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# Interactive regulatory pathways control virulence determinant production and stability in response to environmental conditions in Staphylococcus aureus

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Abstract The accessory gene regulator (agr) and staphylococcal accessory regulator (sar) loci are important regulators of toxin production in Staphylococcus aureus. In this study we examined how environmental condi $tions - degree of aeration and salt concentration - affect$ the transcription and translation of mRNAs for  $\alpha$ haemolysin (Hla) and serine protease (Ssp) via these pathways and influence the stability of these proteins. Using Northern analysis, we have confirmed earlier observations that sarA is involved in the upregulation of RNAIII, the effector molecule encoded by the *agr* locus. However, this effect was abolished in highly aerated cultures. While  $\text{sar}A$  does appear to have an up-regulatory effect on *hla* transcription that is independent of agr, we propose that the PC1839 (sarA) mutant produces less a-haemolysin activity mainly as a result of post-translational inactivation by proteases. The most obvious phenotypic feature of PC1839 (sarA) is the upregulation of proteases. In this study we show that ssp is repressed by SarA at the transcriptional level. Western analysis using an anti- $\alpha$ -haemolysin antibody identified a major breakdown product that is only present in the supernatant of strains that are overexpressing serine protease. We have also confirmed that *agr* exerts a significant regulatory influence on hla at the level of translation, as well as transcription. Finally, the addition of salt upregulates ssp transcription and dramatically downregulates transcription of hla, and is an example of an environmental parameter that affects toxin produc-

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Present address: <sup>1</sup>Division of Infectious Disease, St George's Hospital Medical School, Cranmer Terrace, London SW17 0RE, UK tion independently of agr and sarA. How environmental signals are transduced to control  $\alpha$ -haemolysin and serine protease production, activity and stability at multiple levels are discussed.

Key words  $Staphylococcus aureus \cdot Regularation \cdot$  $Toxin \cdot$  Virulence

# Introduction

Staphylococcus aureus is a frequent cause of nosocomial and community-acquired bacterial infections, which can range from the trivial to the life-threatening. A worldwide epidemic of methicillin-resistant S. aureus (MRSA) strains in hospitals has had a severe impact on infection control policy and antibiotic usage, occasionally resulting in the temporary closure of entire wards. Some of these strains are resistant to all useful antibiotics except vancomycin. In 1997, S. aureus strains resistant to intermediate levels of vancomycin were reported in Japanese hospitals and have since been identified in the USA and France (Centers for Disease Control 1997; Hiramatsu et al. 1997; Ploy et al. 1998).

In order to develop new methods for controlling S. aureus infection, we need to understand the infection process. S. aureus strains are capable of producing dozens of toxins and potential virulence factors, although no single toxin appears essential for all infections (Projan and Novick 1997; Coulter et al. 1998). Recent research has concentrated on the role of the global regulators encoded by agr and sarA, which control the expression of multiple virulence determinants.

The phenotype of *agr* mutants suggests that the locus acts to repress expression of surface proteins, such as protein A, coagulase and fibronectin-binding proteins, and activate production of extracellular proteins and toxins, such as  $\alpha$ - and  $\beta$ -haemolysin, proteases, most enterotoxins and toxic shock syndrome toxin-1 (Bjorkland and Arvidson 1980; Recsei et al. 1986). agr mutant strains show partially attenuated virulence in

animal models (Abdelnour et al. 1993; Booth et al. 1995; Gillaspy et al. 1995). The agr locus consists of two major divergent operons. The first  $(P2)$  comprises four genes,  $agrBDCA$ .  $agrA$  and  $agrC$  encode a two-component sensor regulator, while agrD encodes a small peptide that is apparently cleaved by the product of agrB to produce an octapeptide (Novick et al. 1995). The octapeptide is secreted and accumulates in the environment to a threshold level, and then activates agr A via agr C to upregulate both the P2 and P3 operons (Balaban and Novick 1995; Ji et al. 1995). The product of the P3 operon is an mRNA, RNAIII, which is the regulatory effector molecule (Janzon et al. 1989; Novick et al. 1993).

Northern analysis of wild-type strains have shown that transcription of P2 and P3 is switched on in mid- to late-log phase. At this point, expression of surface proteins is switched off and exoprotein production is switched on (Vandenesch et al. 1991; Ji et al. 1995). This is closely analogous to the process thought to be involved in infection: surface proteins are expressed by single cells and used for attachment to tissues, where they begin to multiply. Once the cell number reaches a threshold level ± as indicated by the ambient concentration of octapeptide  $-\varrho q r A$  is activated, and extracellular toxins  $-\varrho$ often degradative enzymes  $-$  are secreted, which generate a further source of nutrients.

The RNAIII molecule itself, rather than the protein translated from this mRNA (hld), is responsible for the regulatory effects of the *agr* locus on transcription (Janzon et al. 1989; Janzon and Arvidson 1990; Novick et al. 1993). How the RNAIII molecule might achieve this is not known. Although the phenotype of the agr mutant suggests that RNAIII is essential for *hla* expression, Morfeldt et al. (1995) isolated a spontaneous mutant of strain V8 that is deficient in RNAIII yet still produces the hla transcript. The mutation responsible has not been characterized. This group showed the RNAIII molecule is capable of binding to hla mRNA, and proposed that this complex is required for efficient translation of  $\alpha$ -haemolysin. At present, hla is the only mRNA that is reported to be regulated by RNAIII at the translational level.

The *sar* locus encodes another global regulator first described by Cheung and colleagues. The sarA mutant shows altered production of exoproteins (Cheung et al. 1992; Cheung and Ying 1994). The mutant strain shows attenuated virulence in some animal models (Nilsson et al. 1996). There are three promoters upstream of the sarA gene. The distal promoters have been predicted to drive transcription of small ORFs encoded between them (Bayer et al. 1996; Manna et al. 1998). Extensive work has shown that SarA is a DNA-binding protein which upregulates transcription of the P2 and P3 promoter regions (Cheung and Projan 1994; Heinrichs et al. 1996; Morfeldt et al. 1996; Cheung et al. 1997; Chien and Cheung 1998). Thus it may exert many of its effects on exoprotein production via agr. However, we have previously shown that SarA has a major role as a repressor of protease production (Chan and Foster 1998a).

Earlier studies in our laboratory suggested SarA might be part of the mechanism that controls the response to aeration (Chan and Foster 1998a). In this study we have investigated how  $\alpha$ -haemolysin levels are regulated in response to environmental conditions and how *agr* and *sarA* are involved in this process. While SarA may affect the *hla* transcript independently of agr, we present evidence to show that the overexpression of proteases in the sarA mutant strain PC1839 leads to the cleavage and inactivation of a-haemolysin, thus accounting for the major decrease in haemolytic activity observed in this strain. This suggests that a regulatory mechanism that controls protease activities may modulate virulence factor stability and activity.

## Materials and methods

### Bacterial strains and growth conditions

The strains used in this study were constructed in the isogenic parental background S. aureus 8325-4 (Novick 1967). The mutant strains PC6911 (agr), PC1839 (sarA) and PC18391 (agr sarA) have been described previously (Chan and Foster 1998a).

Growth conditions during experiments were exactly as described previously (Chan and Foster 1998b). Briefly, glycerol stocks were streaked onto BHI agar plates containing appropriate antibiotics, then inoculated into 100 ml of BHI broth in a 250-ml flask at 37° C shaking at 250 rpm. After 3 h, the culture was diluted to an  $OD_{600}$  of 0.01 with fresh growth medium, to a final volume of either  $10$  ml or 100 ml in a 250-ml flask. In some experiments BHI broth was supplemented with 1 M NaCl. Cultures were incubated at 37° C with shaking at 250 rpm.

#### Northern analysis

Culture samples for Northern analysis were cooled in liquid nitrogen; cells were immediately recovered by centrifugation  $(13,000 \times g, 4^{\circ}C, 5 \text{ min})$  and RNA was extracted from the pellet. The FastRNA kit and a FastPrep Instrument (Bio 101) were used for RNA extraction according to the manufacturer's instructions: RNA was then stored at  $-20^{\circ}$ C. Aliquots (8 µg) of the nucleic acid (measured using  $A_{260}$ ) were digested with 5 U of RQ1 RNase-free DNase (Promega) in the presence of 10 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub> and 10 mM MgSO4 for 1 h at 37° C to remove residual DNA contamination. Samples were then denatured and fractionated on a  $1.1\%$  w/v agarose-formaldehyde gel, transferred onto Hybond N+ nylon membrane (Amersham), fixed using UV irradiation, and detected using the Enhanced Chemiluminesence kit (Amersham). This kit allows a single membrane to be probed several times without stripping. The probes used were PCR products isolated from an agarose gel and purified with the Qiagen gel extraction kit, then labelled with horse-radish peroxidase according to the ECL protocol. Primers used to generate the probes were: for RNAIII, 5¢-CACAGAGATGTGATGGAAAATAGTTG-3¢ and 5¢-TAAA-TGAAGTAGAACAGCAACGCG-3', generating a product of 829 bp which is estimated to cover the entire RNAIII region (Genbank Accession No. X52543; Novick et al. 1995); for hla, 5'-CACGTATAGTCAGCTCAG-3' and 5'-CTGAAGAACGA-TCTGTCC-3¢, generating a product of 909 bp covering almost the entire ORF (Genbank Accession No. X01645; Gray and Kehoe 1984); and for ssp, 5'-GGAGGTTTTTAGATGAAAGG-3' and 5'-CGCCATTGTCTGGATTATCAGG-3', generating a product of 987 bp covering almost the entire ORF (Genbank Accession No. Y00356; Carmona and Gray 1987).

#### Protein analysis

Extracellular protein samples from 12-h cultures (stationary phase) were prepared as previously described (Foster 1992), boiled and loaded onto 15% w/v SDS-PAGE gels. Gels were stained with Coomassie blue or transferred to Hybond  $N+$  nylon membranes (Amersham) for Western analysis. Polyclonal anti-sera raised in rabbits against a-haemolysin or V8 serine protease were kindly donated by SmithKline Beecham. Labelled bands were visualized using the ECL system (Amersham).

Precast casein protease gels (12% w/v acrylamide; Biorad) were used to detect protease activity. Extracellular proteins in sample buffer (containing  $\beta$ -mercaptoethanol as above) were diluted 1:10 in water and Zymogram sample buffer (Biorad) and boiled again prior to loading on the gel. Protease activity was detected according to the gel manufacturer's instructions.

a-Haemolysin activity was measured using rabbit blood as previously described (Chan and Foster 1998b) but without the addition of PMSF.

## Results

The agr locus activates, but is not essential, for transcription of hla

The growth curve in highly aerated (10-ml) cultures shows a sharp break between exponential and stationary phase, whereas less aerated cultures (100 ml) show a more gradual decrease in growth rate (Fig. 1A and B). We consistently find that both the PC6911 (*agr*) and PC18391 (agr sarA) strains reach slightly higher final OD levels than 8325-4. The points in the growth curves at which samples were taken for RNA preparation are indicated in Fig. 1A and B. They are roughly equivalent to log, late-log, early stationary and stationary phase.

As expected, Northern blot experiments showed that the agr locus is required for hla expression in 10-ml cultures (Fig. 1C). However, in 100-ml cultures, the hla transcript is detected in the agr mutant (Fig. 1D). This is confirmed by the results with PC18391 (agr sarA), as the hla transcript is seen under both conditions in the absence of *agr* (Fig. 1C and D). In both cases there is more *hla* transcript in the wild-type than in PC6911 (*agr*), and in PC1839 (sarA) compared to PC18391 (agr sar). Therefore, *agr* positively regulates *hla* transcription but is not essential for expression.

# Transcriptional regulation by sarA depends on aeration

In 100-ml cultures, the amount of RNAIII transcript detected on Northern blots was decreased in PC1839  $(sarA)$  compared to 8325-4 (Fig. 1D), which supports published data (Cheung and Projan 1994; Heinrichs et al. 1996). A proportionate decrease in the hla transcript was seen, suggesting that sar A acts on hla transcription via agr.

However, in 10-ml cultures, the amount of RNAIII transcript was not affected by the  $\text{sar}A$  mutation. This suggests that the upregulatory effect of  $\text{sar}A$  on RNAIII can be abolished by increased aeration. This is not due

to an alteration in the amount of sarA mRNA produced, as experiments with the sarA::lacZ chromosomal fusion strain PC161 (Chan and Foster 1998a) show that  $\beta$ -galactosidase production is not affected by aeration (data not shown). Although RNAIII was not affected in the sarA mutant, the amount of hla transcript nevertheless decreased compared to the wild-type strain (Fig. 1C). This suggests that *sarA* still acts as a positive activator of hla but works independently of the amount of RNAIII. Unexpectedly, in the absence of *agr*, *sarA* does not upregulate the *hla* transcript, it represses expression [compare PC6911 (*agr*) to PC18391 (*agr sarA*) in Fig. 1C. Therefore *sarA* is a repressor of *hla* transcription in the absence of agr, and an activator of hla transcription in the presence of agr. This activation is independent of the amount of RNAIII transcript produced.

Chan and Foster (1998a) noted that  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity expressed from a chromosomal hla::lacZ fusion construct was delayed in the PC1839 (sarA) background. It was proposed that  $\text{sar}A$  played a role in the temporal regulation of *hla*. This effect was confirmed by Northern analysis (Fig. 1D), although it was not seen in highly aerated cultures (Fig. 1C).

## RNAIII enhances hla translation

In 100-ml cultures, the *hla* transcript is produced, albeit at reduced levels, in the presence of agr and sarA mutations, while in aerated conditions (10 ml) the hla transcript is not seen in the PC6911  $(agr)$  strain (Fig. 1C, D). However, the amount of transcript does not correspond to the amount of protein observed. On SDS-PAGE gels (Fig. 2) and Western blots (Fig. 3A) very little a-haemolysin protein (32 kDa) is detectable in PC6911 (agr) and PC18391 (agr sarA) backgrounds compared to cells in which the agr locus is intact, irrespective of the amount of hla transcript synthesized (10 ml vs 100 ml cultures). This supports the observations of Morfeldt et al. (1995), who suggested RNAIII was required to activate translation of hla mRNA.

Expression of the gene for serine protease  $(ssp)$ is repressed by SarA at the transcriptional level

The level of ssp transcript in 8325-4 is low relative to the hla transcript, but its expression is activated by agr in 10-ml cultures (Fig. 1C). The product of the *sarA* locus, on the other hand, is a major repressor of ssp. Repression occurs in both 10-ml and 100-ml cultures, and it appears that *agr* and *sar* antagonize each other. When both genes are absent, ssp transcription returns to levels similar to those seen in the wild type.

In SDS-PAGE gels stained with Coomassie blue, serine protease is the predominant protein (33 kDa) produced by PC1839 (sarA) (Fig. 2; Chan and Foster 1998a). The amount of protein seen in all cases corresponds to the amount of ssp transcript produced, and





Fig. 1A-D Growth curves and Northern analysis of S. aureus in 10-ml and 100-ml cultures. Growth curves (OD at 600 nm; log scale) are shown for the strains 8325-4 (wt, filled squares), PC6911 (agr, filled circles), PC1839 (sarA, empty squares) and PC18391 (agr sarA, empty circles) in 10-ml (A) and 100-ml (B) cultures. The *numbered arrows* refer to points at which samples were taken for RNA preparation. Northern blots from 10-ml cultures  $(C)$  and 100-ml cultures  $(D)$  were hybridized consecutively with RNAIII, hla and ssp probes, which detect bands of approximately 0.5 kb, 1.5 kb and 3 kb, respectively. Results are representative of three experiments and, with one exception, are all from a single membrane. The sample for time point 3 from PC18391 (agr sarA) in 100-ml cultures originated from a separate experiment

there appears to be very little regulation of ssp at the translational level.

Serine protease is activated in aerated cultures

Serine protease is reported (Janzon and Arvidson 1990) to appear as a double band in Western blots of supernatants grown in baffled flasks (highly aerated). We have confirmed this observation in aerated conditions (Fig. 3B). Protease gels show that the wild-type



Fig. 2 Analysis of exoproteins on 15% w/v SDS-PA gels. Exoproteins were isolated from stationary-phase cultures of 8325-4 (wt), PC6911 (agr), PC1839 (sarA) and PC18391 (agr sarA) grown in either 10-ml or 100-ml batches with or without supplementation with 1 M NaCl. The sizes of molecular weight markers (MW) are indicated in kDa on the left.  $\alpha$ -Haemolysin and serine protease have apparent molecular weights of approximately 32 kDa and 33 kDa, respectively. N-terminal sequencing identified the major band in the 32-kDa region in the wild-type 8325-4 strain as  $\alpha$ -haemolysin, while the major band in the 33-kDa region in PC1839 (sarA) is serine protease. This was confirmed by Western analysis

strain produces active protease under these conditions (Fig. 3C). The majority of this activity appears as a single band that corresponds in size (33 kDa) to V8 serine protease supplied by Sigma (data not shown). Interestingly, in less aerated conditions (100 ml), serine protease appears as only the larger band in Western blots of supernatants from cultures of the wild-type strain 8325-4 (Fig. 3B), and shows no activity on protease gels (Fig. 3C). This suggests that serine protease is processed from the inactive larger form to the smaller, active form, and this processing is enhanced in aerated conditions. Interestingly, under both conditions, serine protease was activated in PC1839 (sarA) and PC18391 (agr sarA), suggesting that SarA represses the "activator", which is itself probably another protease.

a-Haemolysin activity is lowered in the PC1839 strain (sarA) owing to proteolytic cleavage

a-Haemolysin activity, measured in the rabbit blood cell assay, is greatly reduced in PC1839 (sarA) compared to 8325-4 (Fig. 4, 87  $\pm$  14 and 1501  $\pm$  688 activity units, respectively, in 10-ml cultures). However, hla is clearly transcribed in PC1839 ( $sarA$ ) cells (Fig. 1C and D) and translated, resulting in significant levels of  $\alpha$ -haemolysin that can be detected on Western blots (Fig. 3A). PC1839 (sarA) produces large amounts of active serine protease (Figs. 2, 3B, C; Chan and Foster 1998a), and we have noticed a general reduction in the amounts of other higher molecular weight proteins in the supernatant of this strain (Fig. 2). Western analysis of exoproteins with anti-a-haemolysin antiserum revealed a prominent 23-

**Fig. 3** A Western analysis with antiserum raised against  $\alpha$ -haemolysin. The samples shown in Fig. 2 were used. The arrows point to a-haemolysin (32 kDa) and a breakdown product seen in PC1839  $(sarA)$  of approximately 23 kDa. **B** Western analysis of the samples shown in Fig. 2 with antiserum raised against serine protease. The arrows point to the serine protease double band at around 33 kDa. C Protease activity of culture supernatants assayed on casein PAGE gels. Supernatant samples are the same as those for Fig. 2, diluted 1:10. The band of activity appears at approximately 33 kDa, the same size as the commercially available serine protease (Sigma, data not shown). All data are representative of at least two experiments





Fig. 4 Haemolytic activity in culture supernatants of S. aureus. Supernatant samples were taken at the same time as those for Fig. 2. Results are averages of between three and six experiments and the error bars show the standard deviation

kDa protein in PC1839 (sarA). We suggest that this may be a breakdown product of  $\alpha$ -haemolysin, which is cleaved by serine protease in the culture supernatant. This could account for the lower level of  $\alpha$ -haemolysin activity on rabbit blood cells detected in cultures of PC1839 (sarA) (Fig. 4).

NaCl downregulates  $\alpha$ -haemolysin and upregulates serine protease at the transcriptional level, and this effect is independent of *agr* and  $\text{sar}A$ 

High concentrations of NaCl (1 M) dramatically reduced the amount of hla transcript in all the strains. While NaCl had a minor downregulatory effect on RNAIII, the effect of NaCl appeared to be independent of both *agr* and *sarA*. Virtually no  $\alpha$ -haemolysin activity was detected in cultures supplemented with NaCl (Fig. 3A), which is consistent with the lack of hla transcript. All cultures grown in 1 M NaCl failed to produce detectable haemolytic activity, as measured on rabbit blood cells (data not shown).

On the other hand, the presence of 1 M NaCl enhanced production of the ssp transcript (Fig. 1C, D; Fig. 5C, D) and of serine protease (Fig. 3B, C). This enhancement was seen in both the 8325-4 and PC18391

(agr sarA) strains. Thus the effects of NaCl on production of serine protease do not appear to be mediated by agr or sarA.

# **Discussion**

Extensive studies have shown that agr positively regulates the production of  $\alpha$ -haemolysin and other toxins at the level of transcription (Bjorkland and Arvidson 1980; Recsei et al. 1986; Vandenesch et al. 1991; Abdelnour et al. 1993; Novick et al. 1993). Similarly, studies have shown that SarA is a positive regulator of *agr*, and therefore indirectly regulates hla transcription (Cheung and Projan 1994; Heinrichs et al. 1996; Morfeldt et al. 1996; Cheung et al. 1997; Chien and Cheung 1998). The results of our Northern analyses have confirmed both of these observations.

We have now identified an environmental condition (high aeration) where  $s$ arA appears to have no significant effect on the amount of RNAIII transcript produced. However, under these conditions, the amount of hla transcript is partially reduced in a sarA mutant strain. This reduction appears to be independent of the level of RNAIII transcript. Other groups have also suggested that  $sarA$  can act independently of *agr* to regulate virulence factors. Thus, Booth et al. (1997) have shown that a sarA mutant strain was not attenuated in virulence in an endophthalmitis model, but the double agr sarA mutant strain was less virulent than the agr mutant. They concluded that  $sarA$  continues to influence virulence traits in the absence of agr. Gillaspy et al. (1998) have reported that collagen adhesin is primarily regulated by *sarA*, and not by *agr*.

To further investigate this observation, the same experiment was performed in an agr mutant background. If sarA can act as a positive regulator of hla independently of *agr*, we would expect to see a small amount of hla transcript in an *agr* mutant and even less transcript in a double mutant. Instead the level of hla RNA increased in the double mutant. Therefore, in highly aerated conditions the presence or absence of the agr locus determines the function of  $\text{sar}A$  as a regulator of hla, although the amount of RNAIII transcript is not affected. Furthermore, in the absence of agr, it could be argued that sarA acted as a repressor of hla transcription.

The role of  $\text{sar}A$  in the regulation of hla transcription in an agr mutant is academic however. In no case did we find significant  $\alpha$ -haemolysin activity in an *agr* mutant. This fully confirms the results of Morfeldt et al. (1995) who suggested RNAIII is required for the translation of hla.

While SarA clearly has effects on toxin production both via *agr* and independently of *agr*, the major effect of a sarA mutation is the de-repression of proteases (Fig. 3; Chan and Foster 1998a). Our Northern blots demonstrate that sarA is a potent repressor of ssp production at the level of transcription. While agr is re-



Fig. 5A-D The effect of 1 M NaCl on growth of S. aureus and transcription of selected genes in 10-ml and 100-ml cultures. Growth curves were constructed and Northern analysis was performed as in Fig. 1, except that all cultures were grown in BHIB supplemented with 1 M NaCl. The results are presented exactly as in Fig. 1

quired for ssp transcription (Janzon and Arvidson 1990), the effect of sarA on ssp is independent of agr. Furthermore, repression of  $ssp$  by  $s \text{ar } A$  is independent of aeration.

In summary, our results suggest that SarA is a partial up-regulator of RNAIII at the transcriptional level, but this effect is blocked by aeration. It is a minor up-regulator of *hla* in the presence of *agr*, but this effect is independent of the amount of RNAIII produced in an agr-positive strain. A major regulatory role of SarA in

S. aureus is the repression of Ssp and possibly other proteases (Chan and Foster 1998a). The effect on ssp regulation is independent of agr and of aeration.

Both *agr* and *sar* were found to have important, but quite different, post-transcriptional effects on  $\alpha$ -haemolysin. As previously mentioned, an intact agr locus is required for translation of the hla transcript. Morfeldt et al. (1995) demonstrated that an RNAIII/hla mRNA complex forms in the wild-type strain 8325-4, and, based on studies with an uncharacterized spontaneous mutant, they proposed that the complex was required for hla translation. Here we show that the hla transcript is produced in an agr or double mutant background under less aerated conditions, but is not translated into protein. This supports their model and provides an explanation for our observations. Thus, a significant regulatory effect of *agr* on  $\alpha$ -haemolysin is exerted at the level of translation.

SarA, on the other hand, appears to have little effect on the translation of hla. However, the sarA mutant produces large amounts of active serine protease (Chan and Foster 1998a). Here we provide evidence that proteases in the supernatant may cleave  $\alpha$ -haemolysin posttranslationally, thus reducing its activity. We propose that much of the decrease in  $\alpha$ -haemolysin activity seen in PC1839 (sarA) is due to this phenomena. Froman et al. (1987) and McGavin et al. (1997) reported a significant role for staphylococcal proteases in the cleavage and inactivation of fibronectin binding protein in wildtype strains. Proteases may therefore have an important role in regulating the stability of virulence factors, an effect that is enhanced in PC1839 (sarA).

Post-translational processing of serine protease is required for activation (Drapeau 1978). Since the active form appeared as a slightly smaller band on Western blots, we presume this activation is due to the cleavage of a pro-sequence by a protease, such as the metalloprotease described by Drapeau (1978). In our experiments, the protease is activated under aerated conditions, particularly in the wild-type strain. It also appears that this protease is down-regulated by sarA, but does not absolutely require agr, as the active serine protease form is present in both sarA and agr sarA mutant strains.

Therefore, protease production in itself may be an important modulator of the activity of multiple virulence factors. Serine protease is just one of these. Serine protease activity is dependent on regulation by sarA, on post-translational activation by another protease which is controlled by  $\text{sar}A$  and  $\text{agr}$ , and on environmental conditions such as aeration.

Finally, while *agr* and *sar* are important regulators of toxin and virulence factor production, other regulators may be just as important. Here we show that 1 M NaCl has a dramatic effect on *hla* transcription and this is independent of both agr and sar. Regassa and Betley (1993), have demonstrated that enterotoxin C levels are also dramatically reduced under conditions of high osmotic strength, and this effect is independent of agr. Sheehan et al. (1992) suggested that the decrease in transcription of the gene for epidermolytic toxin A in high salt was due to an increase in negative supercoiling of  $DNA - which was *agr* dependent.$ However, our preliminary experiments suggests that the decrease in hla transcription is not due to changes in supercoiling, and cannot be reversed by novobiocin (data not shown; Chan and Foster 1998b). There was no evidence for a role for supercoiling in the regulation of hla::lacZ, spa::lacZ, sar::lacZ or tst::luxAB expression by NaCl.

NaCl also enhanced the transcription of ssp and, as in the control of *hla* transcription, the effect on *ssp* transcription was independent of *agr* and *sar*. NaCl does not affect sarA expression, as determined using PC161 (sarA::lacZ) (data not shown; Chan and Foster 1998b).

S. aureus is a particularly salt-tolerant microbe. This is reflected in its ability to colonize the skin and nares. In this environment, S. aureus survives as a commensal. Perhaps salt concentration contributes to lack of pathogenicity by switching off  $\alpha$ -haemolysin, enterotoxin C (Regassa and Betley 1993), epidermolytic toxin A (Sheehan et al. 1992) and protein A (Chan and Foster 1998b), and enhancing the production of serine protease ± which may act in degrading other toxins. Salt is also reported to alter cell wall morphology in S. aureus (Vijaranakul et al. 1995). Therefore, salt and other environmental conditions may trigger important regulatory pathways, resulting in decreased production of toxins.

The importance of complex regulatory control of toxin production by S. aureus has been highlighted by studies with  $\alpha$ -haemolysin. While  $\alpha$ -haemolysin mutants show attenuated virulence in animal models (Bramley et al. 1989), Bayer et al. (1997) demonstrated that strains that produce too much  $\alpha$ -haemolysin were also attenuated in a model of experimental endocarditis, possibly due to increased release of microbicidal proteins from platelets. Therefore, there may be sound reasons for the exceedingly complicated regulatory control over the level and timing of production of  $\alpha$ -haemolysin and other virulence factors by S. aureus.

This study has emphasized the need for careful control of environmental conditions when evaluating toxin production in S. aureus. An important change in regulatory activity of sarA was seen after simply altering the amount of growth medium in the flask. Seemingly minor differences in growth conditions and media may account for differences in the results reported by different laboratories. Therefore it is imperative that all growth conditions be documented in full when studying regulatory pathways in S. aureus. Elucidation of the complex, interwoven, regulatory circuits controlling the pathogenicity of such a successful and versatile pathogen as S. aureus is the subject of our continuing research.

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