcription through Rot. Furthermore, our EMSAs confirmed that Rot can specifically bind to the promoter of *kdpD in vitro* (Fig. 7E).

### DISCUSSION

All of the bacterial kdp operons investigated previously were found to be repressed during growth in media with a high external K<sup>+</sup> concentration and activated when the external K<sup>+</sup> concentration becomes lower than a threshold value (6, 26, 41). These events are controlled by the KdpDE two-component system. For instance, in *E. coli*, when the external K<sup>+</sup> concentration falls below 2 mM, KdpD is autophosphorylated and activates KdpE, forming a product which binds to the promoter region of *kdpFABC* and activates its transcription (38, 48). In contrast, our results showed that, in *S. aureus*, KdpDE always repressed the transcription of *kdpFABC*,



FIG. 8. Proposed regulation scheme of KdpDE. The pathogenesis of *S. aureus* is determined by the coordinated gene regulation in response to the self-secreting signal and other specific stimuli in the environment, and KdpDE, as a two-component system which can respond to both, is the concrete embodiment of this coordination.

whether under high or low external K<sup>+</sup> conditions. In E. coli, KdpFABC is the major  $K^{\scriptscriptstyle +}$  transporter when the cells are subjected to K<sup>+</sup> limitation. Therefore, inactivation of kdpFABC in E. coli would result in notable growth inhibition of the cells when the external  $K^+$  concentration is low (43). However, we found that the growth rates of the S. aureus kdpFABC mutant and the parental strain showed no apparent differences when the cells were grown in CDM with different K<sup>+</sup> concentrations. In addition, by carrying out atomic absorption spectrometry assays, we observed that the internal potassium concentration of the S. aureus kdpFABC mutant was almost equal to that of the parental strain whether the K<sup>+</sup> concentration of the medium was low or high. Thus, we conclude that KdpFABC is not a major  $K^+$  transporter in *S. aureus* and that another highly efficient K<sup>+</sup> transporter which is functional in K<sup>+</sup> transport must exist in this bacterium. This would also help to explain why the transcriptions of kdpFABC were always repressed by KdpE to quite low levels in S. aureus and indicates that the regulatory effect of KdpDE on KdpFABC ATPase in S. aureus is extremely different from that in E. coli. However, our real-time RT-PCR data showed that the transcription of kdpDE exhibits notable changes in response to fluctuations of the external K<sup>+</sup> concentrations. Taking all of these data into account, we suggest that the S. aureus KdpDE functions in other aspects through sensing the external K<sup>+</sup> concentration.

The pathogenic mechanisms of S. aureus infections are highly complex (9, 14, 31). It is very likely that distinct networks of multiple virulence genes are expressed in response to distinct host signals, including those found in blood and specific target tissues and those related to innate host defense factors that emerge during the infectious process. A high K<sup>+</sup> concentration is also a host-specific signal which differs from potassium signals in the natural environment. In this study, we found that the transcript levels of *kdpDE* decreased as the external K<sup>+</sup> concentration increased. When the external K<sup>+</sup> concentration was 0.2 mM, which is close to the usual K<sup>+</sup> concentration found in the natural environment, the transcript levels of kdpD were relatively high. Comparatively, when the external K<sup>+</sup> concentration increased to 4 mM, which is almost equal to the K<sup>+</sup> concentration in host blood and tissue fluid, or to 100 mM, which is similar to the K<sup>+</sup> concentration in the host cells, the transcription of kdpD was largely repressed. As noted above,

we showed that KdpE can activate the transcription of genes encoding cell wall-associated proteins and polysaccharides and that it can repress the transcription of toxin genes. Collectively, these interesting data led us to propose that the two-component system KdpDE might be an important virulence gene regulator in response to changes in the environment. In the natural environment, a high level of KdpDE transcription helps to activate the expression of cell wall proteins and polysaccharides, which are beneficial to colonization. However, in transition from the natural environment to the host, which has a higher K<sup>+</sup> concentration, transcript levels of kdpDE decrease, causing a low expression of cell wall proteins but a high production of extracellular toxins and enzymes which facilitate local invasion. The capability of KdpDE in regulating alterations in the gene expression pattern indicates that KdpDE plays an important role in the pathogenesis of S. aureus.

It is interesting that the Agr system activates the transcription of kdpDE. Agr is the best-characterized quorum sensing system in S. aureus and regulates specific physiological functions when the population density of the community reaches a threshold (32, 39, 53). Thus, we can conclude that the high transcript level of kdpDE is also dependent on high cell density. This phenomenon is of special significance for the pathogenesis of S. aureus because the pathogenic processes are unproductive when undertaken by an individual bacterium acting alone but become beneficial when carried out simultaneously by a large number of cells. Only when the cell number in the community reaches a high level does it become meaningful for KdpDE to regulate virulence gene expression via sensing of the external K<sup>+</sup> concentration in the environment. We cultivated the wild type and the agr mutant in CDM at different K<sup>+</sup> concentrations and measured the transcript levels of kdpD and spa of the two strains, and the results showed that the transcript level of kdpD in the agr mutant was also always much lower than that of the wild type under different K<sup>+</sup> conditions (see Fig. S2A in the supplemental material). However, the transcript level of spa in the agr mutant showed a fold increase of tens to hundreds compared with that in the wild type, suggesting that Agr acts as a main regulator of the spa transcription. We suggest that because the transcription of kdpD in the agr mutant could not be activated by the Agr system, the influence of Kdp on spa transcription was not obvious under this condition.

Collectively, we think that the pathogenesis of *S. aureus* is determined by the coordinated gene regulation in response to the self-secreting signal and other specific stimuli in the environment and that KdpDE, as a two-component system that can respond to both, is the partial embodiment of this coordination (Fig. 8).

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