

**Al-Anbar University**

**College of Sciences**

**Biology department**



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**Lecture title: Bacterial Secretion Systems**

**Subject teacher**

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## Bacterial Secretion Systems

Bacterial secretion systems are important in the pathogenesis of infection and are essential for the interaction of bacteria with the eukaryotic cells of the host. The gram-negative bacteria have cell walls with cytoplasmic membranes and outer membranes; a thin layer of peptidoglycan is present. Gram-positive bacteria have a cytoplasmic membrane and a very thick layer of peptidoglycan. Some gram-negative bacteria and some gram-positive bacteria have capsules as well. The complexity and rigidity of the cell wall structures necessitate mechanisms for the translocation of proteins across the membranes. These secretion systems are involved in cellular functions such as the transport of proteins that make pili or flagella and in the secretion of enzymes or toxins into the extracellular environment. The differences in cell wall structure between gram-negative and gram-positive bacteria result in some differences in the secretion systems.

Both gram-negative and gram-positive bacteria have a general secretion pathway (**Sec**) as the major mechanism for protein secretion. This pathway is involved in the insertion of most of the bacterial membrane proteins and provides the major pathway for proteins crossing the bacterial cytoplasmic membrane. Gram-negative organisms have an additional six mechanisms, secretion systems (SS) 1-6 (sometimes denoted I-VI), for protein secretion. These can be further characterized as Sec dependent (types 2 and 5) and Sec independent (types 1, 3, 4, 6). Type 2 SS use the general Sec to transport the proteins to the periplasm and then create an outer membrane channel made by a special pore-forming protein complex. This type 2 SS is used to secrete portions of bacterial A B type toxins,

such as cholera toxin. Similarly, the **type 5 SS**, uses the general Sec to export an autotransporter to the periplasm; from there it transports itself across the outer membrane. An example of this type of SS includes the IgA proteases secreted by *Haemophilus influenzae*.

The **sec-independent pathways** include the **type 1 secretion system** or **ABC secretion system** (ATP binding cassette) and the **type 3 secretion system**. The type 1 and type 3 pathways do not interact with proteins that have been transported across the cytoplasmic membrane by the Sec system. Instead, these systems translocate proteins across both the cytoplasmic and outer membranes. The type 3, which is activated upon contact with a eukaryotic host cell, promotes transport of proteins directly from inside the bacterium to the inside of the host cell using a needle-like structure called an injectosome; when in the host cell cytoplasm, the transported proteins can manipulate host cell function. The **type 4 secretion pathway** consists of a protein complex that forms a “tunnel” that is able to directly transport proteins or DNA. The most recent SS to be discovered is the **type 6 SS**. This SS plays a role in the secretion of virulence proteins in *V. cholerae* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* among other gram-negative pathogens. Some other examples of the secretion systems and their roles in pathogenesis are shown in Table 4.

**Table 4: Examples of Molecules Translocated by Bacterial Secretion Systems and Their Relevance to Pathogenesis**

Secretion System	Genus Species	Substrate and Role in Pathogenesis
Type 1 (Sec-independent)	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	$\alpha$ Hemolysin makes holes in cell membranes
	<i>Proteus vulgaris</i>	Hemolysin
	<i>Morganella morganii</i>	Hemolysin
	<i>Bordetella pertussis</i>	Adenylate cyclase which catalyzes synthesis of cAMP
	<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	Alkaline protease
	<i>Serratia marcescens</i>	Zn protease yields host cell damage

Type 2 (Sec dependent)	<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	Elastase, exotoxin A, phospholipase C, others
	<i>Legionella pneumophila</i>	Acid phosphatase, lipase, phospholipase, protease, RNase
	<i>Vibrio cholera</i>	Cholera toxin
	<i>Serratiamarcescens</i>	Hemolysin
Type 3 (Sec-independent; contact-dependent)	<i>Yersinia species</i>	Ysc-Yop system; toxins that block phagocytosis and induce apoptosis
	<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	Cytotoxin
	<i>Shigella species</i>	Controls host cell signaling, invasion, and death
	<i>Salmonella entericasubspecies enterica</i>	Effectors from <i>Salmonella</i> pathogenicity islands I and II (SPI1 and SPI2), which promote attachment to and invasion of host cells
	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	Enterohemorrhagic (EHEC) and enteropathogenic (EPEC); disruption of epithelial barriers and tight junctions
	<i>Vibrio parahaemolyticus</i>	Direct cytotoxicity
Type 4 (Sec-dependent and Sec-independent) Protein substrates	<i>Bordetella pertussis</i>	Pertussis toxin
	<i>Helicobacter pylori</i>	Cytotoxin
	<i>Neisseria gonorrhoeae</i>	DNA export system
	<i>Helicobacter pylori</i>	DNA uptake and release system
Type 5 (Sec dependent)	<i>Neisseria gonorrhoeae</i>	IgA1 protease splits IgA1 in hinge region and destroys antibody activity (sec-dependent)
	<i>Haemophilus influenzae</i>	IgA1 protease, adhesins
	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	Serine protease, adhesins, type 1 pili, P-pili
	<i>Shigella flexneri</i>	Serine protease
	<i>Serratiamarcescens</i>	Proteases
	<i>Bordetella species</i>	Adhesins
	<i>Bordetella pertussis</i>	Filamentous hemagglutinin
	<i>Yersinia pestis</i>	Capsular antigen
Type 6 (Sec Independent)	<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	Pore-forming toxin Hcp1
	<i>Vibrio cholerae</i>	Virulence proteins
Type 7 (Sec dependent)	<i>Mycobacterium tuberculosis</i>	CFP-10, ESAT-6 T-cell antigen target

CFP, culture filtrate protein 10 kDa

ESAT-6, early secretory antigenic target-6 kDa

## (1) The Requirement for Iron

Iron is an essential nutrient for the growth and metabolism of nearly all microorganisms and is an essential cofactor of numerous metabolic and enzymatic processes. The availability of iron in humans for microbial assimilation is limited because the iron is sequestered by the high-affinity iron-binding protein transferrin in serum and lactoferrin

on mucosal surfaces. The ability of a microbial pathogen to efficiently obtain iron from the host environment is critical to its ability to cause disease.

Iron availability affects the virulence of many pathogens. For example, iron is an essential virulence factor in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. The use of animal models in *Listeria monocytogenes* infection has demonstrated that increased iron results in enhanced susceptibility to infection, but iron depletion results in prolonged survival; iron supplementation therapy yields an increase in lethal infections.

Decreased iron availability can also be important in pathogenesis. For example, the gene for diphtheria toxin resides on a lysogenic bacteriophage, and only strains of *Corynebacterium diphtheriae* that carry the lysogenic bacteriophage are toxigenic. In the presence of low iron availability, there is increased production of diphtheria toxin and potentially more severe disease. The virulence of *Neisseria meningitidis* for mice is increased 1000-fold or more when the bacteria are grown under iron-limited conditions.

Human iron deficiency also plays a role in the infectious process. Iron deficiency affects hundreds of millions of people worldwide. Iron deficiency can affect multiple organ systems, including the immune system, and can result in impaired cell-mediated immunity and decreased polymorphonuclear cell function. Providing iron therapy during an active infection probably should be delayed because many pathogenic microorganisms can use the small amounts of supplemental iron, resulting in an increase in virulence.

## (2) The Role of Bacterial Biofilms

A biofilm is an aggregate of interactive bacteria attached to a solid surface or to each other and encased in an exopolysaccharide matrix. This is distinct from planktonic or free-living bacteria, in which interactions of the microorganisms do not occur in the same way. Biofilms form a slimy coat on solid surfaces and occur throughout nature. A single species of bacteria may be involved or more than one species may coaggregate to form a biofilm. Fungi, including yeasts, are occasionally involved. After a biofilm is formed, quorum-sensing molecules produced by the bacteria in the biofilm accumulate, resulting in a modification of the metabolic activity of the bacteria.

The bacteria in the exopolysaccharide matrix may be protected from the host's immune mechanisms. This matrix also functions as a diffusion barrier for some antimicrobials, but other antimicrobials may bind to it. Some of the bacteria within the biofilm show marked resistance to antimicrobials compared with the same strain of bacteria grown free living in broth, which helps to explain why it is so difficult to treat infections associated with biofilms.

Biofilms are important in human infections that are persistent and difficult to treat. A few examples include *Staphylococcus epidermidis* and *S.aureus* infections of central venous catheters, eye infections such as that occur with contact lenses and intraocular lenses, in dental plaque, and in prosthetic joint infections. Perhaps the most profound example of a biofilm in human infection is in *P.aeruginosa* airway infections in cystic fibrosis patients.

## **References:**

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