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2	The Helicobacter pylori biofilm involves a multi-gene stress-biased
3	response including a structural role for flagella
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22 ABSTRACT

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24 Helicobacter pylori has an impressive ability to persist chronically in the human stomach. 25 Similar characteristics are associated with biofilm formation in other bacteria. The H. pylori 26 biofilm process, however, is poorly understood. To gain insight into this mode of growth, we 27 carried out comparative transcriptomic analysis between *H. pylori* biofilm and planktonic cells, 28 using the mouse colonizing strain SS1. Optimal biofilm formation was obtained with low serum 29 and three-day growth, conditions which caused both biofilm and planktonic cells to be ~80% 30 coccoid. RNA-seq analysis found that 8.18% of genes were differentially expressed between 31 biofilm and planktonic cell transcriptomes. Biofilm-downregulated genes included those 32 involved in metabolism and translation, suggesting these cells have low metabolic activity. 33 Biofilm-upregulated genes included those whose products were predicted to be at the cell 34 envelope, involved in regulating a stress response, and surprisingly, genes related to formation of 35 the flagellar apparatus. Scanning electron microscopy visualized flagella that appeared to be a 36 component of the biofilm matrix, supported by the observation that an aflagellated mutant 37 displayed a less robust biofilm with no apparent filaments. We observed flagella in the biofilm 38 matrix of additional *H. pylori* strains, supporting that flagellar use is widespread. Our data thus 39 supports a model in which H. pylori biofilm involves a multi-gene stress-biased response, and 40 that flagella play an important role in *H. pylori* biofilm formation.

42 **IMPORTANCE**

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44 Biofilms, communities of bacteria that are embedded in a hydrated matrix of extracellular 45 polymeric substances, pose a substantial health risk and are key contributors to many chronic and 46 recurrent infections. Chronicity and recalcitrant infections are also common features associated 47 with the ulcer-causing human pathogen H. pylori. However, relatively little is known about the 48 role of biofilms in *H. pylori* pathogenesis as well as the biofilm structure itself and the genes 49 associated with this mode of growth. In the present study, we found that *H. pylori* biofilm cells 50 highly expressed genes related to cell envelope, stress response and those encoding the flagellar 51 apparatus. Flagellar filaments were seen in high abundance in the biofilm. Flagella are known to 52 play a role in initial biofilm formation, but typically are downregulated after that state. H. pylori 53 instead appears to have co-opted these structures for non-motility roles, including a role building 54 a robust biofilm.

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56 KEYWORDS

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58 Helicobacter pylori, biofilm, flagella, stress, metabolism, RNA-seq, transcriptome

59 **INTRODUCTION**

60

61 H. pylori has been co-evolving with humans for tens of thousands of years (1). During 62 this time, it has adapted to survive the hostile environment of the stomach and evade the immune 63 system, allowing it to persist for the life of the host (2). H. pylori colonizes gastric epithelial 64 surfaces and within the thin layer of mucus near the cells (3). More recently, H. pylori was found 65 to colonize within gastric glands, repeated invaginations of the gastrointestinal tract, which may 66 provide the bacteria a favorable niche (4, 5). Even though most infections are asymptomatic, H. 67 pylori persistence is considered a major risk factor for gastric and duodenal ulcers, gastric 68 Mucosa-Associated Lymphoid Tissue (MALT) lymphoma, and gastric adenocarcinoma (6). H. 69 pylori infections remain difficult to treat, and when left untreated (7), 1-2% progress to gastric 70 cancer (8, 9).

71 H. pylori possesses several mechanisms to escape the challenging environment of the 72 stomach where the pH is around 2. These include urease production, flagellar motility, and 73 chemotaxis, which are all required for the initial and sustained colonization of the gastric 74 epithelial surface (10). Urease catalyzes the hydrolysis of urea, which is abundant in stomach, 75 into bicarbonate and ammonia and thus raises the pH to near neutral (10). pH elevation decreases 76 the viscoelastic properties of mucus gel and improves the motility of *H. pylori*, which can then 77 swim away from the lumen to reach safer niches including those close to the gastric epithelial 78 surface (11). *H. pylori* forms microcolonies at the cell surface *in vitro* (12, 13) as well as within 79 gastric glands (5). This microcolony mode of growth may be consistent with the bacteria being in 80 a biofilm-growth mode.

81 Biofilms are dense aggregates of microorganisms attached to a surface and embedded in 82 an extracellular polymeric matrix (14). In contrast with the other mode of bacterial growth, freefloating or planktonic, biofilm cells tend to be more tolerant towards antimicrobials and host immune responses (14, 15). Biofilms are also frequently associated with chronic disease including pneumonia in cystic fibrosis patients, Lyme disease, and chronic otitis media (16-18). In those chronic diseases, biofilm growth is considered to be a survival strategy used by pathogens to escape antimicrobial therapies, avoid clearance by the immune system, and to persist for the lifetime of the host.

89 Chronicity and recalcitrant infections are also common features associated with H. pylori 90 (19). Yet, the role of biofilm growth in promoting *H. pylori* persistence is still not clear (20). The 91 first suggestion of biofilm formation by H. pylori during colonization of the human gastric 92 mucosa was found using biopsies and scanning electron microscopy (SEM) analysis (20-22). 93 These studies demonstrated that gastric biopsy samples from *H. pylori*-positive patients showed 94 dense layers of bacteria aggregated and attached to the mucosal surface. The bacteria were 95 consistent in appearance to *H. pylori* with cells in both the spiral and coccoid morphologies. The 96 same bacterial-appearing structures were absent in *H. pylori*-negative patients, however there has 97 not yet been conclusive evidence showing that *H. pylori* forms a biofilm *in vivo*.

98 H. pylori has been well documented to form a biofilm in vitro. The first report of in vitro 99 biofilm formation by *H. pylori* was described to occur in clinical, laboratory, and mouse-adapted 100 strains, and was observed at the air-liquid interface on glass coverslips when the bacteria were 101 grown in Brucella broth (BB) supplemented with slightly lower than normal fetal bovine serum 102 (FBS) (23). The biofilms were mainly composed of coccoid bacteria, with a minority of spiral 103 and rod shaped ones (23). In subsequent reports, scientists analyzed the extracellular polymeric 104 substance (EPS) of H. pylori biofilms and found proteomannans, LPS-related structures, 105 extracellular DNA, proteins, and outer membrane vesicles (24, 25).

106	Additionally, biofilm cells have been shown to exhibit high resistance in vitro to
107	clarithromycin, which is one of the common antibiotics used to treat <i>H. pylori</i> infection (26). The
108	minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) and the minimum bactericidal concentration (MBC)
109	were increased by 16-and 4-fold, respectively, in the biofilm cells as compared to planktonic
110	ones (26). However, despite the growing evidences of <i>H. pylori</i> biofilm formation both in vitro
111	and in vivo (20-22, 24), little is known about the genes involved in biofilm formation. We thus
112	sought to characterize H. pylori biofilm and investigate global transcriptional changes during
113	biofilm formation, with a particular focus on <i>H. pylori</i> strain SS1 because it is able to colonize
114	mice and thus will be able to serve as a model for biofilm formation in vivo.

115 **RESULTS**

116

Biofilm formation and growth condition. H. pylori strain SS1 has been extensively used as a murine model of *H. pylori* infection. *H. pylori* SS1 biofilms, however, are difficult to detect when the bacteria are grown in standard nutrient-rich media routinely used for *H. pylori* culture. A previous study reported that *H. pylori* biofilm formation was significantly dependent on the growth media used (27). We thus evaluated the ability of the *H. pylori* SS1 strain to form a biofilm using the crystal violet biofilm assay, and bacteria grown under varying growth conditions that included different growth media, incubation times, and concentrations of serum.

124 Using Brucella Broth (BB) media supplemented with 10% FBS (BB10), the condition 125 usually used for *H. pylori* liquid growth, no biofilm was detected. We therefore explored lower 126 amounts of serum, as these have been reported elsewhere to promote adhesion of *H. pylori* strain 127 26695 (28) and biofilm formation of reference H. pylori strain ATCC 43629 and clinical strains 128 H. pylori 9/10 (27). While only a slight biofilm was observed when H. pylori SS1 strain was 129 grown with BB supplemented with 6% FBS, a pronounced biofilm (p < 0.01) was detected in BB 130 supplemented with 2% FBS (BB2) (Fig. 1A). The *H. pylori* growth rate was slightly reduced in 131 BB2 compared with BB10, which suggests that the increase of biofilm formation was not due to 132 increased growth (data not shown). HAMs F12 similarly only supported biofilm formation with 133 low FBS percentages (Fig. 1B). Further experiments identified that three days of growth in BB2 134 led to the greatest amount of biofilm (Fig. 1C). These results thus suggest that BB media 135 supplemented with 2% serum and growth for three days is an optimal condition for studying H. 136 pylori SS1 biofilm formation.

137

138 **Biofilm characterization.** To confirm and extend the results obtained with the crystal violet 139 biofilm assay, biofilms of *H. pylori* SS1 were visualized by confocal laser scanning microscopy 140 (CLSM) and staining with FilmTracer[™] FM[®]1–43, a dye that fluoresces once inserted into the 141 cell membrane. After three days of growth in BB2, we observed a thick bacterial biomass that 142 non-homogeneously covered the surface, consistent with a well-developed biofilm (Fig. 2). 143 Using z-stack images, the thickness of the H. pylori SS1 biofilm was determined to be 11.64 \pm 144 2.63 µm³/µm (Supplementary Movie 1). As expected, *H. pylori* SS1 grown in BB10 did not form 145 a biofilm that could be visualized with CLSM (data not shown).

To further characterize the EPS that composed the SS1 biofilm matrix, BOBO-3 and FilmTracer SYPRO Ruby biofilm matrix stains were used to stain extracellular DNA (eDNA) and extracellular proteins, respectively as described previously (29, 30). Both of these molecules extensively stained the biofilm EPS, consistent with the idea that the *H. pylori* SS1 biofilm matrix contains significant amount of eDNA and extracellular proteins (Fig. 2B and C). Because these same molecules have been detected in other *H. pylori* strains, these results suggest that the *H. pylori* EPS is typically composed of eDNA and proteins (24, 31).

We also performed live-dead staining with the FilmTracer LIVE/DEAD biofilm viability kit, to define whether the biofilm cells were alive or dead. This approach revealed a subpopulation of dead or damaged cells, stained red, that appear to be homogeneously distributed within the live biofilm cells, which stained green (Fig. 2D-F). This result suggests that the *H. pylori* biofilm contains both live and dead cells.

To determine the importance of extracellular proteins and eDNA in the biofilm matrix of *H. pylori* SS1, we employed enzymatic treatment using DNAse I and proteinase K. Proteinase K treatment significantly dispersed pre-formed biofilms (P < 0.01) (Fig. 3). *H. pylori* pre-formed

biofilms were, however, resistant to DNase treatments. These data suggest that DNA may play
only a minor role in the biofilm matrix, however, extracellular proteins likely play an important
role in the biofilm architecture of *H. pylori*, as has been reported in other *H. pylori* strains (24,
31). These results suggest that many *H. pylori* strains, including SS1, use a protein-based biofilm
matrix.

166

167 Transcriptomic profiling of biofilm versus planktonic cells. To gain insight into the genes 168 involved in *H. pylori* biofilm growth, we performed a transcript profiling experiment using 169 RNA-seq. For this experiment, we grew H. pylori SS1 in BB2 in six well plates for three-days, 170 and collected the free-floating planktonic cells and the bottom-attached biofilm ones from the 171 same wells. We collected RNA from three biological replicates grown on two separate days. A 172 total of 10-20 million reads per sample was generated by RNA-seq. These reads were then 173 mapped to *H. pylori* SS1 complete reference genome (32), and revealed a clear clustering of the 174 biofilm-grown cells in a distinct population compared to the planktonic ones (Fig. 4A). This 175 transcriptomic analysis showed that 122 of 1491 genes (8.18%) were significantly differentially 176 expressed (p < 0.01 and log₂-fold change >1 or <-1) between *H. pylori* biofilm and planktonic 177 populations (Fig. 4B and Fig. 5). 61 genes were significantly upregulated in biofilm cells 178 compared to their planktonic counterparts, while another 61 were significantly upregulated in 179 planktonic cells (Table 2 and 3). To validate the results obtained by this RNA-seq, the relative 180 abundance of selected RNA transcripts was quantified by quantitative RT-PCR (qRT-PCR). 181 Using this approach, we detected the same gene expression trend between qRT-PCR and RNA-182 seq, thus validating our results (Fig. 6). Below we discuss the most prominent of these genes, and 183 what they suggest about the *H. pylori* biofilm growth state.

Our data suggest that biofilm cells may be less metabolically active than planktonic cells, based on the decreased expression of several genes involved in translation and ribosomal structure (Fig. 5, Table 3). Similarly, genes involved in metabolism, biosynthesis of cofactors, and urease were also down-regulated (Fig. 5, Table 3).

188 We found evidence that biofilms cells experience a stressful environment. Indeed, genes 189 coding for several stress response-related genes such as hrcA, hspR, crdR, recR and pgdA were 190 up-regulated in biofilm cells (Table 2). The *hspR* and *hrcA* genes code for transcriptional 191 repressor proteins belonging to the heat shock protein family, and were both up-regulated in 192 biofilm cells. The *crdR* gene, which encodes a copper-related transcriptional response regulator 193 was also up-regulated in *H. pylori* biofilm cells. Several transcripts encoding for oxidative stress 194 resistance were similarly up-regulated in biofilm cells. These included *recR*, a gene encoding for 195 a DNA recombination protein, as well as *pgdA* which encodes for a peptidoglycan deacetylase. 196 These have both been previously associated with oxidative stress in *H. pylori* (33).

We found that the ATP-dependent protease HslV gene was among the most downregulated genes in *H. pylori* biofilm (Table 3). Although this protein has not yet been studied in the context of *H. pylori* biofilms, the orthologous *E. coli* HslV protease has been previously associated with biofilm dispersal (34).

Our data suggest that biofilm cells may be less virulent in some ways, but more in others. Transcripts coding for some *H. pylori* virulence, colonization or immunogenic factors were low in biofilm cells, including the UreA subunit of urease, the GroEL chaperone, and the HcpC cysteine rich protein. These have each been shown to play roles in colonization or promoting inflammatory gene expression (35-37). On the other hand, only three genes encoded within the cytotoxin-associated gene pathogenicity island (*cag*PAI) (38, 39) *cagL*, *cagW* and *cagE* were

significantly highly expressed in biofilm cells of *H. pylori*. These genes are in separate operons
(38), and encode for cag pathogenicity island protein CagL/Cag18, an integrin binding protein at
the cag pilus tip, cag pathogenicity island protein CagW/Cag10 and type IV secretion system
protein CagE/virB4, both part of the inner membrane protein transfer complex (39).

Many genes related to the cell envelope were up-regulated in biofilm cells (Fig. 5). Indeed, genes coding for proteins involved in lipopolysaccharide synthesis such as *lpxB*, which encodes a lipid-A disaccharide synthase, and *lptB*, which encodes a lipopolysaccharide export system ATPase, were up-regulated in biofilm cells (Table 2). Numerous transcripts encoding cytoplasmic and outer membrane proteins were also elevated in biofilm cells (i.e. *homC*, *homD* and HPYLSS1_00450) (Table 2).

Interestingly, the majority of the upregulated cell envelope genes in biofilm cells encoded for flagellar structure and biosynthesis proteins such as flgL, flgK, fliD and flgE, which encode for flagellar hook-associated proteins (Table 2). Two known or putative flagellin genes, flaB and flaG were also upregulated in the biofilms (Table 2). These data suggested the intriguing idea that flagella might play a role in the *H. pylori* biofilm.

222

Flagella are present and play a structural role in H. pylori biofilms. The transcriptomic data above suggested that flagellar components are upregulated in the biofilm cells, so we used SEM to gain insights into the biofilm architecture of *H. pylori*. This analysis demonstrated three-dimensional structures composed of bacterial cells adherent to one another and to the surface (Fig. 7A). Biofilms contained mainly coccoid cells along with some rod-shaped cells (Fig. 7A), as described previously for *H. pylori* biofilms (20-23). When compared to planktonic

populations, the proportion of both morphologies were similar at ~ 80% coccoid cells (data notshown).

231 Interestingly, extensive networks of bundles of filaments were visible in the biofilms. 232 In some cases, these appeared to be connected to the bacterial pole, as would be expected for 233 flagella (Fig. 7A, arrowheads). We measured the dimensions of the filaments to see if they were 234 consistent in size with flagella. The width and the length measured at 20 to 30nm and 3 to $4\mu m$, 235 respectively, and were in agreement with those reported previously for *H. pylori* flagella (40). 236 This data, especially when combined with transcriptomics, suggested these structures could be 237 flagella. We therefore analyzed a mutant strain that lacks a key component of the flagellar basal 238 body, FliM, and is aflagellated (41). SEM analysis of the $\Delta fliM$ mutant showed a complete loss 239 of flagella (Fig. 7A). This mutant displayed significantly less biofilm biomass (Fig. 7B), but we 240 were able to find few microcolonies. Within these microcolonies, the filaments were completely 241 lacking (Fig. 7A). These results suggest that these filaments are flagella, and furthermore that 242 flagella and/or motility are important for biofilm formation.

To further dissect the roles of motility and flagella in biofilm formation, we analyzed biofilm formation in a non-motile but flagellated strain created by disruption of the motor protein MotB. As reported previously, this mutant still expresses flagella (Fig. 7A). Biofilm formation, however, was severely impaired compared to the wild-type strain, which suggest that a lack of motility might contribute to the biofilm defect. However, $\Delta motB$ produced significantly more biofilm than $\Delta fliM$ mutant suggesting that the flagella structure even in absence of motility also contributes to biofilm formation in *H. pylori*.

To examine whether other strains of *H. pylori* similarly use flagella in biofilms, we imaged the biofilm of *H. pylori* strain G27 and similar flagellar mutants as used above. Wild-

- type *H. pylori* G27 biofilm cells also contained filaments consistent with flagella (Fig. 8A). As
- with strain SS1, mutants lacking flagella (*flgS or fliA*) formed very weak biofilms, while strains
- that had flagella but no motility (*motB*) retained partial biofilm formation (Fig. 8B).
- 255 Taken together, these data suggest that flagella are produced by *H. pylori* when in a
- biofilm, and appear to play roles in addition to simple motility, promoting biofilm integrity by
- 257 holding cells together and to the surface,

259 **DISCUSSION**

260

261 In this report, we present the first transcriptomics characterization of the H. pylori 262 biofilm. This study demonstrated clearly distinct expression profiles between planktonic and 263 biofilm cells. The biofilm cells were characterized by low metabolic activity and triggering of 264 several stress responses. Among the upregulated genes in the biofilm cells, we found several 265 genes associated with cell membrane proteins, outer membrane proteins, stress response, and 266 surprisingly, genes related to the flagellar apparatus. SEM analysis confirmed that flagella are 267 present in a mature *H. pylori* biofilm, and appear to play a role in maintaining solid biofilm 268 structures. This result was somewhat surprising, as typically flagella are proposed to be turned 269 off during the sessile biofilm growth mode (42-44). Recent work however, discussed below, has 270 suggested that flagella in E. coli biofilms may play a structural role. Our studies with H. pylori 271 thus build on an emerging theme that flagella are not always turned off in mature biofilms, and 272 indeed may play important functions in biofilm structure

273 To gain insights into the mechanisms behind the biofilm formation in *H. pylori*, we used 274 RNA sequencing and carried out a comparative transcriptomic analysis between biofilm cells 275 and those in the planktonic state. Using this approach, we observed that 8.18% of genes were 276 significantly differentially expressed between biofilm and planktonic cells, similar to that 277 reported in other bacterial systems (43, 45, 46). In our experimental design, we compared a static 278 biofilm mode of growth, where attached cells adhered to the bottom of the wells, with planktonic 279 non-attached cells in the same wells. This approach was used to maintain the same growth 280 conditions as much as possible between biofilm and planktonic samples, and likely contributed 281 to the relatively small number of differentially expressed genes. However, since biofilm 282 formation is a dynamic process with frequent switching between planktonic to biofilm modes

occurring frequently, we likely have some contamination between the biofilm and planktonic populations. Therefore, our method may have missed some genes that are expressed in either population.

286 One of the findings from our transcriptomic analysis was that several flagellar protein 287 transcripts were significantly elevated in the biofilm. Notably, these were not for the entire 288 flagellum, but instead specific genes encoding the rod, hook, and filament. Specifically, we saw 289 biofilm-cell overexpression of genes encoding for the FlgB rod protein, the FlgE flagellar hook 290 protein, the FlgK and FlgL hook-filament junction proteins, the FliK hook length control protein 291 and two flagellins (FlaB and the putative flagellin encoded by FlaG). Notably absent was the 292 gene for the major flagellin FlaA, and genes for the motor and stator. We also saw the up-293 regulation of *flgM* which encodes an anti-sigma factor that interacts with flagellar sigma factor 294 FliA, and therefore would be expected to decreased expression of *flaA* (47).

295 Historically, flagella have been typically viewed as important only for initial biofilm 296 attachment and later cell dispersion (44, 48). In fact, it has often been suggested that genes 297 encoding for flagella are turned off in mature biofilms (42-44). However, other reports have 298 shown that some microbes express flagella during all stages of biofilm development and not only 299 during the attachment and dispersion processes (49, 50). In E. coli, several flagellar-biosynthesis 300 genes were induced in mature biofilms, and around 20 flagellar genes were regulated throughout 301 all stages of biofilm development and not simply turned off (49). E. coli flagella were proposed 302 to have a structural role along with other matrix components (i.e. eDNA and extracellular 303 proteins), acting to cement and hold cells together and to the surface (50, 51). Our data 304 furthermore showed that aflagellated mutants are poor biofilm formers, supporting that these 305 filaments could play a structural role. Taken together, these findings suggest that flagella of H.

306 *pylori* may play a structural role during biofilm formation to help bacteria attach to each other 307 and to surfaces.

308 Interestingly, we found that the HspR and HrcA transcriptional repressor proteins are up-309 regulated in biofilm cells. These proteins had previously been shown to positively correlate with 310 flagella expression (52), providing candidate regulatory proteins that function in biofilm cells. 311 HspR and HrcA belong to the heat shock protein family, and have been shown to respond to heat 312 shock temperature conditions although the nature of their "true" signal is not yet clear (52, 53). A 313 previous comparative transcriptomic analysis of wild-type H. pylori along with $\Delta hspR$, $\Delta hrcA$, 314 and double mutants revealed a set of 14 genes that were negatively regulated and 29 genes that 315 were positively regulated by these transcriptional regulators (52). The regulated genes include 316 those for chaperones, urease enzyme activity, adhesion to epithelial cells and flagella. 317 Interestingly, among the 29 positively regulated genes, nearly half (14) encoded for flagellar 318 genes, including the *flgM*, *flaG*, *fliD*, *flgK*, *flgB*, *flgE* and *fliK* transcripts we identified here. 319 Thus, our data suggest that biofilm conditions activate expression of HrcA and HspR, which in 320 turn upregulate a subset of flagellar genes.

321 Experiments suggest that HrcA and HspR regulators do not directly regulate the flagellar 322 genes (52). However, they do directly repress expression from several promoters including those 323 upstream of the groESL, hrcA-grpE-dnaK, and cbpA-hspR-hp1026 operons. These gene products 324 encode the major chaperones of *H. pylori* (52-54). Heat shock conditions relieve the repression, 325 and allow expression of these operons. Consistent with elevated expression of HspR and HrcA, 326 we found the genes coding for the heat shock protein GroEL to be downregulated in biofilm. Our 327 data suggest that some yet-to-be determined conditions occurring during biofilm formation 328 trigger the expression of HspR and HcrA regulators.

329 Other genes associated with stress responses were also up-regulated in biofilm cells 330 including the pgdA and recR genes. These genes encode for a peptidoglycan deacetylase and 331 DNA recombination protein, respectively. RecR has been shown to be involved in repairing in 332 DNA double strand breaks induced by oxidative stress (55) and the recR mutant was highly 333 sensitive to DNA damaging agents, oxidative stress and had a reduced ability to colonize mouse 334 stomachs (55). pgdA has been reported to be highly induced by oxidative stress (33, 56). Up-335 regulation of oxidative stress genes has previously been reported in biofilm cells of other 336 organisms including E. coli (57), Pseudomonas aeruginosa (42), Neisseria gonorrhoeae (58) and 337 Clostridium perfringens (48).

As reported for other microorganisms, *H. pylori* biofilm cells have altered metabolism, typically thought to be associated with the restricted availability of nutrients (48, 59). *H. pylori* biofilm cells were characterized by a downregulation of the expression of multiple genes involved in metabolism and translation including, atpC, atpE, nifU and several ribosomal protein genes. This low metabolism phenotype seems not be related simply to the presence of coccoid cells, but rather to the microenvironment generated during biofilm formation since the proportion of rods and coccoid forms did not differ between planktonic and biofilm populations.

H. pylori biofilm cells may also actively block the translational machinery, as suggested by the up-regulation of the gene encoding RsfS, a ribosomal silencing factor. This protein was previously described in *E. coli* and *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* to slow or block the translation machinery during stationary phase and/or nutrition-deficiency stress (60). It interacts with the 50S large ribosomal subunit, prevents its association with the 30 S ribosomal submit, and thus blocks formation of functional ribosomes (60). Whether it functions similarly in *H. pylori* remains to be determined.

These observations that biofilm cells may have decreased translation are relevant because at least two of the main antibiotics used to treat *H. pylori* infection, clarithromycin and tetracycline, inhibit the 50S and 30S ribosomal subunits, respectively. Thus, these antibiotics may have less impact on biofilm cells. In fact, recent *in vitro* studies have shown that clarithromycin is 4 to 16-fold less effective on *H. pylori* biofilm cells as compared to planktonic ones (26, 61).

358

359 Taken together, our study has shown that H. pylori biofilm cells display a distinct 360 transcriptomic profile compared to their planktonic counterparts. Lower metabolism and stress 361 responses, likely associated to the microenvironment generated in the *H. pylori* biofilm, could be 362 determinants of antimicrobial tolerance and involved in the persistence and survival of H. pylori. 363 However, the up-regulated and down-regulated genes identified in this study are not specific for 364 biofilm cells, and stress response genes have been previously observed in other conditions when 365 both planktonic or biofilm cells were exposed to various stresses. Therefore, our data do not 366 support the existence of a biofilm-specific genetic program. Additionally, our data show that 367 flagella filaments are upregulated in biofilm cells and form an integral part of the biofilm matrix. 368 Indeed, H. pylori without flagella form weak biofilms. These results thus contribute to correcting 369 the idea that flagella are only involved during the first and last steps of biofilm formation, and 370 instead support their importance throughout the biofilm process.

371 MATERIALS AND METHODS

372

373 Bacterial strain and growth conditions. H. pylori Sydney strain 1 (SS1) (62) and all other H. 374 pylori strains used in this study are listed in Table.1. Strains were grown on Columbia Horse 375 Blood Agar (CHBA), containing: 0.2%-β-cyclodextrin, 10µg/ml vancomycin, 5µg/ml of 376 cefsulodin, 2.5 U/ml polymyxin B, 5µg/ml trimethoprim, and 8µg/ml amphotericin B (all 377 chemicals from Thermo Fisher or Gold Biotech). Cultures were grown under micro-aerobic 378 conditions (5% O₂ and 10% CO₂) at 37°C. For liquid culture and biofilm assay, H. pylori was 379 grown in Brucella broth (Difco) containing 10% heat inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS) 380 (BB10; Gibco/BRL) with constant shaking under microaerobic conditions. For biofilm 381 formation, several conditions were tested including Brucella broth containing different 382 percentage of FBS (BB2, BB6 and BB10), and HAM's F-12 (PAA Laboratories GmbH, 383 Pasching, Austria) containing 10% or 2% of FBS (HAMS10 and HAMS2).

384

385 **Biofilm assays.** Biofilm formation assays were carried as described previously, with slight 386 modification (27). H. pylori SS1 was grown overnight in BB10 as above, diluted to and OD600 387 of 0.15 with fresh BB10, BB2, BB6 or HAMS media as desired, and then used to fill triplicate 388 wells of a sterile 96-well polystyrene microtiter plate (Costar, 3596). Following static incubation 389 of 1, 2, 3 or 5 days under micro aerobic conditions, culture medium was removed by aspiration 390 and the plate was washed twice using PBS. The wells were then filled with 200µL of crystal 391 violet (0.1 % wt/vol), and the plate was incubated for 2 min at room temperature. After removal 392 of the crystal violet solution by aspiration, the plate was washed twice with PBS and dried for 20

393 min at room temperature. To visualize biofilms, 200 μ L of ethanol (70% vol/vol) was added to 394 the wells and the absorbance at 590 nm was measured.

395

396 **Biofilm dispersion assays.** To evaluated the composition of SS1 biofilm matrix, we assessed the 397 response of preformed biofilms to different enzymatic treatment. DNAse I and proteinase K 398 (both from Sigma-Aldrich) were used to target, extracellular DNA and extracellular proteins, 399 respectively. Biofilms were grown as described above and after three-days of growth, the old 400 media were replaced by fresh media containing different concentrations of DNase I (380µg/ml to 401 95µg/ml) or proteinase K (200µg/ml to 50 µg/ml). The cells were then incubated for a further 24 402 hours. Control wells were exposed to media without enzyme. After treatments, the biofilm was 403 stained with crystal violet as described above. Results are presented a percentage of the untreated 404 control.

405

406 Confocal laser scanning microscopy. Biofilms of H. pylori SS1 were prepared as described 407 above using BB2, however, for confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM), µ-Slide 8-408 well glass bottom chamber slides (ibidi, Germany) were used instead of 96-well microtiter 409 plates. Three day-old biofilms were stained with FilmTracer[™] FM[®]1–43 (Invitrogen), BOBO-3 410 (Invitrogen), Filmtracer SYPRO Ruby biofilm matrix stain (Invitrogen), or FilmTracer 411 LIVE/DEAD biofilm viability kit (Invitrogen) according to the manufacture's instructions. 412 Stained biofilms were visualized by CLSM with an LSM 5 Pascal laser-scanning microscope 413 (Zeiss) and images were acquired using Imaris software (Bitplane). Biomass analysis of biofilm 414 was carried using FM[®]1–43 stained z-stack images (0.1µm thickness) obtained by CLSM from randomly selected areas. The biomass of biofilms was determined using COMSTAT (63). 415

416 **RNA extraction and library construction.** Biofilms of *H. pylori* SS1 were grown in 6-well plates 417 (Costar) in BB2 as above. After 3 days of incubation, media containing non-attached planktonic 418 bacteria (the planktonic fraction) was removed by pipetting, the cells were harvested by 419 centrifugation and washed twice with PBS. The attached bacteria, representing the biofilm 420 fraction, were washed twice with PBS to remove any remaining planktonic cells. Attached cells 421 were scrapped off the plate using cell scraper. Both planktonic and biofilm fractions were subject 422 to total RNA extraction using Trizol Max bacterial enhancement kit (Ambion, Life Technology, 423 Carlsbad, CA, USA) as described by the manufacturer. RNA was further purified and 424 concentrated using an RNAeasy Kit (Qiagen). rRNA was removed using the RiboZero magnetic kit (Illumina). Sequencing libraries were generated using NEBNext UltraTM Directional RNA 425 426 library Prep Kit for Illumina (NEB, USA). cDNA library quality and amount was verified using 427 Agilent Bioanalyzer 2100 system (Agilent technologies, CA, USA) and then sequenced using 428 Illumina NextSeq Mid-Output (UC Davis Genome Center).

429

430 *Transcriptomic analysis.* RNA-seq data were analyzed using CLC Genomics Workbench 431 (Version 11.0, CLC Bio, Boston, MA, USA). After adapters were trimmed, forward and reverse 432 sequenced reads generated for each growth state (biofilm vs planktonic; three biological 433 replicates for each condition) were mapped against the SS1 reference genome (32) to quantify 434 gene expression levels for each experimental condition. The expression value was measured in 435 Reads per Kilobase Per Million Mapped Reads (RPKM). Genes were considered as differentially 436 expressed when the log2 (fold change) was above 1 and the *P*-value was lower than 0.05.

437

438 Quantitative PCR. To validate the RNA-seq data, we performed qPCR to quantify the 439 transcription of four differentially expressed genes (two up-regulated genes and two down-440 regulated genes). The Fold change in gene expression was calculated after normalization of each 441 gene with the constitutively expressed gene gapB (64). Primers used for this experiment are 442 listed 5'-3' below: gapB forward: GCCTCTTGCACGACTAACGC; gapB reverse: 443 CTTTGCTCACGCCGGTGCTT. flgL forward: CAGGCAGCTCATGGATGCGA; flgL reverse: 444 CGCTGTGCAAGGCGTTTTGA; hspR forward: TAGGCGTGCACCCTCAAACC; hspR 445 reverse: CGCCCGCTAGATTAACCCCC; hcpC forward: GGGTTTTGTGCTTGGGTGCG; 446 hcpC TTCCACCCCTGCCCTTGAT; hslV forward: reverse: 447 GATTTGCCGGAAGCACTGCG; hslV reverse: ATCATCGCTTCCAGTCGGCG

448

449 Construction of H. pylori mutants.

The SS1 Δ*fliM* mutant was created by natural transformation of SS1 wild type with plasmid pBS-fliM::catmut (40) which replaces most of the fliM gene, corresponding to amino acids 1-105, with cat. The G27 *motB* mutant was created by natural transformation of G27 wild type with plasmid pKO114K and selection for kanamycin resistance. pKO114K was made as described for pKO114i (65), but instead of insertion of a aphA3-sacB allele, only an aphA3 allele was inserted. This allele inserts the aphA3 at the position corresponding to amino acid 113 of 257.

457 *Scanning electron microscopy. H. pylori* biofilms were grown on glass coverslips (12mm, 458 Chemgalss, life Sciences, Vineland, NJ) by dispersing 4 mL of a culture diluted to OD 0.15 in 459 BB2 into wells of a 6-well plate (Costar). The plate was incubated as described above. After 460 three days of growth, biofilms formed on the surface of the coverslips and planktonic cells were 461 washed twice with PBS and fixed with 2.5% glutaraldehyde (wt/vol) for 1 hour at room

- 462 temperature. Samples were then dehydrated with graded ethanol series, critically point dried,
- 463 sputtered with ~20 nm of gold (Hammer IV, Technics Inc, Anaheim, CA) and imaged in
- 464 an FEI Quanta 3D Dualbeam SEM operating at 5 kV and 6.7 pA.
- 465
- 466 Statistical analysis. Biofilms data were analyzed with GraphPad Prism (version 7.0) software
- 467 (GraphPad Inc., San Diego, CA) using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by
- 468 Dunnett's multiple-comparison test.
- 469

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470

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485 FIGURES LEGENDS

486

487 FIG 1. H. pylori SS1 forms robust biofilms after 3 days of growth in BB2. H. pylori strain 488 SS1 was grown in the indicated media and biofilm formation was assessed by crystal violet 489 absorbance at 595nm. (A) *H. pylori* SS1 was grown for 3 days in BB media supplemented with 490 different concentration of FBS (BB10: 10%, BB6: 6% and BB2: 2%). (B) H. pylori SS1 was 491 grown for 3 days in BB media or HAMS F12 supplemented with 10% or 2% of FBS. (C) H. 492 pylori SS1 was grown in BB media supplemented with 2% FBS and biofilm formation was 493 evaluated at different time points. Experiments were performed three independent times with at 494 least 6 technical replicates for each. Statistical analysis was performed using ANOVA (*, P <495 0.05 and **, *P* < 0.01).

496

497 **FIG 2.** Confocal scanning laser microscopy (CSLM) images of *H. pylori* SS1 biofilm. Shown 498 are representative CSLM images of 3 day-old SS1 biofilms grown in BB2 and stained with (A) 499 FM 1-43 to stain total bacterial cells; (B) SYPRO RUBY to stain extracellular proteins, (C) 500 BOBO-3 to stain extracellular DNA and (D-F) Live-Dead staining with live cells represented by 501 the green-fluorescent SYTO 9, and dead/damaged cells by the red-fluorescent propidium. Scale 502 bar = $30 \mu m$

503

FIG 3. Effect of enzymatic treatments on pre-formed biofilms. *H. pylori* SS1 was allowed to form biofilms for three days in BB2. The media was then removed and replaced with either fresh media or media containing DNase I or proteinase K. Cells were re-incubated for 24 hours, and then analyzed for remaining biofilm using the crystal violet assay. Data shown here represent the percentage of remaining of biofilm compared to the untreated control. Experiments were

509 performed three times independently with at least 8 technical replicates for each. Statistical 510 analysis was performed using ANOVA *, P < 0.01 compared to the untreated control.

511

512 FIG 4. Biofilm-grown cells and planktonic cells show distinct transcriptional profiles. (A) 513 principal component analysis (PCA) of gene expression obtained by RNA-seq between biofilm 514 (n = 3) and planktonic (n = 3) populations. (B) Volcano plot of gene expression data. The y-axis is 515 the negative log10 of P-values (a higher value indicates greater significance) and the x-axis is 516 log2 fold change in difference in abundance between two population (positive values represent 517 the up-regulated genes in biofilm and negative values represent down-regulated genes). The 518 dashed red line shows where P = 0.01, with points above the line having P < 0.01 and points 519 below the line having P > 0.01.

520

521 FIG 5. Functional classification of genes differentially expression in *H. pylori* SS1 biofilm.

522 Black and grey bars represent up-regulated and down-regulated genes, respectively that were 523 significantly differentially expressed (p< 0.01 and log₂-fold change >1 or <-1) between *H. pylori* 524 biofilm and planktonic populations

525

FIG 6. qPCR validation of the transcription of selected differentially expressed genes. The data indicate the fold-change expression of genes in *H. pylori* biofilm cells compared to planktonic cells. Fold-change in gene expressions were calculated after normalization of each gene with the constitutively expressed gene control *gapB*. Bars represent the mean and the error bars the standard error of the mean, Black and grey bars represent qPCR and RNA-seq results, respectively. Statistical analyses were performed using $2^{-\Delta\Delta}CT$ values, and all results with an asterisk were statistically significant (*P* < 0.01).

533

534 FIG 7. Flagella play integral roles in H. pylori biofilms. (A) Scanning electron microscope 535 (SEM) images of biofilms formed by *H. pylori* wild-type SS1 (SS1 WT), isogenic non-motile but 536 flagellated mutant $\Delta motB$ (SS1 $\Delta motB$), and isogenic aflagellated mutant $\Delta fliM$ (SS1 $\Delta fliM$). 537 Arrows flagella. (B) Quantification of biofilm formation by H. pylori SS1 WT, $\Delta motB$ and 538 $\Delta fliM$. Strains were grown in BB2 media for three days, followed by biofilm evaluation using the 539 crystal violet assay. Experiments were performed three times independently with 6-9 technical 540 replicates for each. Statistical analysis was performed using ANOVA (**, P < 0.01 and *, P < 0.01541 0.05).

542

Fig 8. *H. pylori* G27 biofilm contain structurally important flagella. (A) Scanning electron microscope (SEM) images of wild type G27 *H. pylori* biofilms. Arrows indicate flagella. (B) Quantification of biofilm formation by *H. pylori* G27 wild type (WT), non-motile flagellated *motB*, non-motile mutant *fliA* that is reported to have either truncated flagella or no flagella, and the aflagellated and non-motile mutant *flgS*. Biofilms were evaluated using the crystal violet assay. Experiments were performed 2 times independently with at least 6 technical replicates for each. Statistical analysis was performed using ANOVA (**, *P* < 0.01 and *, *P* < 0.05).

550

551 Supplementary Movie 1. Three-dimensional (3D) view of *H. pylori* biofilm grown for 3

552 **days.** Bacteria were stained with FilmTracer[™] FM[®]1–43 and observed by CLSM.

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Table 1. Strains used in this study.

<i>H. pylori</i> strain	KO Strain number	Description/genotype	Reference/source
SS1 WT		Wild-type strain	(62)/ J. O'Rourke
SS1 ДfliM	KO1064	∆fliM::cat	This study (allele published in (41))
SS1 ∆motB	KO536	ΔmotB2	(65)
G27 WT		Wild-type strain	(66)/ N. Salama, Fred Hutchison Cancer
			Research Center, Seattle
G27 motB	KO493	motB::aphA3	This study
G27 flgS	KO688	flgS::TnCat	(67)
G27 fliA	KO689	fliA::TnCat	(67)

Table 2. Up-regulated gene in *H. pylori* SS1 biofilm (cutoff ratio ≥ 1 log2 fold change and p-value <0.05) using RNA-seq

analysis, grouped by functional role categories. Fold change represents the difference in gene expression between biofilm (n = 3)748 and planktonic (n = 3) populations.

Locus Name	Putative identification	Fold Change
Cell envelope		
flgL (HPYLSS1_00284)	Flagellar hook-associated protein 3	7.64
flgK (HPYLSS1_01062)	flagellar hook-associated protein 1	6.16
flgM (HPYLSS1_01066)	Anti-sigma-28 factor	3.94
flaG (HPYLSS1_00586)	Polar flagellin G	3.93
flaB (HPYLSS1_00110)	Flagellin B	3.52
flgE1 (HPYLSS1_00464)	Flagellar hook protein 1	3.07
flgB (HPYLSS1_01503)	Flagellar basal body rod protein	2.37
fliL (HPYLSS1_00526)	Flagellar protein of unknown function	2.25
flik (HPYLSS1_00653)	Flagellar hook-length control protein	2.14
fliD (HPYLSS1_00585)	Flagellar hook-associated protein 2	2
<i>lpxB</i> (HPYLSS1_00467)	Lipid-A-disaccharide synthase	3.06
lptB (HPYLSS1_00622)	Lipopolysaccharide export system ATP-binding	2.54
<i>mltD</i> (HPYLSS1_01517)	Membrane-bound lytic murein transglycosylase D precursor	2
pgdA (HPYLSS1_00299)	Peptidoglycan deacetylase	2.1
HPYLSS1_00450	Membrane protein	3.78
HPYLSS1_01378	Outer membrane protein homD	3.26
HPYLSS1_01113	Putative outer membrane protein	2.91
HPYLSS1_01021	Outer membrane protein <i>homC</i>	2.69
HPYLSS1_01469	Putative outer membrane protein	2.52
Cellular process		

cagE (HPYLSS1_00705)	Type IV secretion system protein virB4/DNA transfer	2.46
cagW (HPYLSS1_00718)	CAG pathogenicity island protein CagW (cag10)	2.31
cagL (HPYLSS1_00710)	CAG pathogenicity island protein CagL (cag18)	2.02
<i>recR</i> (HPYLSS1_00636)	Recombination protein RecR	3.7
HPYLSS1_00410	DNA polymerase I	2.08
HPYLSS1_01332	CMP-N-acetylneuraminate-beta-galactosamide-	2.2
Regulatory functions		
hrcA (HPYLSS1_00106)	Heat-inducible transcription repressor HrcA	4.84
hspR (HPYLSS1_00407)	Putative heat shock protein HspR	2.09
crdR (HPYLSS1_01312)	Two component response regulator CrdR	2.03
rsfS (HPYLSS1_01340)	Ribosomal silencing factor S	2.16
Franslation		
ansA (HPYLSS1_00615)	Putative L-asparaginase	2.11
cbpA (HPYLSS1_00408)	Curved DNA-binding protein	2.19
HPYLSS1_00252	Chaperone protein ClpB	2.7
HPYLSS1_01332	CMP-N-acetylneuraminate-beta-galactosamide	2.2
Amino acid biosynthesis		
porC (HPYLSS1_01050)	Pyruvate synthase subunit PorC	2.02
Fatty acid and phospholipid met	abolism	
acpS (HPYLSS1_00527)	Holo-[acyl-carrier-protein] synthase	2.89
fenF (HPYLSS1_00085)	Malonyl CoA-acyl carrier protein transacylase	2.26
Biosynthetic of cofactors, prosthe	etic groups and carriers	
<i>thiE</i> (HPYLSS1_00492)	Thiamine-phosphate synthase	4.13
salL (HPYLSS1_00914)	Adenosyl-chloride synthase	2.87
DNA restriction, modification, re	ecombination, and repair	

HPYLSS1_00696	Restriction endonuclease	2.19
Transport and binding proteins		
metI (HPYLSS1_01522)	D-methionine transport system permease protein	2.18
HPYLSS1_00805	Putative ABC transporter ATP-binding protein	2.02
Energy metabolism		
ansA (HPYLSS1_00615)	Putative L-asparaginase	2.11
HPYLSS1_00772	Pyrroloquinoline quinone biosynthesis protein	7.5
Hypothetical proteins		
HPYLSS1_00605	hypothetical protein/Putative GTPase dynamin	17.63
HPYLSS1_00355	Hypothetical protein	7.82
HPYLSS1_01063	Hypothetical protein	7.58
HPYLSS1_00488	Hypothetical protein	5.65
HPYLSS1_01091	Hypothetical protein	5.34
HPYLSS1_00197	Hypothetical protein	4.4
HPYLSS1_00109	Hypothetical protein	4.25
HPYLSS1 00933	Hypothetical protein	3.91
HPYLSS1_01183	Hypothetical protein	3.37
HPYLSS1_00583	Hypothetical protein	3.07
HPYLSS1 00404	Hypothetical protein	2.85
HPYLSS1_01474	Hypothetical protein	2.77
HPYLSS1 00984	Hypothetical protein	2.56
HPYLSS1_01009	Hypothetical protein	2.26
HPYLSS1_01271	Hypothetical protein	2.05
HPYLSS1_00558	Hypothetical protein	2.04
HPYLSS1_01019	Hypothetical protein	2.03
HPYLSS1_00777	Hypothetical protein	2.01
HPYLSS1_00529	Hypothetical protein	2

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754

755 Table 3. Down-regulated genes in *H. pylori* SS1 biofilm (cutoff ratio \leq -1 log2 fold change and p-value <0.05) using RNA-seq 756 analysis, grouped by functional role categories.

757 758

Locus Name **Putative identification** Fold Change **Cell envelope** murB (HPYLSS1 01344) UDP-N-acetylenolpyruvoylglucosamine reductase -2.52 fliM (HPYLSS1 00401) Flagellar motor switch protein FliM -2.25 fliI (HPYLSS1 01346) Flagellum-specific ATP synthase -2.16 *vohD-1* (HPYLSS1 00775) Inner membrane protein YohD -2.14**Cellular process** mreB (HPYLSS1_01316) Rod shape-determining protein MreB -2.95 urea (HPYLSS1 00068) Urease subunit alpha -2.28 60 kDa chaperonin -2.17 groEL (HPYLSS1_00013) Cysteine rich protein HcpC -3.78 hcpC (HPYLSS1 01039) cmmA (HPYLSS1 01486) Polymer-forming cytoskeletal family protein -2.58 typA (HPYLSS1_00442) GTP-binding protein -2.02 **Regulatory functions** hslV (HPYLSS1_00733) ATP-dependent protease subunit -3.33 HPYLSS1_00758 Putative TrmH family tRNA/rRNA -2.24 Translation rplR (HPYLSS1 01253) 50S ribosomal protein L18 -3.09 30S ribosomal protein S5 rpsE (HPYLSS1_01252) -3.06 30S ribosomal protein S7 -2.52 rpsG (HPYLSS1 01140) rpsC (HPYLSS1_01262) 30S ribosomal protein S3 -2.49 rpsK (HPYLSS1_01246) 30S ribosomal protein S11 -2.44 rplW (HPYLSS1_01266) 50S ribosomal protein L23 -2.29 50S ribosomal protein L14 rplN (HPYLSS1_01258) -2.29

-2.23

50S ribosomal protein L4

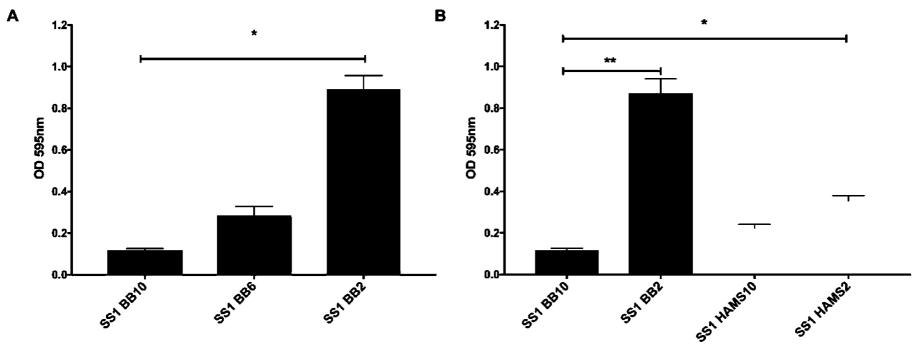
rplD (HPYLSS1 01267)

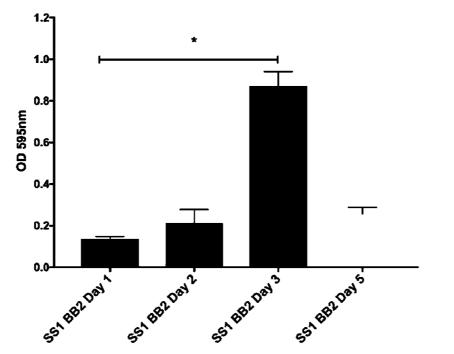
<i>rplB</i> (HPYLSS1_01265)	50S ribosomal protein L2	-2.22
rplF (HPYLSS1_01254)	50S ribosomal protein L6	-2.21
<i>rpmF</i> (HPYLSS1_00189)	50S ribosomal protein L32	-2.14
<i>rpsD</i> (HPYLSS1_01245)	30S ribosomal protein S4	-2.12
<i>rplS</i> (HPYLSS1_01093)	50S ribosomal protein L19	-2.09
<i>rplE</i> (HPYLSS1_01256)	50S ribosomal protein L5	-2.07
<i>rplV</i> (HPYLSS1_01263)	50S ribosomal protein L22	-2.02
<i>rpmG</i> (HPYLSS1_01151)	50S ribosomal protein L33	-2.02
<i>fusA</i> (HPYLSS1_01139)	Elongation factor G	-2.23
<i>tufa</i> (HPYLSS1_01152)	Elongation factor Tu	-2.14
yigZ (HPYLSS1_01411)	Elongation factor	-2.05
Amino acid biosynthesis		
<i>trpB</i> (HPYLSS1_01240)	Tryptophan synthase beta chain	-2.68
Fatty acid and phospholipid	l metabolism	
<i>acpP_2</i> (HPYLSS1_00944)	Acyl carrier protein	-2.96
<i>plsX</i> (HPYLSS1_00190)	Phosphate acyltransferase	-2.71
scoB (HPYLSS1_00895)	3-Oxoacid CoA-transferase, subunit B	-2.11
Biosynthetic of cofactors, pr	rosthetic groups and carriers	
birA (HPYLSS1_01084)	Bifunctional ligase/repressor BirA	-3.29
<i>ribH</i> (HPYLSS1_00002)	6,7-dimethyl-8-ribityllumazine synthase	-2.47
folK (HPYLSS1_00396)	2-amino-4-hydroxy-6-hydroxymethyldihydropteridine pyrophosphokinase	-2.13
ggt (HPYLSS1_01061)	Gamma-glutamyl transpeptidase	-2.06
DNA restriction, modification	on, recombination, and repair	
HPYLSS1_00145	Recombinase A	-2.46
Energy metabolism		
<i>atpC</i> (HPYLSS1_01075)	ATP synthase epsilon chain	-2.78
<i>atpE</i> (HPYLSS1_01164)	ATP synthase subunit c	-2.48
<i>nifU</i> (HPYLSS1_00210)	NifU-like protein	-2.15
adhA (HPYLSS1_00)	Alcohol dehydrogenase	-2.12
<i>mdaB</i> (HPYLSS1_00836)	Modulator of drug activity B	-2.05
Purine, pyrimidine, nucleos		
<i>pyrD_2</i> (HPYLSS1_01468)	Dihydroorotate dehydrogenase B (NAD(+)), catalytic subunit	-2.13

Hypothetical proteins		
HPYLSS1_00188	Hypothetical protein	-3.92
HPYLSS1_00885	Hypothetical protein	-3.15
HPYLSS1_00325	Hypothetical protein/Putative beta-lactamase	-2.95
HPYLSS1_00036	Hypothetical protein/Putative Nucleoid-associated protein	-2.79
HPYLSS1_01458	Hypothetical protein	-2.79
HPYLSS1_01225	Hypothetical protein	-2.71
HPYLSS1_00259	Hypothetical protein	-2.66
HPYLSS1_01321	Hypothetical protein	-2.44
HPYLSS1_01060	Hypothetical protein	-2.32
HPYLSS1_00657	Hypothetical protein	-2.27
HPYLSS1_01143	Hypothetical protein	-2.21
HPYLSS1_00296	Hypothetical protein/Putative F0F1-ATPase subunit	-2.2
HPYLSS1_00945	Hypothetical protein	-2.16
HPYLSS1_00057	Hypothetical protein	-2.03
HPYLSS1_00569	Hypothetical protein	-2.07

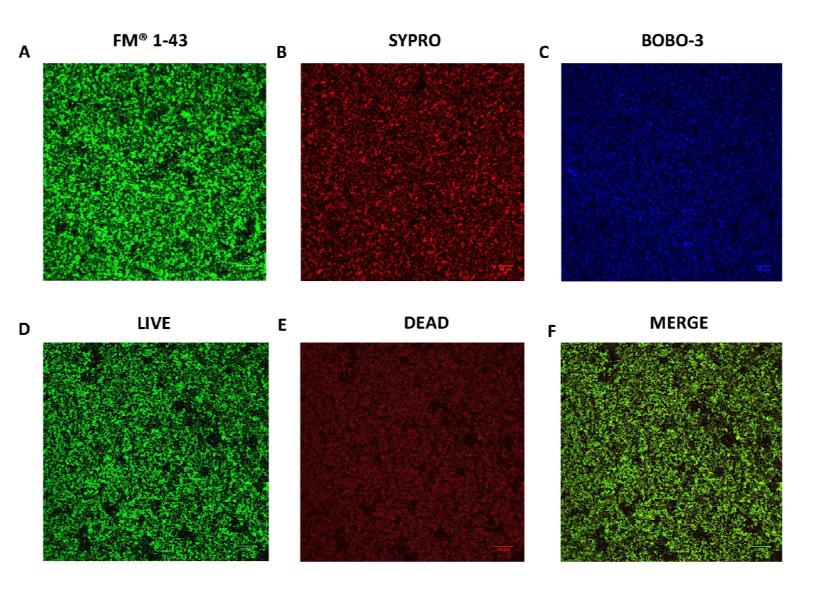
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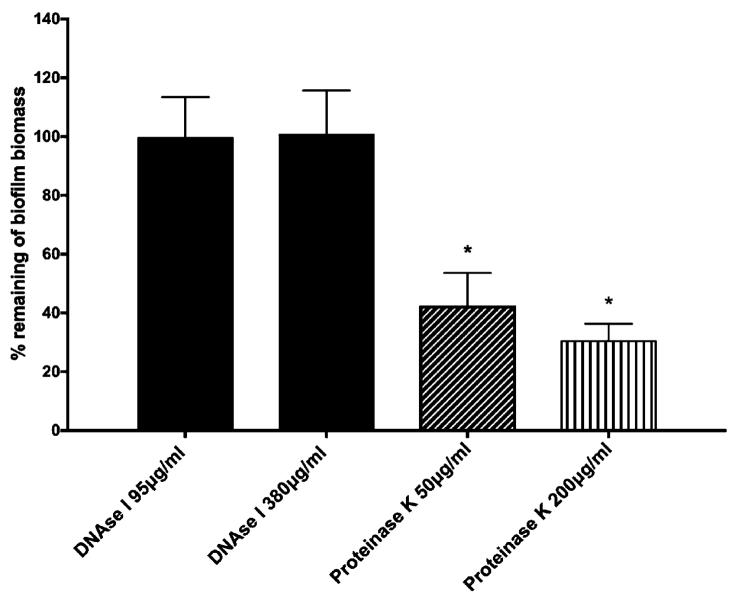
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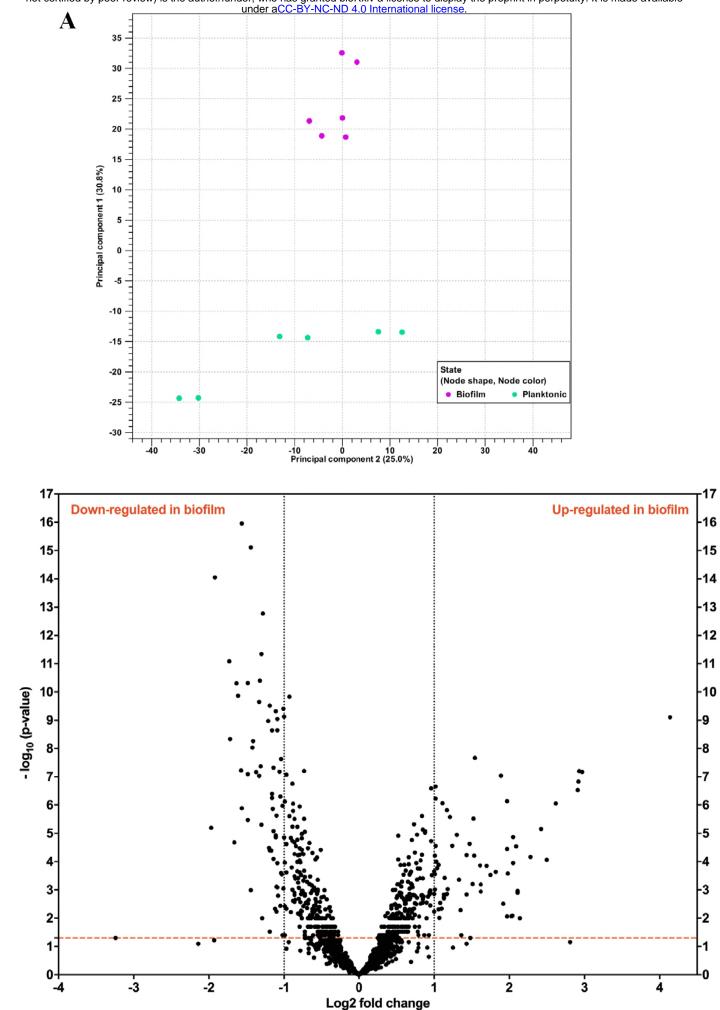




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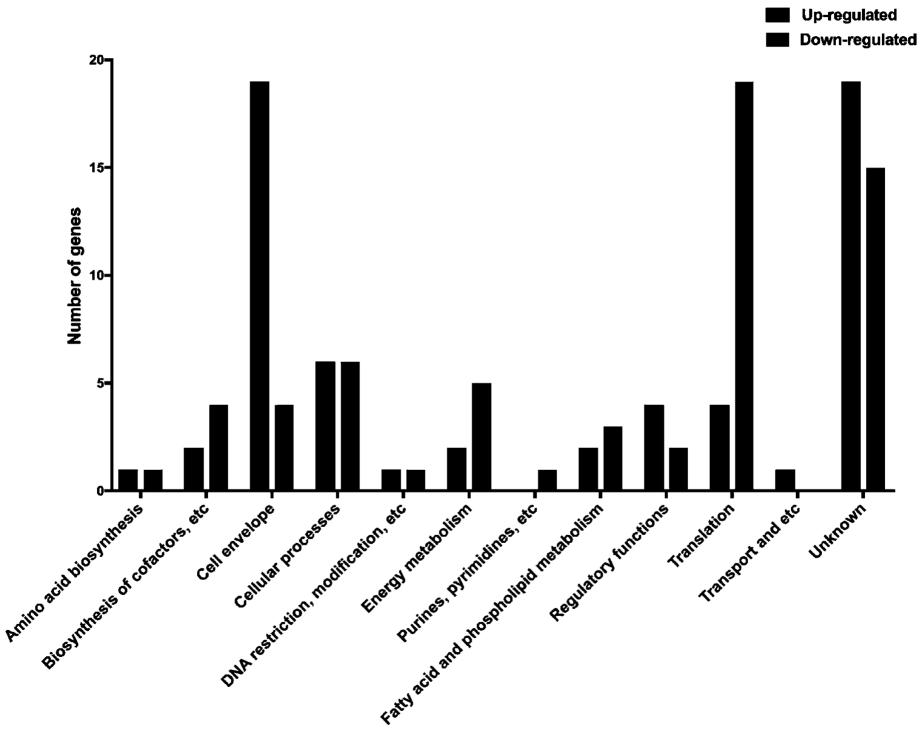


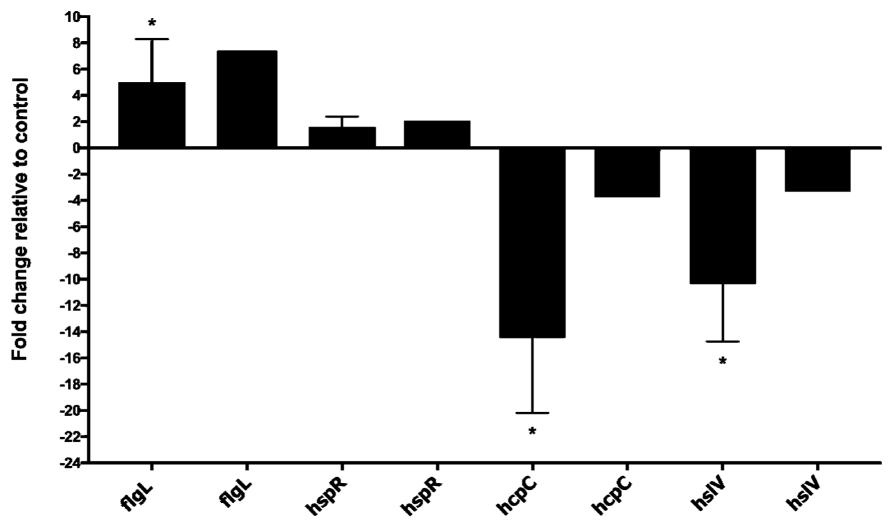


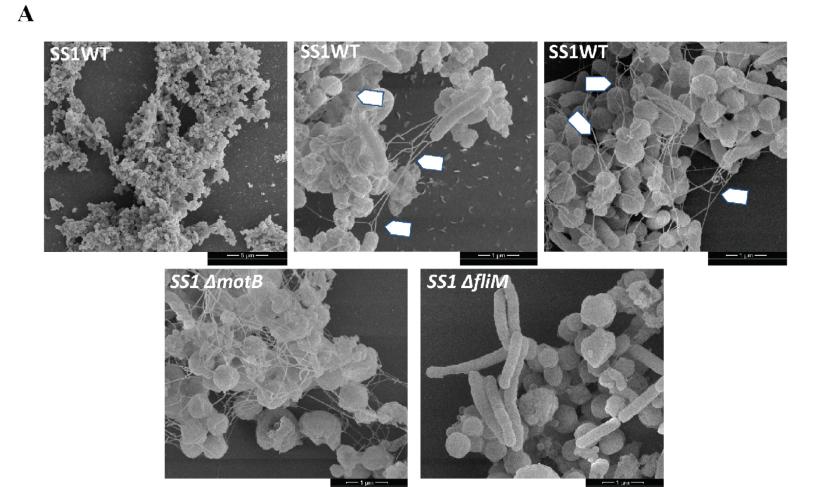


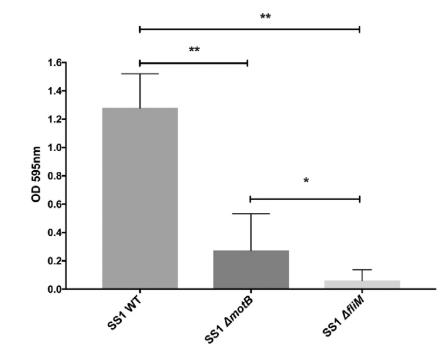
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