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***Neisseria gonorrhoeae* Crippled Its Peptidoglycan Fragment Permease To Facilitate Toxic Peptidoglycan Monomer Release**

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ABSTRACT

Neisseria gonorrhoeae (gonococci) and *Neisseria meningitidis* (meningococci) are human pathogens that cause gonorrhea and meningococcal meningitis, respectively. Both *N. gonorrhoeae* and *N. meningitidis* release a number of small peptidoglycan (PG) fragments, including proinflammatory PG monomers, although *N. meningitidis* releases fewer PG monomers. The PG fragments released by *N. gonorrhoeae* and *N. meningitidis* are generated in the periplasm during cell wall remodeling, and a majority of these fragments are transported into the cytoplasm by an inner membrane permease, AmpG; however, a portion of the PG fragments are released into the extracellular environment through unknown mechanisms. We previously reported that the expression of meningococcal *ampG* in *N. gonorrhoeae* reduced PG monomer release by gonococci. This finding suggested that the efficiency of AmpG-mediated PG fragment recycling regulates the amount of PG fragments released into the extracellular milieu. We determined that three AmpG residues near the C-terminal end of the protein modulate AmpG's efficiency. We also investigated the association between PG fragment recycling and release in two species of human-associated nonpathogenic *Neisseria*: *N. sicca* and *N. mucosa*. Both *N. sicca* and *N. mucosa* release lower levels of PG fragments and are more efficient at recycling PG fragments than *N. gonorrhoeae*. Our results suggest that *N. gonorrhoeae* has evolved to increase the amounts of toxic PG fragments released by reducing its PG recycling efficiency.

IMPORTANCE *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* and *Neisseria meningitidis* are human pathogens that cause highly inflammatory diseases, although *N. meningitidis* is also frequently found as a normal member of the nasopharyngeal microbiota. Nonpathogenic *Neisseria*, such as *N. sicca* and *N. mucosa*, also colonize the nasopharynx without causing disease. Although all four species release peptidoglycan fragments, *N. gonorrhoeae* is the least efficient at recycling and releases the largest amount of proinflammatory peptidoglycan monomers, partly due to differences in the recycling permease AmpG. Studying the interplay between bacterial physiology (peptidoglycan metabolism) and pathogenesis (release of toxic monomers) leads to an increased understanding of how different bacterial species maintain asymptomatic colonization or cause disease and may contribute to efforts to mitigate disease.

INTRODUCTION

Ten species in the genus *Neisseria* are associated with humans. *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* (gonococci [GC]) and *Neisseria meningitidis* (meningococci [MC]) are considered human-restricted pathogens, whereas *N. cinerea*, *N. elongata*, *N. flavescens*, *N. lactamica*, *N. mucosa*, *N. polysaccharea*, *N. sicca*, and *N. subflava* are considered nonpathogenic. The nonpathogenic species colonize the nasopharynxes and oral cavities of healthy people (1–3). In rare cases, these species disseminate to cause endocarditis or septic infection in immunocompromised individuals or trauma patients (4). *N. gonorrhoeae* and *N. meningitidis* share many infection-related factors with the nonpathogenic species, including type IV pili, adhesins, and certain iron transport proteins (5). Unlike *N. gonorrhoeae* and *N. meningitidis*, nonpathogenic *Neisseria* spp. are considered to be noninflammatory, and they very rarely elicit a symptomatic inflammatory response (6).

N. gonorrhoeae commonly infects the genitourinary tract, causing urethritis in men and cervicitis in women. In women, the bacteria can spread to the uterus and Fallopian tubes, leading to highly inflammatory conditions, endometritis, pelvic inflammatory disease, and ectopic pregnancy. Gonococci can also disseminate to cause sepsis, tenosynovitis, and meningitis (7). Disease manifestations are due to the host inflammatory response. In pelvic inflammatory disease, the release of peptidoglycan (PG) fragments and endotoxin by gonococci in the Fallopian tubes induces an inflammatory response that kills the ciliated cells, and the cells come out of the epithelium and are sloughed off (8, 9). The loss of ciliated cells and the tissue damage results in tubal factor infertility or predisposes the woman to ectopic pregnancy.

N. gonorrhoeae is unusual among Gram-negative bacteria in that it releases significant amounts of PG fragments during growth (10). The most abundant fragments released are the PG monomers. These are disaccharide-tripeptide and disaccharide-tetrapeptide fragments carrying a 1,6-anhydro bond on the *N*-acetylmuramic acid residue (11). The disaccharide-tetrapeptide is identical to tracheal cytotoxin (TCT), the PG fragment released by *Bordetella pertussis* that induces death and sloughing of ciliated cells in the trachea (12–14). The disaccharide-tripeptide stimulates activation of the human pattern-recognition receptor NOD1 (15). When added to Fallopian tube tissue in organ culture, a mixture of the two monomers caused death and sloughing of ciliated cells, mimicking the tissue damage of pelvic inflammatory disease (8).

Although commonly considered a pathogen, *N. meningitidis* is a normal colonizer of the human nasopharynx and is carried asymptotically by 10 to 40% of the population (16). The bacteria can spread to cause sepsis or meningitis, and approximately 550 cases of invasive meningococcal disease occur in the United States every year (17). In these invasive infections, meningococci elicit a large inflammatory response that frequently results in septic shock and the death of the patient within a few days of the onset of symptoms. However, *N. meningitidis* may not be inflammatory during the carriage state, only upregulating the expression of virulence factors required for invasion and immune evasion under certain conditions (18).

We have investigated the mechanisms involved in the generation and release of proinflammatory PG fragments by *N. gonorrhoeae* and *N. meningitidis*. The PG monomers are generated by lytic transglycosylases, which in *Neisseria* species, are predicted outer membrane lipoproteins (19, 20). As the bacteria grow and divide, they must degrade PG strands to make space for the incorporation of additional PG strands and remodel the cell wall to build and then split the septum for cell division and separation. Most of the PG fragments generated by these processes are taken up from the periplasm and transported to the cytoplasm by the inner membrane permease AmpG (21–25). However, in *N. gonorrhoeae*, 15% of the PG monomers escape from the cell and are released into the milieu (22). In comparison, only 4% of the PG monomers generated by *N. meningitidis* are released from the bacteria (23). We previously demonstrated that replacement of gonococcal *ampG* with meningococcal *ampG* led to reduced PG fragment release, suggesting that meningococcal AmpG is more efficient at PG fragment import (23).

In the present study, we examine the differences between gonococcal AmpG and meningococcal AmpG and characterize PG fragment release in *N. sicca* and *N. mucosa*. Replacement of meningococcal *ampG* with gonococcal *ampG* resulted in

increased PG fragment release. Also, the nonpathogenic species exhibited highly efficient PG recycling and failed to release certain PG fragments that the pathogens do release, which may indicate additional differences in PG fragment degradation, recycling, and release in nonpathogenic neisseriae. Overall, these data show that *Neisseria* species that are usually asymptomatic colonizers, i.e., *N. meningitidis*, *N. sicca*, and *N. mucosa*, are more efficient at PG recycling than *N. gonorrhoeae*. Thus, *N. gonorrhoeae* has evolved an inefficient PG recycling system as it has moved to a proinflammatory infection lifestyle.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains and growth conditions. All bacterial strains used in this study are listed in **Table 1**. *Neisseria* strains (*N. gonorrhoeae*, *N. meningitidis*, *N. sicca*, and *N. mucosa*) were grown on either gonococcal base medium (GCB) agar plates (Difco) at 37°C with 5% CO₂ or in gonococcal base liquid medium (GCBL) containing Kellogg's supplements (26) and 0.042% NaHCO₃ (complete GCBL [cGCBL]) at 37°C with aeration. *Escherichia coli* cells were grown either on Luria–Bertani (LB) agar plates (Difco) at 37°C or in LB broth at 37°C with aeration. When necessary, media were supplemented with antibiotics for selection. Chloramphenicol was used at concentrations of 10 µg/ml (*Neisseria* spp.) or 25 µg/ml (*E. coli*), while erythromycin was used at concentrations of 10 µg/ml (*Neisseria* spp.) or 500 µg/ml (*E. coli*). Kanamycin was used at concentrations of 80 µg/ml (*Neisseria* spp.) or 40 µg/ml (*E. coli*).

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TABLE 1

Strains used in this study

Strain construction. Mutant or complemented strains of *N. gonorrhoeae*, *N. meningitidis*, *N. sicca*, and *N. mucosa* were generated using spot transformation (27). Briefly, 1 to 20 µg of linearized plasmid DNA or chromosomal DNA were spotted onto GCB plates. Then, three to ten piliated colonies were streaked over the spots, followed by incubation overnight at 37°C with 5% CO₂. Transformants were screened by colony PCR and restriction enzyme digestion where applicable and then confirmed by sequencing (28).

Plasmid construction. All plasmids used in this study are listed in **Table 2**, and all primers used to generate the constructs are listed in **Table 3**. Specific details of plasmid construction are described in the supplemental material. pIDN3 is a cloning plasmid that contains the gonococcal and meningococcal DNA uptake sequence (GCCGTCTGAA) and was used as a vector backbone to generate most of the plasmids used in this study (29, 30). However, transformation into *N. sicca* and *N. mucosa* may have greater efficiency with an alternate DNA uptake sequence (GTCGTCTGAA), which is more commonly found in *N. sicca* ATCC 29256 and *N. mucosa* ATCC 25996 (5, 31). Thus, we constructed pEC026, a derivative of pIDN3 that contains the alternate DNA uptake sequence to be used as a vector backbone for transformations into *N. sicca* and *N. mucosa*. To facilitate screening of transformants, we introduced a silent mutation at base 993 (L331, CTG→CTA) of gonococcal and meningococcal *ampG* to generate an NheI site. For clarity and simplicity, constructs that have the WT *ampG* coding sequence are referred to as *ampG*_{GC} WT or *ampG*_{MC} WT, while constructs with the screening site are referred to as *ampG*_{GC} or *ampG*_{MC}.

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TABLE 2

Plasmids used in this study

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TABLE 3

Primers used in this study

The chimeric *ampG* constructs (pEC016 to pEC019) were generated with pEC013 as a base. The *ampG* coding sequence was divided into four unequal quarters (also called *ampG* regions 1 to 4), in which each region contains at least one

nonsynonymous nucleotide polymorphism in GC and MC. The *ampG* coding region is 1,284 bp long. Region 1 encompassed bp 1 to 150, while region 2 contained bp 151 to 788. Region 3 is comprised of bp 789 to 992, while region 4 included bp 993 to 1284. The chimeric *ampG* constructs also contained an ~600-bp *ampG* GC 5' and 3' flanking region to facilitate double-crossover homologous recombination when transformed into *Neisseria*.

Characterization of released PG fragments. Metabolic labeling of PG using [6-³H]glucosamine was performed as described by Rosenthal and Dziarski (32) with modifications from Cloud and Dillard (33). Quantitative PG fragment release analysis was performed as described by Garcia and Dillard (22). Briefly, *Neisseria* strains were pulse-labeled using 10 μCi/ml [6-³H]glucosamine in GCBL lacking glucose and supplemented with 0.042% NaHCO₃ and pyruvate as a carbon source to label the sugar backbone or using 25 μCi/ml [2,6-³H]diaminopimelic acid in Dulbecco modified Eagle medium lacking cysteine supplemented with 100 μg/ml methionine and 100 μg/ml threonine to label the peptide stems. For quantitative PG fragment release, an aliquot of the culture was removed after labeling for determination of the number of radioactive counts per minute (cpm) by liquid scintillation counting. The number of cpm was then normalized to obtain equal numbers of cpm in the bacteria in each culture. Pulse-labeling was then followed by a 2-h (*N. meningitidis*) or a 2.5-h (*N. gonorrhoeae*, *N. sicca*, and *N. mucosa*) chase period in cGCBL to achieve an equal number of generations. At the end of the chase period, culture supernatant was obtained by centrifugation at 3,000 × *g* for 10 min and filter sterilization of the supernatant using a 0.22-μm-pore size filter. Radiolabeled PG fragments in the supernatant were separated by size using tandem size-exclusion chromatography and detected by liquid scintillation counting. The relative amounts of PG fragments released were determined by calculating the area under the curve.

Immunoblotting and detection of AmpG-FLAG3. Portions (10 μg) of whole-cell lysates were electrophoresed on 12% SDS-PAGE gels. The proteins were then transferred onto polyvinylidene fluoride membrane (Bio-Rad) either at 100 V for 1 h or at 20 V overnight. The membranes were blocked with 5% milk in Tris-buffered saline (TBS) for 1 h at room temperature and then incubated with anti-FLAG M2 primary antibody (Sigma-Aldrich) in TBS with 0.05% Tween 20 (TTBS) and 5% milk either for 1 h at room temperature or overnight at 4°C. Membranes were washed four times with TTBS for 5 min each at room temperature, incubated with goat anti-mouse IgG-horseradish peroxidase secondary antibody (Santa Cruz) in TTBS for 1 h, and then washed five times with TTBS for 5 min each. Blots were developed using an Immun-Star horseradish peroxidase substrate kit (Bio-Rad), and imaged using the Odyssey Fc Imaging System (LI-COR). Band intensities and protein concentrations were determined using Odyssey Fc.

Quantitative RT-PCR. Quantitative reverse transcription-PCR (RT-PCR) was performed as described by Salgado-Pabón et al. (34). Briefly, gonococcal strains were grown in cGCBL until mid-log phase. RNA from 2 ml of culture was isolated using TRIzol reagent and treated with Turbo DNase to remove DNA contaminants (Life Technologies). Reverse transcription was then performed using an iScript cDNA synthesis kit (Bio-Rad). The resulting cDNA samples were used for quantitative real-time PCR using iQ SYBR green supermix (Bio-Rad) with the primers *ampG*-RT-F (GTGCGTGCTGCTGTTTATC) and *ampG*-RT-R (GTCTTGCTGAAACCCATATCC) to measure *ampG* transcript levels and the primers *rpm*-RT-F (CGAAGGCCATACCGACTTTATGG) and *rpm*-RT-R (GTTGCTGACCAGGTTGTTTGC) to measure *rpm* transcript levels as a control. *Rmp* was chosen as a control because it is a constitutively expressed protein that is not regulated by iron levels, and *rpm* levels have been used to normalize RT-PCR data (35–37). Quantitative RT-PCR results were analyzed using the StepOnePlus System (Applied Biosciences). Statistical analyses were performed using a Student two-tailed *t* test.

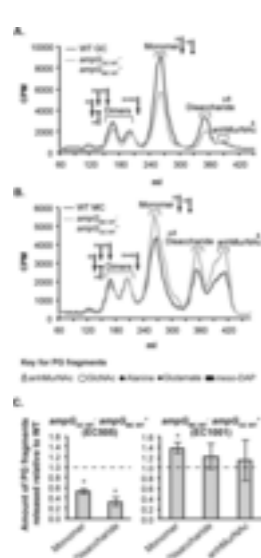
Model of gonococcal AmpG structure. The predicted structure of gonococcal AmpG was modeled using the I-TASSER server (38–41) with multiple threading templates and using Phyre2 with a multitemplate/*ab initio* template (42). The structures of the following proteins were used as the templates for I-TASSER: *E. coli* glycerol-3-transporter GlpT (PDB ID 1PW4), MdfA multidrug transporter (PDB ID 4ZOW), *E. coli* YajR transporter (PDB ID 3WDO), and *E. coli*

lactose permease LacY (PDB ID **1PV6**). The structures of the following proteins were used as the templates for Phyre2: human glucose transporter GLUT3/SLC2A3 (PDB ID **5C6C**), *E. coli* glycerol-3-phosphate transporter GlpT (PDB ID **1PW4**), *E. coli* YajR transporter (PDB ID **3WDO**), *E. coli* lactose permease LacY (PDB ID **1PV7**), a eukaryotic phosphate transporter (PDB ID **4J05**), and a *Staphylococcus epidermidis* glucose transporter (PDB ID **4LDS**).

RESULTS

Meningococcal AmpG is more efficient at PG fragment recycling

compared to gonococcal AmpG. We previously generated a gonococcal strain that expresses meningococcal *ampG* (EC505) and characterized the PG fragment profile of this gene replacement mutant (**23**). The native gonococcal *ampG* (*ampG*_{GC WT}) was replaced with meningococcal *ampG* (*ampG*_{MC WT}) coding region through double-crossover homologous recombination to generate EC505. Using metabolic labeling of PG with [6-³H]glucosamine and quantitative fragment release in three independent experiments, we determined that EC505 released 52% PG monomers and 33% disaccharide compared to wild-type (WT) *N. gonorrhoeae* (MS11) (**Fig. 1A and C**) in agreement with previous observations (**23**). We used a similar strategy to generate a meningococcal strain that expresses gonococcal *ampG* (EC1001) and determined that EC1001 released ~39% more PG monomers than WT MC (ATCC 13102) (**Fig. 1B and C**). The differences in the amounts of PG monomers released in the gene replacement mutants compared to WT GC and WT MC are not identical to each other or to the differences seen between WT GC and WT MC (2.8-fold less in WT MC). This discrepancy is likely due to the increased degradation of PG fragments in MC compared to GC, as previously described (**23**). Our results suggest that meningococcal AmpG is more efficient at PG fragment recycling than is gonococcal AmpG. Thus, the expression of meningococcal AmpG by *N. gonorrhoeae* reduced the amount of proinflammatory PG monomers released into the extracellular milieu and vice versa.



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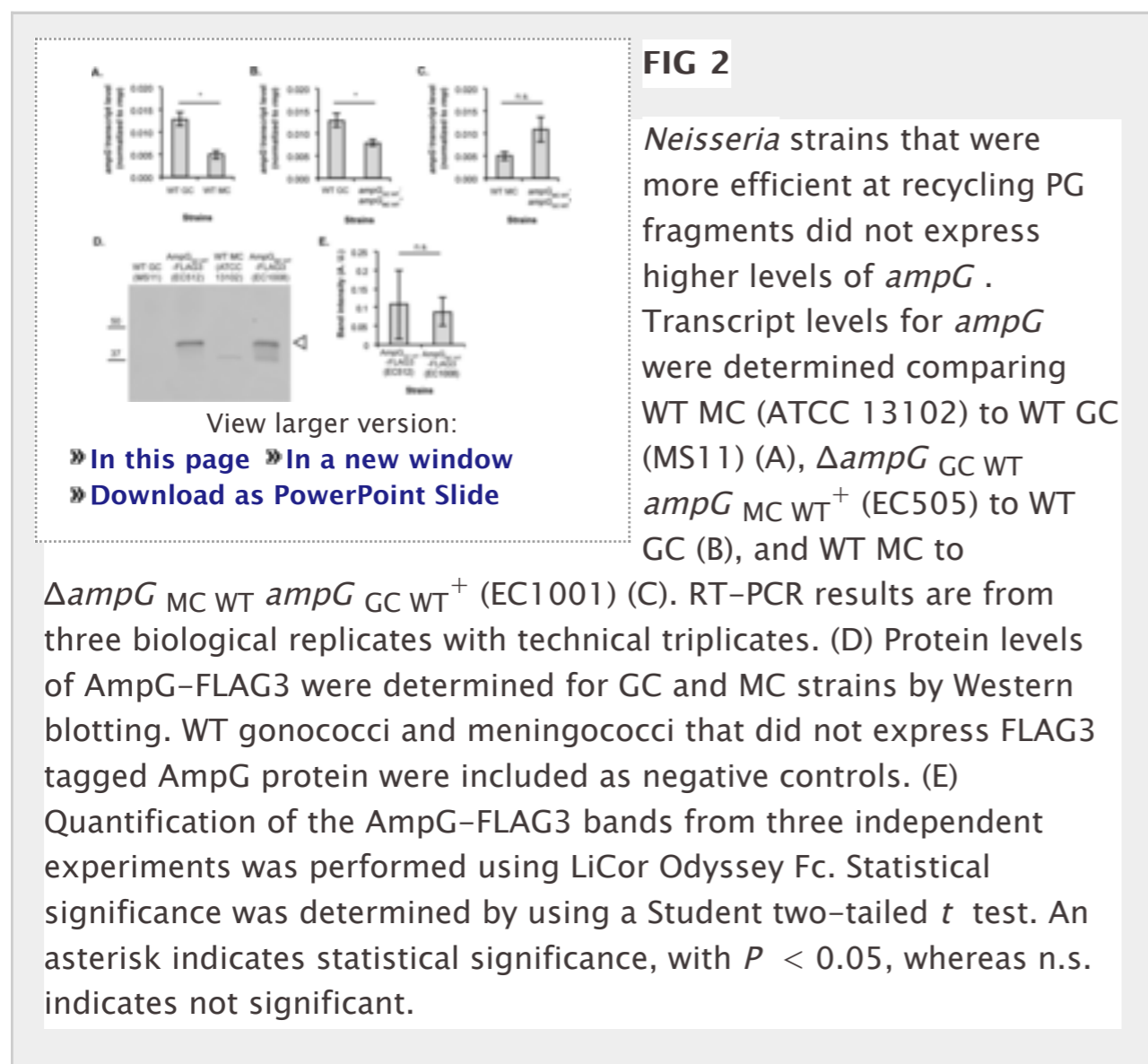
FIG 1

Expression of non-native *Neisseria ampG* in *N. gonorrhoeae* and *N. meningitidis* altered peptidoglycan fragment release. Released [³H]glucosamine-labeled PG fragments were separated by size-exclusion chromatography and detected by liquid scintillation counting to generate a PG fragment release profile. The symbols for PG sugars and amino acids are

based on those used by Jacobs et al. (**24**). (A) Comparison of WT GC (MS11) to a gonococcal *ampG* replacement mutant expressing *ampG*_{MC WT} (*ampG*_{GC WT}⁻ *ampG*_{MC WT}⁺; EC505). (B) Comparison of WT MC (ATCC 13102) to a meningococcal *ampG* replacement mutant expressing *ampG*_{GC WT} (EC1001). (C) Quantification of the amount of PG fragments released by the *ampG* replacement mutants compared to WT in three independent experiments. An asterisk indicates the amount of PG fragments released by the gene replacement mutant was significantly different compared to the WT as determined by a Student two-tailed *t* test (*P* < 0.05).

AmpG from gonococcal strain MS11 and meningococcal strain ATCC 13102 have 97% identity and differ only by nine amino acid residues (see **Fig. 3A**; see also Fig. S1 in the supplemental material). We sought to determine whether the difference in PG recycling efficiency is caused by differences in *ampG* expression levels or whether small differences in protein sequence impact AmpG function. We performed quantitative RT-PCR on RNA samples isolated from WT GC (MS11), WT MC (ATCC 13102), GC expressing meningococcal *ampG* (EC505), and MC

expressing gonococcal *ampG* (EC1001). If the difference in recycling efficiency is a direct consequence of differences in *ampG* expression, we would expect to see higher levels of *ampG* transcript expressed by strains that release lower levels of PG fragments, such as ATCC 13102 and EC505, compared to strains that release higher levels of PG fragments, such as MS11 and EC1001. Interestingly and in contrast to this hypothesis, bacterial strains that are more efficient at recycling produced lower levels of *ampG* transcript than strains that are less efficient at recycling. Gonococcal strain MS11 produced higher levels of *ampG* transcript than meningococcal strain ATCC 13102 (**Fig. 2A**). EC505, which is more efficient at recycling than MS11 produced lower levels of *ampG* transcript than MS11 (**Fig. 2B**). ATCC 13102, which is more efficient at recycling than EC1001, did not show increased *ampG* transcript compared to the latter strain (**Fig. 2C**).



To determine levels of AmpG protein in WT gonococci and in WT meningococci, we raised polyclonal antibodies against a short AmpG epitope (FRREILSDEELGLG) (GenScript). Unfortunately, this antibody was not specific enough to detect AmpG levels in an immunoblot (data not shown). As an alternative, we generated strains expressing AmpG fused to a C-terminal triple FLAG tag [(DYKDDDDK)₃] and performed immunoblotting with anti-FLAG M2 primary antibody. There was no significant difference in the amount of AmpG-FLAG3 expressed by WT gonococci and WT meningococci (**Fig. 2D** and **E**). Taken together, these results suggested that the difference in PG fragment release between *N. gonorrhoeae* and *N. meningitidis* was not due to higher *ampG* expression levels or AmpG protein levels in strains that are more efficient at recycling.

Three residues near the C-terminal end of AmpG modulate AmpG recycling efficiency. Although AmpG sequences from *N. gonorrhoeae* strain MS11 and *N. meningitidis* ATCC 13102 are 97% identical, the nine amino acid residues that differ may impact protein function. To determine which residues affect AmpG efficiency, we designed four chimeric *ampG* constructs to be expressed in *N. gonorrhoeae* (**Fig. 3A**). We divided AmpG into four unequal regions—region 1 (N-terminal end, bp 1 to 150), region 2 (mid gene, closer to the N-terminal end, bp 151 to 788), region 3 (mid gene, closer to the C-terminal end, bp 789 to 992), and region 4 (C-terminal end, bp 993 to 1284)—in which each region contained at least one residue that differs between MS11 and ATCC 13102. Each chimeric gene construct is comprised of approximately one-quarter gonococcal *ampG* coding region and approximately three-quarters meningococcal *ampG* coding region, so that each chimeric protein expressed would contain a mixture of gonococcal and meningococcal AmpG residues. We would expect to see a WT GC-like phenotype for PG fragment release in strains that express the gonococcal region(s) that codes for AmpG residues important for function, while the other strains would phenocopy a strain that expresses *ampG*_{MC} WT (EC505). Only expression of a chimeric AmpG protein with

meningococcal regions 1 to 3 and gonococcal region 4 (EC511) resulted in a WT GC-like phenotype (Fig. 3B). This strain showed a large increase in release of PG monomers, as well as increased release of the other small PG fragments, compared to strains that express the other chimeric AmpG proteins with gonococcal *ampG* region 1, 2, or 3. We also produced a GC strain expressing *ampG* carrying gonococcal regions 1 to 3 and meningococcal region 4. This strain phenocopied EC505, indicating that the six changes in these three regions do not decrease AmpG function (data not shown). Our results suggest that residues in AmpG region 4 modulate AmpG efficiency.

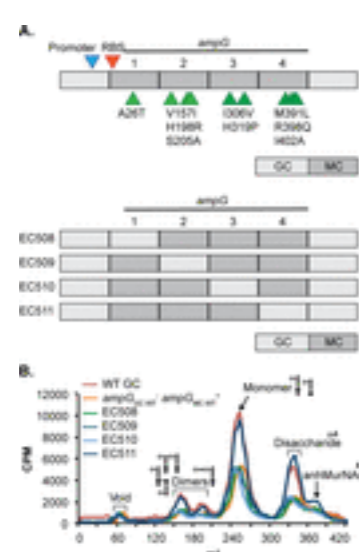


FIG 3

Residues near the C-terminal end of AmpG (AmpG region 4) modulated AmpG recycling efficiency. (A) Cartoon depiction of the AmpG replacement and AmpG chimera constructs expressed in *N. gonorrhoeae* (not drawn to scale). The AmpG replacement construct (top) was used as a base to generate the chimera constructs.

Residues that differ between GC AmpG and MC AmpG are

indicated in the order gonococcal residue, residue number, and meningococcal residue. Each chimera construct contained approximately one-quarter gonococcal *ampG* coding region and three-quarters meningococcal *ampG* coding region and contained a mixture of gonococcal and meningococcal residues. (B) PG fragment release profiles for *N. gonorrhoeae* strains expressing different versions of *ampG*.

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Three residues in AmpG region 4 that differ between gonococcal and meningococcal AmpG are residues 391 (methionine in GC and leucine in MC), 398 (arginine in GC and glutamine in MC), and 402 (isoleucine in GC and alanine in MC). To determine which residues are most important for modulating AmpG function, we utilized site-directed mutagenesis to perform single, double, and triple substitutions of gonococcal AmpG residues 391, 398, and 402 with the corresponding meningococcal residues. The expression of *ampG*_{GC}^{M391L} and *ampG*_{GC}^{I402A} reduced PG monomer release in *N. gonorrhoeae*, although not to the levels seen in the gene replacement mutant, EC505 (Fig. 4A). Expression of *ampG*_{GC}^{R398Q} resulted in a WT GC-like phenotype (Fig. 4A).

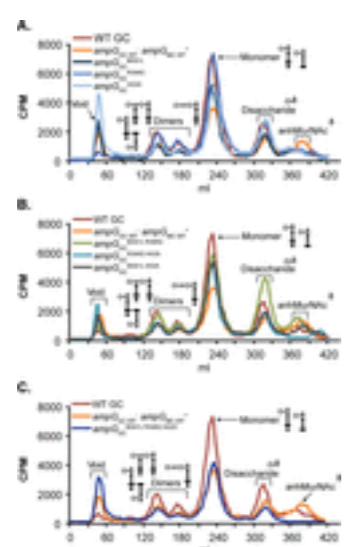


FIG 4

AmpG residues 391, 398, and 402 worked cooperatively to modulate AmpG recycling efficiency. PG fragment release profiles are shown for single substitutions of AmpG residues 391, 398, and 402 (EC515, EC516, and EC517) compared to the whole gene replacement mutant (EC505) and the wild type (MS11) (A), double substitutions of AmpG residues 391, 398, and 402 (EC518, EC519, and EC521) compared

to the WT and EC505 (B), and triple substitutions of AmpG residues 391, 398, and 402 (EC523) compared to the WT and EC505 (C).

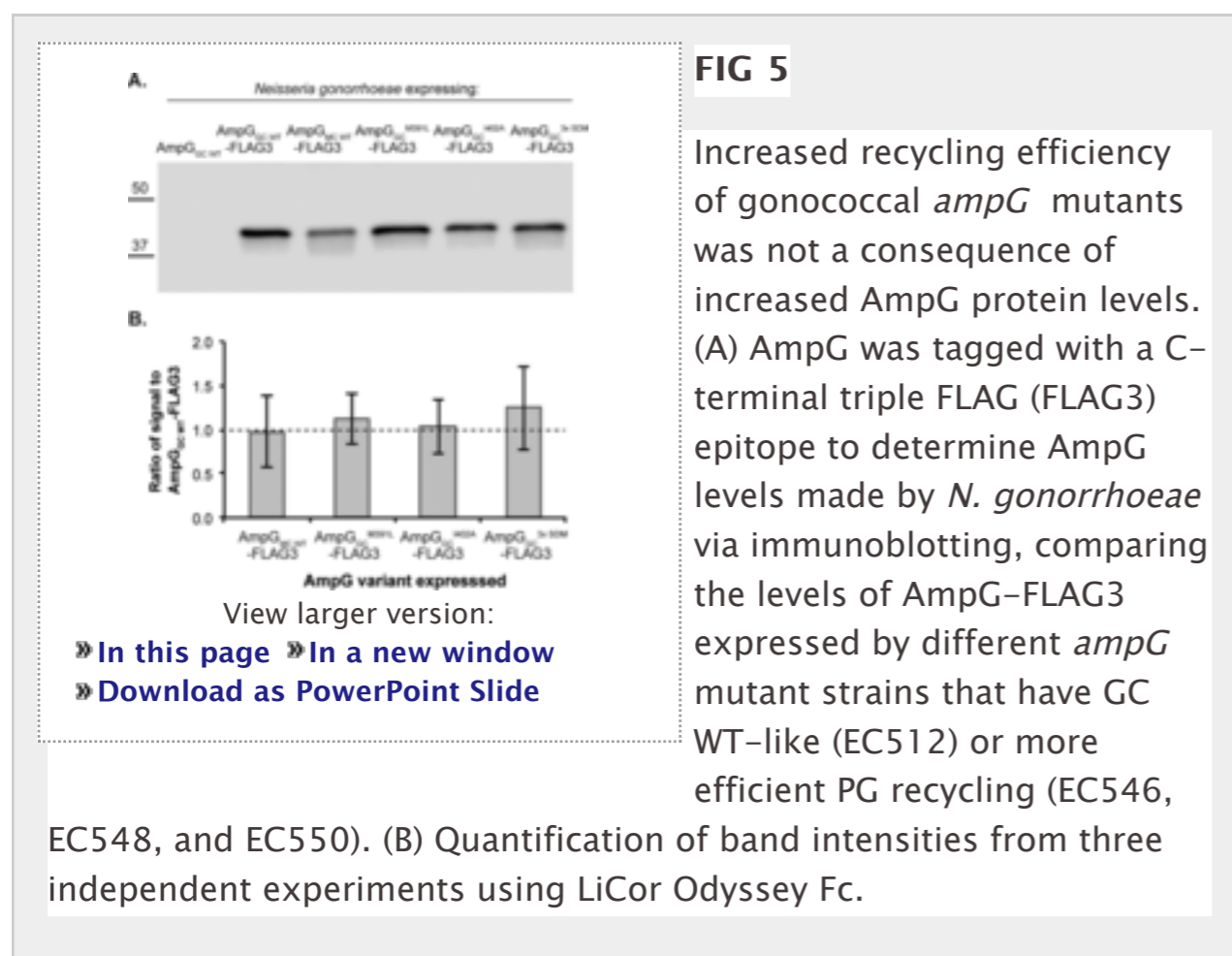
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We next sought to determine whether double substitutions of residues 391 and

402 from the gonococcal to the meningococcal residues would result in an additive effect, leading to PG monomer release levels similar to that of gonococci expressing meningococcal *ampG*. Gonococcal strains that expressed *ampG*_{GC}^{M391L I402A} phenocopied strains that expressed the *ampG*_{GC}^{M391L} and *ampG*_{GC}^{I402A} single substitution mutants, releasing an intermediate level of PG monomers (Fig. 4B). Double substitutions of any of the three residues resulted in PG monomer release levels similar to that of gonococcal strains expressing *ampG*_{GC}^{M391L} or *ampG*_{GC}^{I402A}, suggesting that double mutations did not have an additive effect on PG recycling efficiency (Fig. 4B). Substitutions of all three residues 391, 398, and 402 from the gonococcal to the meningococcal residues resulted in PG monomer release levels similar to that of gonococci expressing meningococcal *ampG* (Fig. 4C). Our results suggested that residues 391, 398, and 402 work cooperatively to modulate AmpG function.

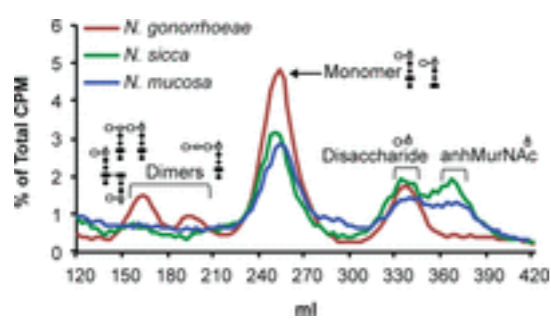
AmpG residues 391, 398, and 402 do not regulate levels of AmpG protein. We hypothesized that substitutions of residues 391, 398, and 402 from the gonococcal to the meningococcal variants might stabilize the protein. Thus, increased recycling efficiency in the gonococcal strain that expressed *ampG*_{GC}^{M391L R398Q I402A} could be a result of increased AmpG protein levels. To test this idea, we tagged various gonococcal *ampG* substitution mutants that were more efficient at recycling compared to WT GC with the C-terminal triple FLAG epitope and measured AmpG protein levels by immunoblotting. There was no significant difference in the amounts of AmpG-FLAG3 protein in any of the mutant strains tested (Fig. 5). Thus, strains that expressed *ampG* variants that are more efficient at recycling PG fragments did not produce more AmpG-FLAG3 protein compared to WT gonococci. The immunoblot results suggested that substitutions of residues 391, 398, and 402 from the gonococcal to the meningococcal variants do not increase AmpG stability and levels.



***N. sicca* and *N. mucosa* are more efficient at PG recycling and release lower levels of PG fragments than *N. gonorrhoeae*.** There are eight species of human-associated, nonpathogenic *Neisseria* that asymptotically colonize the human nasopharyngeal and oropharyngeal spaces. These strains include *N. sicca*, *N. mucosa*, *N. lactamica*, *N. polysaccharea*, *N. subflava*, *N. flavescens*, *N. cinerea*, and *N. elongata* (43). We hypothesized that nonpathogenic neisseriae would release lower levels of PG fragments to evade immune clearance and maintain asymptomatic carriage in human hosts. We found that both *N. sicca* and *N. mucosa* released lower levels of PG monomers than did *N. gonorrhoeae* (Fig. 6). Intriguingly, both *N. sicca* and *N. mucosa* also released very small amounts or possibly no PG dimers (Fig. 6).

FIG 6

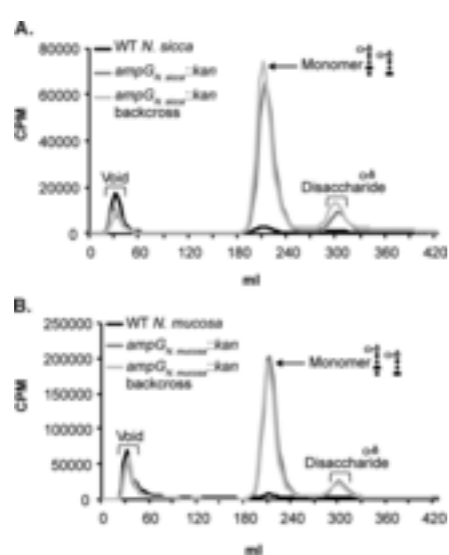
PG fragment release from nonpathogenic *N. sicca* (ATCC 29256) and *N. mucosa* (ATCC 25996) compared to *N. gonorrhoeae* (MS11).



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To determine AmpG recycling efficiency in *N. sicca* and in *N. mucosa*, we compared the amounts of PG fragments released by WT and an *ampG* mutant that is unable to recycle PG fragments. We mutated *N. sicca* and *N. mucosa ampG* by interrupting the *ampG* coding sequence with a kanamycin resistance cassette. Since there are currently no complementation constructs available for *N. sicca* and *N. mucosa*, we generated backcrossed strains by transforming WT *N. sicca* and *N. mucosa* with chromosomal DNA isolated from the *ampG* deletion mutants. We calculated the recycling efficiency in *N. sicca* and *N. mucosa* by determining the area under the monomer curve for WT and *ampG* mutants. Both *N. sicca* and *N. mucosa* released 5% and recycled 95% of PG monomers liberated during PG turnover (**Fig. 7**). This level of PG monomer release is very similar to that of *N. meningitidis*, which releases 4% of PG monomers (**23**). Free disaccharide release was also increased in the *N. sicca* and *N. mucosa ampG* mutants, suggesting that the permease also transports these PG molecules, a finding in agreement with previous reports (**23, 44**).



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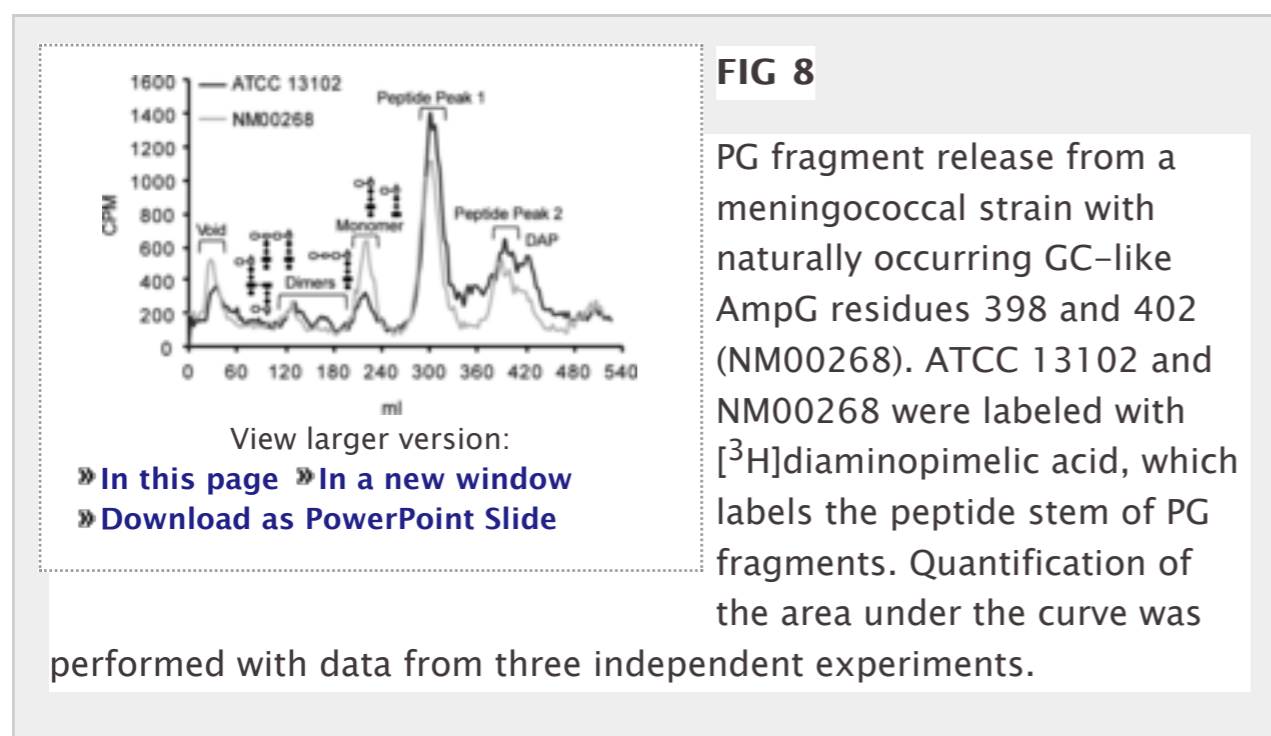
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FIG 7

N. sicca and *N. mucosa* possess functional AmpG proteins. PG fragment release was examined for mutants carrying a kanamycin resistance cassette interrupting *ampG* in *N. sicca* (EC2004) (A) and *N. mucosa* (EC2003) (B) compared to WT *N. sicca* and *N. mucosa*. PG fragment release profiles for backcrossed mutants (EC2004BC and EC2003BC) are also shown. Quantification of the peaks was performed with data obtained from three independent experiments.

Bioinformatic analyses demonstrate that all gonococci encode M391, R398, and I402 in *ampG*. We compiled and aligned *ampG* alleles expressed by 31 strains from nine species of *Neisseria* and found that all gonococcal strains surveyed have methionine, arginine, and isoleucine at AmpG positions 391, 398, and 402 (see Fig. S1 in the supplemental material). A query of the sequences at the *Neisseria* multilocus sequence typing website (<http://pubmlst.org/neisseria>) and the Meningitis Research Foundation meningococcus genome library database (<http://meningitis.org/research/genome>) revealed that although no gonococcal strains (out of 1,847 sequences) had leucine, glutamine, and alanine at the three positions, there were two strains of *N. polysaccharea* (out of 19 sequences) (**45**), eight strains of *N. lactamica* (out of 130 sequences), and around 420 meningococcal strains (out of 7,141 sequences), predominantly of the ST-269 subtype and, to a lesser extent, the ST41/44 subtypes, that had methionine, arginine, and isoleucine at AmpG residues 391, 398, and 402 (data not shown). These three amino acid changes were found in 5.88% of meningococcal strains. One example each of *N. polysaccharea* (strain 12030-2014), *N. lactamica* (strain 049-12), and *N. meningitidis* (strain M10-240473) are shown in Fig. S1 in the supplemental material.

We also sequenced *ampG* from several meningococcal clinical isolates and found an isolate, *N. meningitidis* strain NM00268, that codes for the gonococcus-like residues arginine and isoleucine at AmpG positions 398 and 402 (see Fig. S1 in the supplemental material). NM00268 labels poorly with [³H]glucosamine and thus was labeled with [³H]diaminopimelic acid instead. In accordance with our model, NM00268 released ~1.7 times more PG monomers than did ATCC 13102 (Fig. 8), providing support to our hypothesis that having gonococcus-like residues at AmpG positions 391, 398, and/or 402 contributes to increased PG monomer release. There were no significant differences in the amounts of peptides released by NM00268 and ATCC 13102.



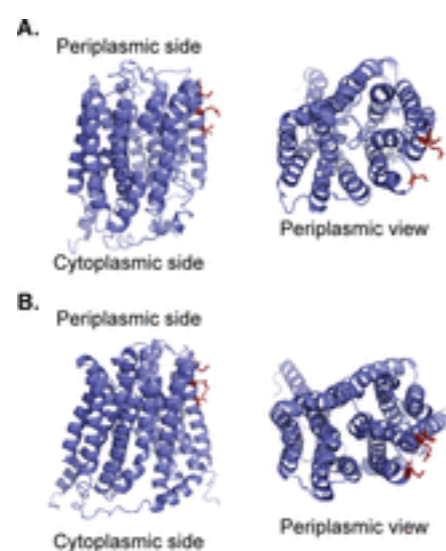
We constructed a neighbor-joining tree based on AmpG sequences and found that although gonococcal strains tend to cluster together, strains of *N. lactamica* and *N. polysaccharea* that expressed GC-like AmpG residues 391, 398, and 402 did not cluster with *N. gonorrhoeae* or with each other. Although *N. meningitidis* strains NM00268 and M10-240473 cluster close to each other, they did not cluster with *N. gonorrhoeae* or with *N. lactamica* strain 049-12 or *N. polysaccharea* strain 12030-2014. In addition, *N. polysaccharea* strain 12030-2014 did not cluster well with other strains from the same species, suggesting that the AmpG sequences in these nongonococcal strains evolved independently or resulted from horizontal gene transfer events, creating mosaic AmpG sequences, as is seen for *N. meningitidis* PBP2 (46). As a control, we also constructed a neighbor-joining tree based on Gdh sequences (see Fig. S2 in the supplemental material). With the exception of *N. meningitidis* strain 8013, all other strains clustered with members of the same species. Overall, these results demonstrated that while M391, R398, and I402 are present in a small fraction of meningococcal or nonpathogenic *Neisseria* strains, these AmpG-crippling mutations are universally present in *N. gonorrhoeae*, making it likely that all *N. gonorrhoeae* isolates release high levels of PG fragments.

AmpG residues 391, 398, and 402 are predicted to be located on a transmembrane helix near the periplasmic face of the protein. We used I-TASSER and Phyre2 servers to predict the structure of AmpG and obtained two different putative AmpG structures (38-42). The model of AmpG structure obtained by I-TASSER showed an inward-facing conformation, in which irregularly arranged helices surround a substrate binding cavity that opens toward the cytoplasm (Fig. 9A). On the other hand, the predicted structure of AmpG using Phyre2 showed an occluded conformation that may be a transitional state between the inward-facing and the outward (periplasmic)-facing conformations during transport (Fig. 9B). In both models, AmpG residues 391, 398, and 402 are located near the periplasmic face of the protein at the start of the last transmembrane helix.

FIG 9

Prediction of gonococcal AmpG structure. The predicted structure of gonococcal AmpG was determined using I-TASSER server with multiple threading templates (A) and using Phyre2 with a multitemplate/*ab initio* template (B). Side view (left) and the view from the periplasmic face (right) of the AmpG structure, with residues 391, 398, and 402 displayed as dark red sticks. Residues 391, 398, and 402 are located close to the periplasmic face of

the protein.



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DISCUSSION

The release of PG fragments is not unique to *Neisseria*, although few genera other than *Neisseria* release mainly toxic anhydro-PG monomers. PG moieties released by bacteria have been implicated in the resuscitation of dormant mycobacteria, the development of *Myxococcus* fruiting bodies, the germination of *Bacillus subtilis* spores, and the establishment of mutualism between *Bacillus cereus* and *Flavobacterium johnsoniae* (reviewed in references [47](#), [48](#) and [49](#)). Nonetheless, the release of PG monomers by bacteria tends to lead to inflammation and the death of animal host cells, whether or not this interaction leads to beneficial or detrimental effects at the organismal level. Tetrapeptide monomer (also known as TCT) and lipopolysaccharide released by *Vibrio fischeri* work synergistically to induce the regression of ciliated epithelial cells near the light organ of the Hawaiian bobtail squid to allow the establishment of squid-*Vibrio* symbiosis ([21](#), [50](#), [51](#)). The production of PG fragments is also thought to be important for the pathogenesis of multiple bacterial species, including but not limited to human pathogens such as *Helicobacter pylori* and *Shigella flexneri*, as well as plant pathogens such as *Pseudomonas syringae* and *Erwinia amylovora* (reviewed in reference [48](#)).

In addition to *N. gonorrhoeae*, the effects of released PG fragments on host fitness is most well studied with respect to the human pathogen *Bordetella pertussis*, which causes whooping cough. Unlike *Neisseria*, which releases a mixture of tripeptide monomer and TCT, *B. pertussis* releases exclusively TCT. TCT causes the sloughing and death of ciliated tracheal cells in *ex vivo* hamster tracheal tissue studies ([14](#), [52](#), [53](#)). An insertion element (IS491) located ~90 bp upstream of *B. pertussis ampG* reduced *ampG* expression in *B. pertussis* and results in high levels of TCT released ([54](#)). When IS491 is deleted, or when *E. coli ampG* is expressed in *B. pertussis* instead, the amount of TCT released is significantly lowered ([54](#)). Collectively, these findings suggest that both human pathogens *B. pertussis* and *N. gonorrhoeae* evolved different strategies to reduce PG fragment recycling efficiency to release more PG monomers. This process generates an inflammatory environment that may be favorable for bacterial growth and invasion.

In this work, we showed that *N. gonorrhoeae* releases more PG monomer and is less efficient at recycling PG monomers than *N. meningitidis*, *N. sicca*, and *N. mucosa*, three species of *Neisseria* that can asymptotically colonize the human nasopharyngeal space. With *N. gonorrhoeae* and *N. meningitidis*, the difference in the recycling efficiency is not due to higher expression of *ampG* in *N. meningitidis* compared to *N. gonorrhoeae*. In fact, gonococcal and meningococcal strains that are more efficient at recycling consistently produced lower levels of *ampG* transcript than strains that are less efficient at recycling. Furthermore, we did not see significant differences in the amounts of various AmpG-FLAG3 proteins expressed by *N. gonorrhoeae*, and amino acid substitutions to make gonococcal AmpG more like meningococcal AmpG did not increase AmpG protein levels. These data indicated that it is not reduced amounts of *ampG* transcript or AmpG protein that makes *N. gonorrhoeae* deficient at recycling but rather the reduced function of gonococcal AmpG in facilitating PG fragment recycling.

We also showed that reduced recycling efficiency in *N. gonorrhoeae* can be

accounted for by the amino acid identities of residues 391, 398, and 402, which are close to the C-terminal end of AmpG (**Fig. 9**). Although we do not yet understand how these three residues modulate AmpG function (other than that the three residues do not change AmpG protein levels), we do have several hypotheses. One hypothesis is that residues 391, 398, and 402 may directly bind to PG and that the gonococcal residues are either less able to bind PG fragments or bind PG fragments too tightly, making the transport of PG fragments less efficient compared to the meningococcal, *N. sicca*, or *N. mucosa* AmpG counterparts.

The *E. coli* AmpG homolog is powered by proton motive force (**44**), although it is unknown whether AmpG functions as a H⁺/PG fragment symporter or whether AmpG interacts with a proton-transducing protein that powers the permease. It is also unknown whether PG-degrading enzymes work together in a complex to remodel the PG layer and whether such complexes colocalize or interact with AmpG to ensure efficient recycling. Lytic transglycosylases are PG-degrading enzymes that cleave the glycan backbone to generate PG monomers (**20**). *N. gonorrhoeae* has two lytic transglycosylases, LtgA and LtgD, that generate all or nearly all the PG monomers released by the bacterium. Deletion of *ltgD* leads to a larger reduction in the amount of PG monomers released compared to the deletion of *ltgA* (62% reduction versus 38% reduction) (**19**). However, LtgA generates more PG monomers than LtgD, and LtgA-generated monomers are preferentially taken up into the cytoplasm for recycling (R. E. Schaub et al., unpublished data). Thus, it is also possible that residues 391, 398, and 402 facilitate protein-protein interaction with a hypothetical accessory protein(s) or with PG-degrading enzymes such as LtgA in the periplasm to power AmpG function or ensure efficient PG recycling.

Another hypothesis is that the residues at these positions are important for facilitating conformational changes required for the import of PG fragments into the cytoplasm. AmpG belongs to major facilitator superfamily (MFS). MFS proteins are typically membrane transport proteins with 12 or 14 transmembrane α -helices that can function as uniporters, symporters, and antiporters and can be found in bacteria, eukaryotes, and archaea (**55, 56**). The most well-studied MFS protein, LacY, is a lactose/H⁺ symporter that can assume one of at least two conformations, as determined by X-ray crystallography studies. LacY can assume a conformation with 2-fold pseudosymmetry with a large aqueous, substrate-binding cavity that opens toward the cytoplasm (PDB IDs **1PV7** and **2V8N**) (**57, 58**). It has been proposed that LacY can assume a similar conformation in which the aqueous cavity opens toward the periplasm for substrate binding (**59**). LacY can also form an occluded conformation with a narrow cavity that opens slightly toward the periplasm that is thought to be an intermediate conformation during substrate transport (PDB IDs **4OAA** and **4ZYR**) (**60, 61**). Given that the two predicted AmpG structures resembled the two structurally determined conformations of LacY, AmpG may function similarly to LacY. As such, residues at positions 391, 398, and 402 might impact the rate of conformational changes required for transport. The crystal structure of AmpG and the exact mechanism of action that AmpG uses to transport PG fragments are currently unknown. A crystal structure of AmpG would help inform studies of AmpG's mechanism of action and provide insight into how residues 391, 398, and 402 impact AmpG efficiency.

We hypothesize that the differences in AmpG function and PG fragment release between the asymptomatic colonizers and *N. gonorrhoeae* contribute to the differences in the inflammatory responses to these species at their different infection sites. It should be noted that *ampG* is not the only factor affecting PG fragment release. Comparing *N. meningitidis* to *N. gonorrhoeae*, expression of meningococcal *ampG* in gonococci results in a nearly 2-fold decrease in PG release, but the expression of gonococcal *ampG* in meningococci only resulted in a 39% increase in PG monomer release (**Fig. 1**). These results suggest that additional features of PG fragment metabolism in *N. gonorrhoeae* may favor PG fragment release and that *N. meningitidis* and the nonpathogenic *Neisseria* species may have additional mechanisms for increasing PG fragment recycling and diminishing PG fragment release. Increased PG fragment breakdown by *N. meningitidis*, as well as *N. mucosa* and *N. sicca*, compared to *N. gonorrhoeae* can be seen in the PG fragment release profiles (**Fig. 1** and **6**) (**23**). Fewer PG dimers and monomers are released, but more anhMurNAc is released compared to *N.*

gonorrhoeae. In addition to the reduced PG fragment release we have shown here, nonpathogenic *Neisseria* spp. are also known to produce a lipid A structure that is less inflammatory (6). Together with differences in the responsiveness of the different tissues infected by these species, the differences in lipid A and PG fragment release may explain how nonpathogenic *Neisseria* spp. are able to maintain asymptomatic colonization, whereas *N. gonorrhoeae* usually induces a strong inflammatory response and disease.

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FOOTNOTES

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