FasR regulates fatty acid biosynthesis and is essential for virulence of

Mycobacterium tuberculosis

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Abstract

Mycobacterium tuberculosis, the etiologic agent of human tuberculosis, is the world's leading cause of death from an infectious disease. One of the main features of this pathogen is the complex and dynamic lipid composition of the cell envelope, which adapts to the variable host environment and defines the fate of infection by actively interacting with and modulating immune responses. Fine regulation of *de novo* fatty acid biosynthesis, and its interaction with other peripheral lipid pathways, is essential for cell membrane homeostasis while quickly adapting to the growth environment. However, while much has been learned about the enzymes of the numerous lipid pathways present in *M. tuberculosis,* little knowledge is available regarding the proteins and metabolic signals regulating lipid metabolism during infection. Previous studies on the regulation of lipid biosynthesis in mycobacteria identified FasR as an essential transcriptional activator of *de novo* fatty acid biosynthesis in *Mycobacterium smegmatis*. In this work, we constructed and characterized a FasR-deficient mutant in *M. tuberculosis* and demonstrated that FasR positively regulates *fas* and *acpS* expression. Lipidomic analysis of the wild type and mutant strains revealed complete rearrangement of most lipid components of the cell envelope, with phospholipids, mycolic acids, sulfolipids and phthiocerol dimycocerosates relative abundance severely altered. As a consequence, replication of the mutant strain was impaired in macrophages leading to reduced virulence in a mouse model of infection. Moreover, we show that the *fasR* mutant resides in acidified cellular compartments, suggesting that the

lipid perturbation caused by the mutation prevented *M. tuberculosis* inhibition of

phagolysosome maturation. This study identified FasR as a novel factor involved in

regulation of mycobacterial virulence and provides evidence for the essential role

that modulation of lipid homeostasis plays in the outcome of *M. tuberculosis*

infection.

Author summary

Tuberculosis is the leading cause of death from a single infectious disease,

resulting in approximately 1.5 million deaths per year worldwide. The composition

and complexity of the cell envelope is the most distinctive feature of

Mycobacterium tuberculosis, the etiologic agent of human tuberculosis. As the

mycobacterial cell envelope is the interface with the host, the modulation of its

structure and consequent responsiveness to immune factors might be important in

determining the state of an infection. We have previously identified FasR as an

essential transcriptional activator of *de novo* fatty acid biosynthesis in

Mycobacterium smegmatis. In this study, a *M. tuberculosis* mutant strain in *fasR*

was constructed and analyzed. Inactivation of *fasR* in *M. tuberculosis* was not

lethal for *in vitro* growth but led to rearrangement of the lipid composition of the cell

envelope. Consequently, the mutant strain was less virulent in a mouse model of

infection and showed impaired replication in macrophages, thus implying that lipid

homeostasis plays an important role during *M. tuberculosis* infection.

Introduction

Tuberculosis (TB) is one of the top ten causes of death and the leading cause from a single infectious agent, exceeding both malaria and HIV. In 2018, there were an estimated 10 million new cases of active TB and 1.3 million patients died from active infection [1]. The emergence of multidrug-resistant TB (MDR-TB) presents an increasingly difficult therapeutic challenge; consequently, MDR-TB is now the main cause of death due to antimicrobial resistance [1] thus transforming this long neglected disease into a global health priority.

The composition and complexity of the cell envelope is the most distinctive feature of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, the etiologic agent of human TB. Biochemical and microscopic data revealed that the mycobacterial envelope consists of three discrete entities: a plasma membrane surrounded by a complex cell wall and an outermost layer called the capsule in pathogenic species [2,3]. The *M. tuberculosis* cell wall consists of peptidoglycan covalently linked to arabinogalactan esterified by mycolic acids (MA), which form the inner leaflet of the outer membrane bilayer (mycomembrane). The outer leaflet of this membrane is composed of free, non-covalently bound lipids and glycolipids like trehalose monomycolates (TMM), trehalose dimycolates (TDM), glycerol monomycolates, glucose monomycolates, phthiocerol dimycocerosates (PDIM), poly acylated trehaloses (PAT), sulfolipids (SL), phosphatidylinositol mannosides (PIM), phenolic glycolipids (PGL) and mannose-capped lipoarabinomannans (Man-Lam) [4,5].

During the course of infection, intracellular pathogenic bacteria use different strategies to survive, multiply and persist inside the host [6]. *M. tuberculosis*

encounters heterogeneous host environments, including high oxygen tension in the

lung alveolus, reactive oxygen and nitrogen species in activated macrophages, as

well as nutrient depletion and hypoxia in tuberculous granulomas. How *M.*

tuberculosis survives these diverse environments is not fully understood. *M.*

tuberculosis has evolved a wide array of specific lipids and related metabolic

pathways that actively interact with the immune system, and multiple reports from

human and animal studies suggest an intimate link between *M. tuberculosis* lipid

metabolism and outcome of infection [7–9]. Of particular interest is the challenge

that *M. tuberculosis* must face in order to adjust its own lipid metabolism while the

macrophage is changing its lipid content [10]. Little is known about the mechanism

underlying the reorganization of *M. tuberculosis* envelope during infection [11].

Understanding how this pathogen selects and organizes the envelope components

to resist killing, and how these components make the envelope essential to *M.*

tuberculosis survival, virulence and pathogenesis, is still a major challenge.

Therefore, characterization of the regulatory elements that control these processes

should help improve understanding of the mechanisms involved in mycobacterial

pathogenicity and could provide new potential targets for anti-TB chemotherapy.

Previous studies on the regulation of lipid biosynthesis in mycobacteria allowed us

to identify FasR as the transcriptional activator of fatty acid biosynthesis in *M.*

smegmatis [12]. Deletion of *fasR* from *M. smegmatis* was possible only in the

presence of an extra copy of the gene, suggesting that *fasR* is essential for

viability. Notably, we found that the affinity of FasR for its target promoter is

modulated by long chain acyl-CoAs ($\geq C_{16}$), the end products of the FAS I pathway.

FasR, together with MabR, the transcriptional regulator of MA biosynthesis, are the

only transcription factors involved in fatty acid biosynthesis regulation known to be

essential for *M. smegmatis* survival, reflecting the relevance of lipid homeostasis

for mycobacterial viability [12,13].

In this study, a *M. tuberculosis* knockout strain in *fasR* was constructed and the

mutant used to analyze the implications of lipid homeostasis in *M. tuberculosis*

virulence. Inactivation of *fasR* in *M*. *tuberculosis* was not lethal for *in vitro* growth

but led to complete rearrangement of lipid composition of the envelope.

Consequently, the mutant strain was less virulent in a mouse model and showed

impaired replication in macrophages, thus implying that lipid homeostasis plays an

important role during *M. tuberculosis* infection.

Results

Construction and characterization of *M. tuberculosis fasR* mutant strain

To investigate the function of FasR in *M. tuberculosis,* and considering that *fasR* is

essential for *M. smegmatis* viability, we first constructed an *M. tuberculosis*

conditional knockdown strain in *fasR* (Fig 1A-B). Plasmids pFR33, providing a

second copy of *fasR* under the control of the TET-PIP OFF system at the

chromosomal L5 phage attachment site *attB* [14] and pGA80, were simultaneously

transformed in *M. tuberculosis* (S1 Table)*.* Disruption of *fasR* was then obtained by

two-step allelic exchange using pFR35, which deleted the gene at the native locus.

Homologous recombination was confirmed by colony PCR and Southern blot

analysis, and the resulting conditional knockdown strain was named *MtbΔfasR-*

c*fasR* (Fig 1D). In this strain, expression of *fasR* was downregulated by addition of

anhydrotetracycline (ATc) to the culture medium, thus leading to protein depletion.

However, we were not able to detect any growth defect after addition of ATc,

suggesting that *fasR* was not essential for *M. tuberculosis* survival. This result

prompted us to try to obtain a *fasR* knockout (KO) mutant strain by replacing the

fasR complementing plasmid with the empty vector pND255 (Fig 1C). Consistent

with the ability of the conditional mutant to grow in the non-permissive condition,

plenty of colonies were obtained in the presence of Hyg, and the replacement was

successfully confirmed by colony PCR (S1A Fig). We selected two Hyg-resistant

clones and confirmed the depletion of FasR by Western blot using total protein

extracts (S1B Fig). The genotype of this strain was further analyzed by Southern

Blot (Fig 1D), thus validating the genomic deletion of *fasR* and the generation of

the *fasR* KO mutant strain, named *MtbΔfasR*.

Once the non-essentiality of *fasR* for *M. tuberculosis* survival was confirmed, we

then hypothesized that deletion of this transcriptional regulator could be deleterious

for bacterial growth under specific conditions. In particular, we analyzed the growth

of *MtbΔfasR* mutant using different culture media. As shown in Fig 2, growth of

MtbΔfasR in complete 7H9 medium (7H9 + OADC) was similar to that of the wild

type and the complemented strain (*MtbΔfasR*-c*fasR* grown without ATc), although

the KO mutant reached stationary phase earlier and at lower OD_{600}. Interestingly, if

the medium was not supplemented with oleate and BSA (i.e. 7H9 without OADC),

growth defects appeared to be more pronounced, suggesting that the presence of

lipids in complete 7H9 medium could partially rescue the absence of FasR.

Moreover, *MtbΔfasR* mutant showed severe growth defects in Sauton minimal

medium, reaching a maximal OD_{600} of 0.3 (Fig 2). Altogether, these experiments

showed that FasR is not essential for *M. tuberculosis* survival, although it is

required for optimal bacterial growth, especially under lipid-limited conditions.

FasR is a transcriptional activator of the *fas-acpS* operon in *M. tuberculosis*

We have previously demonstrated that FasR is a transcriptional activator of *fas* in

M. smegmatis [12]. Thus, to validate the role of FasR in fatty acid biosynthesis in

M. tuberculosis, we analyzed expression of the *fas-acpS* operon genes in

MtbΔfasR and in the complemented strain *MtbΔfasR-cfasR*. The relative amounts

of *fas* and *acpS* mRNAs were measured by quantitative RT-PCR after 8 days of

growth in complete 7H9 medium and compared to those of *Mtb*H37Rv wild type

strain. As shown in Fig 3, transcription of *fas* and *acpS* was reduced by 70 % and

40 % respectively when cells were deprived of FasR, confirming that FasR is a

transcriptional activator of the *fas-acpS* operon in *M. tuberculosis*.

***fasR* knockout strongly impacts composition of *M. tuberculosis* cell envelope**

Previous characterization of *M. smegmatis fasR* [12] and *fas* [15] conditional

mutant strains revealed that reduced FAS I levels had a strong impact on fatty acid

and phospholipid biosynthesis. Interestingly, MA remained being synthesized in the

FAS I mutant for several hours after addition of ATc (non-permissive conditions),

although with different abundance of the various species [15]. Considering the

relevance that lipids have in *M. tuberculosis* survival and virulence, the impact of

the absence of FasR on the global lipid profile of *M. tuberculosis* was further

studied. We performed comparative lipidomic analyses between *Mtb*H37Rv,

MtbΔfasR and the complemented strain. Briefly, we extracted cell-associated lipids

as previously described [15] and analyzed the lipid content by high-performance

liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry with data-dependent tandem MS

(HPLC-MS/MS).

As illustrated in Fig 4, lipid analysis in the negative mode indicated that the relative

abundance (expressed as percentage of lipid MS signals) of phospholipids (PL)

and MA in the wild type and complemented strains was approximately 75 and 25

%, respectively. These values changed to 50 % for both PL and MA in the *fasR*

mutant strain, reflecting the strong impact that lower levels of *de novo* fatty acid

biosynthesis had in PL and MA relative abundance. The relative composition of PL

also showed a biased effect towards phosphatidylinositol (PI) and cardiolipins (CL),

which were significantly reduced in the mutant strain (Figs 4 and S2). Furthermore,

there was a strong reduction in the content of sulfolipids (Figs 4 and S2) and the

acyl chain substitutions of this lipid were consistently shorter in the mutant strain

(S3 Fig). A relevant change observed in the qualitative composition of the PL was

the significant increase in the double bonds of the acyl residues in the mutant

strain, with those of the CL, phosphatidylglycerol (PG) and PI being most

significant (S4 Fig).

Additionally, results obtained in the positive mode analysis showed that *M.*

tuberculosis MtbΔfasR mutant strain displayed a significant reduction in the relative

content of PDIM (Figs 5 and S2), with acyl substitutions that are shorter in the

mutant strain, compared with the wild type or the complemented strain (S3 Fig).

Most of the changes observed in the deletion mutant were reversed in the

complemented strain *MtbΔfasR*-c*fasR*, indicating that *fasR* is needed to maintain

the global lipid composition of *M. tuberculosis* cell envelope.

FasR is required for *M. tuberculosis* replication in macrophages

To investigate whether FasR is required for the intracellular survival of *M.*

tuberculosis in macrophages, we infected THP-1-derived macrophages with

exponentially growing cultures of *Mtb*H37Rv, *MtbΔfasR* and the complemented

strain *MtbΔfasR*-c*fasR*. To quantify bacterial uptake and intracellular replication,

we determined the numbers of intracellular viable bacteria at different time points

post-infection. As shown in Fig 6, infection with similar numbers of bacteria of each

strain resulted in recovery of similar numbers of CFU for all of the strains at 24 and

48 h post-infection. However, 120 and 144 h after the infection, intracellular

bacterial replication of *MtbΔfasR* strain was significantly reduced compared to that

of the wild type strain. The wild type phenotype was partially restored in the

MtbΔfasR-c*fasR* complemented strain at day 5 (120 h) and completely restored at

day 6 (144 h), indicating that the intracellular growth defect was due to the deletion

of *fasR* and that this regulator is necessary for optimal intracellular multiplication of

M. tuberculosis in macrophages.

FasR regulates phagosome maturation in macrophages

We have shown that the absence of FasR, and consequently reduced levels of *fas-*

acpS, have a strong impact on the composition of *M. tuberculosis* cell envelope,

and also on bacterial multiplication within macrophages. We hypothesized that the

altered bacterial cell envelope of the *MtbΔfasR* mutant may affect *M. tuberculosis-*

driven phagosome maturation during infection. To investigate this, we analyzed the

acidification of *M. tuberculosis Mtb∆fasR* phagosome during infection of human

macrophages by staining with Lysotracker dye and measuring the phagosomal

acquisition of LAMP-3 (late endosomal/lysosomal markers). Interestingly, while

*Mtb*H37Rv prevented phagosome acidification, *Mtb∆fasR* mutant strain resided in

phagosomes that were strongly stained by Lysotracker dye and that acquired

LAMP-3, suggesting that this strain cannot avoid phagosomal maturation. The

observed mutant phenotype was rescued in the *Mtb∆fasR*-c*fasR* complemented

strain, indicating that the increased phagosome acidification was due to the

absence of FasR (Fig 7).

Disruption of lipid homeostasis attenuates mycobacterial virulence in mice

To characterize the role of FasR in an experimental model of infection, three

groups of BALB/c mice (10 per group) were infected intratracheally with 10^2 CFU of

*Mtb*H37Rv, *Mtb∆fasR* and *Mtb∆fasR*-c*fasR* strains. Mice were killed 60 days post-

infection and bacterial loads in lungs were determined. CFU counts were

significantly reduced for the *Mtb∆fasR* strain compared to *Mtb*H37Rv, while the

wild type phenotype was restored in the *Mtb∆fasR*-c*fasR* strain (Fig 8), indicating

that FasR is essential for survival and multiplication of *M. tuberculosis* in mice.

Discussion

In a previous investigation we identified FasR, a TetR-like transcriptional regulator

that specifically binds to the *fas* promoter region to activate its expression, and

found that FasR was essential for *in vitro* growth of *M. smegmatis* [12]. However,

its role in *M. tuberculosis* viability was controversial. Using Himar 1 transposon

mutagenesis it was initially proposed that FasR was essential for *M. tuberculosis*

survival [16,17]. However, more recently, De Jesus *et al* found that FasR was

dispensable for growth, by assessing the composition of a highly saturated library

of transposon mutants *of M. tuberculosis* by deep sequencing [18]. Moreover, the

relevance of FasR for mycobacterial survival in intracellular environments or animal

models had not been investigated. In this work, by constructing a deletion *fasR*

mutant and a complemented strain, we unequivocally established that FasR is not

essential for *M. tuberculosis* viability, although it is required for optimal growth of *M.*

tuberculosis in vitro and for virulence in macrophages and mice model of infection.

We had shown that FasR binds to three inverted repeats present in the promoter

region of the *fas-acpS* operon thereby activating fatty acid biosynthesis in *M.*

smegmatis [12]. Furthermore, we also demonstrated, *in vitro* and *in vivo,* that FasR

binding to its target promoter is regulated by long-chain acyl-CoAs, the main

products of FAS I [12]. The *fas* and *acpS* genes form a bicistronic operon, coding

for the FAS I synthase and the 4-phosphopantetheinyl transferase, respectively;

the latter being an essential enzyme to produce functional acyl carrier protein (holo

ACP), central to all fatty-acid biosynthesis systems. Transcriptional studies carried

out in this work showed that expression of the *fas-acpS* operon genes in *M.*

tuberculosis Δ*fasR* was reduced by 70 % and 40 %, respectively (Fig 3). This

result confirmed that FasR is a transcriptional activator of the *fas-acpS* operon in

M. tuberculosis. The activator nature of FasR highlights a remarkable difference

with most transcriptional regulators of fatty acid biosynthesis, which are repressor

proteins [19]. Moreover, FasR is a member of the TetR family of regulators, and

the vast majority of these proteins are transcriptional repressors, with very few

acting as activators [20].

Since fatty acids are major constituents not only of phospholipids but also of

several complex lipids, inactivation of FasR was expected to modify synthesis of

several components of the cell envelope essential for mycobacterial viability and/or

virulence. Indeed, lipidomic analysis of *MtbΔfasR* and comparison with wild type

and complemented strains proved this hypothesis. As expected, reduced levels of

fatty acid biosynthesis in *MtbΔfasR* had a strong impact on relative abundance of

phospholipids and their relative and qualitative composition (Figs 4 and S2).

Phosphatidylinositol (PI) and cardiolipins (CL) were significantly reduced in the

mutant strain, while the acyl chains present in and these phospholipids exhibited a

significant increase in their double bond content (S4 Fig). Mycobacterial

phospholipids have been implicated in immunomodulation. For example, CL is

processed into lysocardiolipin by the lysosomal phospholipase A2 during infection,

probably generating active lipid derivatives that play important roles during

infection or persistence within the host [21]. The *MtbΔfasR* mutant strain also

displayed a strong reduction in the content of sulfolipids (Figs 4 and S2) and PDIM

(Figs 5 and S2). Interestingly, the acyl chain substitutions of both lipids were

consistently shorter compared to the wild type *Mtb*H37Rv strain (S3 Fig). On this

regard, a *M. tuberculosis* mutant strain deficient in sulfolipids and PDIM has been

shown to be attenuated in macrophages and in mice models of infection [8].

Moreover, during infection, genes involved in the biosynthesis of sulfolipids and

PDIM are upregulated [22,23] and the mass of these lipids increases [24,25].

Altogether, our results showed that *M. tuberculosis fasR* mutant exhibits an

extensive rearrangement of the lipid components of the cell envelope, that are

reversed in the complemented strain *MtbΔfasR-cfasR*, confirming that FasR is

needed to maintain the lipid homeostasis of the *M. tuberculosis* cell envelope. As

the mycobacterial cell envelope is the interface with the host, FasR modulation of

its structure and consequent responsiveness to immune factors might be important

in determining the state of an infection.

Consistent with this hypothesis, we have shown that FasR is necessary for optimal

intracellular multiplication of *M. tuberculosis* in macrophages, therefore confirming

the role of cell wall components in the ability of the pathogen to survive and

multiply intracellularly [26]. Persistence of the tubercle bacillus inside cells relies

upon inhibition of phagosome maturation and acidification [27]. In this context,

several cell wall lipids have been shown to modulate host endocytic pathways. This

is the case for Man-Lam, TDM, PIM and PDIM, which, besides their role in

phagocytosis, also mediate intracellular trafficking and vacuole maturation arrest

induced by *M. tuberculosis* [8]. More recently, PDIM and SL were shown to be

involved in controlling autophagy-related pathways in human macrophages [28].

Considering the changes observed in the PDIM content of the *MtbΔfasR* mutant,

we analyzed the acidification of phagosome during infection of human

macrophages. Interestingly, while the wild type *Mtb*H37Rv and the complemented

strains prevented phagosome acidification, the *MtbΔfasR* mutant was impaired in

avoiding phagosomal maturation, clearly indicating that increased phagosome

acidification was due to absence of FasR (Fig 7). These results suggested that

although FasR is not essential for *in vitro* growth, regulation of lipid biosynthesis,

mediated by FasR, is critical for macrophage infection. Moreover, using a mouse

model of infection we demonstrated the essentiality of FasR for *M. tuberculosis*

virulence *in vivo* (Fig 8), most probably as a consequence of the loss of various

mycobacterial lipids that contribute to pathogenicity.

Co-evolution with the human immune system prompted *M. tuberculosis* to generate

exquisite mechanisms of immunomodulation and immune evasion, many of which

depend on its cell envelope. In fact, comparison of cell envelope components

between *M. tuberculosis* and ancestral species revealed a restructuring of the

mycomembrane glycolipid components, including mycolic acids and free lipids of

the outer leaflet [11]. The observed phenotype of the FasR mutant is probably a

consequence of additive effects, as several components of the cell envelope were

altered. *M. tuberculosis* interferes with innate immune signalling pathways, for

example by masking pathogen-associated molecular patterns with PDIM [29] and

inhibiting toll-like receptor 2 with sulfoglycolipids [30]. PDIM is also crucial for other

steps of infection: it contributes to cell envelope properties, such as the

permeability barrier [31], improves the invasiveness of *M. tuberculosis* and its

capacity to arrest phagosome maturation, possibly by inducing changes in the

plasma membranes of human macrophages during infection [32], and directly

protects against reactive nitrogen species [33]. Therefore, reduced content of these

molecules (and/or changes in their chemical composition) may contribute to

sensitivity to the bactericidal activities of phagocytes.

Altogether, our data indicate an important role for FasR in *M. tuberculosis*

pathogenesis and encourage further investigations into the contribution of lipid

regulation to virulence. It is well known that *M. tuberculosis* is able to modulate the

expression of its cell wall components in response to environmental changes,

however, little is known about their reorganization during infection, and to a lesser

extent about the regulatory mechanisms involved in this process [11]. The

dynamism of the bacterial cell envelope should be a tightly regulated phenomenon,

ensuring *M. tuberculosis* survival during infection. Thus, specific regulatory

components involved in this process, as we have demonstrated for FasR, would

constitute interesting targets for the development of new treatment strategies.

Along this line of thinking, we recently solved the crystal structures of *M.*

tuberculosis FasR in complex with DNA and the acyl effector ligands, which

provided insights into the molecular sensory and transmission mechanisms of this

regulatory protein [34]. This knowledge could lead now to perform structure-guided

drug discovery strategies to identify anti-mycobacterial molecules with novel

mechanisms of action.

Materials and methods

Ethics statement

All animal experiments were performed in compliance with the regulations of the

Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (CICUAE) of INTA with the

authorization Number 20/2016.

Bacterial strains, culture and transformation conditions

The *E. coli* strain DH5α [35] was used for routine subcloning and was transformed according to Sambrook *et al.* [36]. *M. tuberculosis* H37Rv [37], *MtbΔfasR* and *MtbΔfasR*-c*fasR* were grown at 37 ºC in Middlebrook 7H9 broth (DIFCO) supplemented with 0.2 % glycerol, 0.03 % Tyloxapol and 10 % OADC or Middlebrook 7H10 agar (DIFCO) supplemented with 0.2 % glycerol and 10 % OADC. Hygromycin (Hyg, 50 µg/ml), kanamycin (Kan, 15 µg/ml) and streptomycin (Str, 12 µg/ml) were added when needed.

Recombinant plasmids and strain genotypes are listed in electronic supplementary material (S1 and S2 Tables).

DNA manipulation, plasmid construction and mutant generation

Isolation of plasmid DNA, restriction enzyme digestion and agarose gel electrophoresis were carried out by conventional methods [36]. Genomic DNA of *M. tuberculosis* was obtained as described previously [38]. For plasmid generation purposes, all PCR products were ligated into the pCR®-Blunt II-TOPO® Vector (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's recommendation.

For the construction of the *fasR* mutant allele, a fragment of 946 bp containing 58 bp of the *fasR* 5´end plus 882 bp of the upstream region was PCR amplified from genomic DNA using oligonucleotides 3208_1up and 3208_2down (S3 Table). The PCR product was cloned in the pCR BluntII TOPO vector (Invitrogen). The resulting plasmid was digested first with *Eco*RV and after with *Xho*I/*Nde*I. The 940

bp fragment obtained was cloned in the suicide vector pJG1100 [39,40] digested

with the same enzymes, generating plasmid pFR34. Additionally, a fragment of 883

bp containing 87 bp of the *fasR* 3´end plus 784 bp of the downstream region was

PCR amplified from genomic DNA using oligonucleotides 3208_3up and

3208_4down (S3 Table). The PCR product was cloned in the pCR BluntII TOPO

vector (Invitrogen). The resulting plasmid was digested first with *Eco*RI and after

with *Nde*I/*Spe*I and the fragment (877 bp) was cloned in pFR34 vector digested

with the same enzymes, generating plasmid pFR35.

For the construction of a *fasR* merodiploid strain, the fragment resulting from the

digestion of the plasmid pFR3 [12] with *Xba*I and *Eco*RI was cloned between the

*Avr*II and *Mfe*I sites in plasmid pGA44 [41]. The resulting plasmid, pFR33, is an

integrative plasmid that harbours *fasR* expressed under the control of *Ptr* promoter

and the TetR/Pip OFF system necessary for its regulation.

Deletion of *fasR* was accomplished by homologous recombination. After

transformation of *M. tuberculosis* with plasmid pFR35, the first recombination event

was selected on 7H10 medium containing Kan and Hyg and resistant colonies

were screened by colony PCR. The merodiploid strain was generated by

integration of pFR33 at the L5 *attB* site and transformants were plated on 7H10

with Hyg, Kan and Str. Deletion of the wild type gene by allelic replacement was

accomplished by plating bacteria on 7H10 agar plates supplemented with Str and

2.5 % sucrose. The Hyg^s, Kan^s, Str^r, Sucrose^r colonies were tested by PCR and

the *fasR* conditional knockdown strain was named *MtbΔfasR*-c*fasR*. Generation of

a *fasR* knockout strain (*MtbΔfasR*) was obtained by swapping the pFR33 plasmid

at the L5 *attB* site with the pND255 plasmid. Transformants were selected on 7H10

427 plates containing Hyg. Deletion of *fasR* was confirmed by Southern Blot and colony

428 PCR.

Southern Blot

10 µg of genomic *M. tuberculosis* DNA was digested overnight with an excess of

*Xho*I, and the fragments were separated by electrophoresis in a 0.7% agarose gel.

Southern blotting was carried out using Hybond-N$^+$ membrane (Amersham) and

DIG High Prime DNA Labeling and Detection Starter kit II (Roche), following the

indications of the manufacturer. The probe consisted of a 594 bp fragment

amplified with oligonucleotides Southern_1fasRTB and Southern_2fasRTB (S3

Table), corresponding to the upstream genomic region of *fasR*.

Western blot

Equal amounts of protein extracts were loaded on 4-12 % NuPAGE gels

(Invitrogen) and transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes using a dry

electrophoresis transfer apparatus (Invitrogen). Membranes were incubated in

TBS-Tween blocking buffer (20 mM Tris pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 0.1 % Tween 20)

with 5 % (w/v) skimmed milk powder for 2 h at 4 ºC prior to overnight incubation

with 1:1000 dilution of monoclonal anti-FasR primary antibody (Alere^{TM}).

Membranes were washed in TBS-Tween three times at room temperature, and

then incubated with 1:100000 secondary antibody Anti-Mouse Kappa conjugated to

Horseradish Peroxidase (Southern Biotech) for 2 h before washing again. Signals

were detected using Chemiluminescent Peroxidase Substrate (Sigma-Aldrich).

Monoclonal mouse anti-RpoB antibodies were purchased from NeoClone and used

1:20000.

RNA techniques

RNA was extracted from *M. tuberculosis* strains grown for 8 days in complete 7H9 media using Trizol-phenol based methods [41] and treated, when needed, with RQ1 RNase-Free DNase (Promega). qRT-PCR was performed using second strand cDNA as the template, generated with SuperScript III Reverse Transcriptase (Invitrogen), random primers and a green fluorochrome as the indicator dye (qPCR master mix, Biodynamics). The expression of *fas*, *fasR* and *acpS* was quantified after normalization of RNA levels to the expression of the *sigA* gene as previously described [15]. qPCR data are presented as relative expression values normalized to *sigA* and to the wild type strain H37Rv. qPCR cycling conditions were as follows: 95 ºC for 2 min followed by 40 cycles of 95 ºC for 15 s, 58 ºC for 15 s and 68 ºC for 20 s. The sequences of all the primers used are listed in electronic supplementary material (S3 Table).

Lipid analysis

Cell-associated lipid for lipidomic analyses were prepared as previously described [15]. Briefly, cell pellets of cultures grown at 37 ºC in Middlebrook 7H9 broth (DIFCO) supplemented with 0.2 % glycerol, 0.03 % Tyloxapol and 10 % OADC were washed with 50 mM ammonium acetate, pH 7.8 and transferred to glass tubes containing 5 ml $CHCl_3$:CH_3OH (2:1, v/v). Samples were incubated overnight at 4 ºC with gentle agitation. After centrifugation, bacterial pellets were subjected to an additional extraction using $CHCl_3$:CH_3OH (1:2, v/v) for 2 h. Organic extracts were pooled and dried under nitrogen at 4 ºC. Lipids were resuspended in 3 ml of $CHCl_3$, washed with 3 ml of H_2O and the organic phase was transferred to pre-

weighted glass tubes, dried under nitrogen at 4 °C and re-weighted on a microbalance. Extracts were dissolved in $CHCl_3$:CH_3OH (1:1, v/v) at 1 mg ml^{-1} and centrifuged at 3000 g for 5 min. Lipids were analyzed in an Agilent 1200 series HPLC system with a Reprospher (Dr Maish) 100 C8 column (1.8 μm, 50 mm length, 2 mm ID). The flow rate was 0.3 ml min^{-1} in binary gradient mode with the following elution program: the column was equilibrated with 100 % mobile phase A [CH_3OH:H_2O (99:1, v/v), containing 0.05 mM $AcNH_4$]. 2 μl of each sample were injected, and the same elution conditions continued for 1 min, followed by a 12 min gradient to 100 % mobile phase B [isopropanol:hexane:H_2O (79:20:1, v/v), containing 0.05 mM $AcNH_4$], finally holding this condition for 1 min. The column was equilibrated for 2 min with 100 % mobile phase A before injection of the next sample. An Agilent 6500 series Q-TOF instrument with a Dual AJS ESI was used for mass analysis. Ionization gas temperature was maintained at 200 °C with a 14 l min^{-1} drying gas flow, a 35 psig nebulizer pressure and 3500 Volts. Spectra were collected in positive and negative mode from *m/z* 115 to 3000 at 4 spectra s^{-1}. Automatic tandem-MS (MS-MS) was obtained in data-dependent acquisition mode at 15 MS-MS per cycle. Continuous infusion calibrants included *m/z* 121.051 and 922.010 in positive-ion mode and *m/z* 119.035 and 955.972 in negative-ion mode. CID-MS was carried out with an energy of 50 volts. For the comparative analysis, the column is conditioned by four successive mock injections before randomized QCs and mycobacterial samples are analyzed. Lipid features were annotated based on structural MS-MS information. Lipid classes' retention times (RT) were

identified using characteristics fragmentation patterns [42]. Individual molecules in

each class were then identified based on exact mass and RT.

Colony-forming units (CFU) analysis

M. tuberculosis H37Rv, *MtbΔfasR* and *MtbΔfasR*-c*fasR* strains were used to infect

THP-1 cells (MOI=5). The day before infection 4×10^5 THP-1 cells were plated in a

24-well plate in RPMI Medium with 4.5 g/L glucose, 10 % heat inactivated fetal calf

serum (Internegocios) and 2 mM L-glutamine (full medium) plus 50 nM phorbol 12-

myristate 13-acetate (PMA) to allow differentiation of the cells to macrophages. On

the infection day, cells were washed and a suspension of the different strains of *M.*

tuberculosis in RPMI medium was added. After 2 h of uptake, cells were washed 3

times with PBS and fresh full RPMI medium plus gentamicin 10 μg mL^{-1} was

added. Cells were incubated at 37 °C in 5 % CO_2 atmosphere. Subsequently, at

the indicated time points, cells were lysed in sterile water and serially diluted in

PBS-Tween 80 0.05 %. Dilutions were plated on Middlebrook 7H10 complete agar

medium (Difco Laboratories). Colonies were counted after 3 to 4 weeks to

determine CFU.

Mouse infections

Bacillary suspensions of the different strains were adjusted to 100 viable cells in

100 ml phosphate buffer saline (PBS). Each animal was anesthetized and

intratracheally inoculated with *M. tuberculosis* strains (*Mtb*H37Rv, *MtbΔfasR* and

MtbΔfasR-c*fasR*). Infected mice were kept in cages fitted with microisolators

connected to negative pressure. Groups of 10 mice were infected with the different

M. tuberculosis strains. The inoculum doses were determined by enumerating CFU

recovered from the lungs of three mice per strain, 24 h post-infection. Seven mice

per group were killed at 60 days after infection and lungs removed and

homogenized. Four dilutions of each homogenate were spread onto triplicate

plates of Middlebrook 7H10 complete agar medium. The number of colonies was

counted after 3 to 4 weeks.

Infection of THP-1 cells and indirect immunofluorescence (IFI)

M. tuberculosis strains were covalently stained with FITC (Sigma-Aldrich). Briefly,

1×10^9 bacteria were washed twice with 0.1 M PBS and suspended in 1 ml of the

same solution. FITC was added to a final concentration of 5 µg/ml and incubated in

the dark for 1 h at 37 °C. Bacteria were washed gently with PBS until

unincorporated dye was eliminated, and then were used to infect THP-1 cells.

THP-1 cells were maintained in complete full RPMI medium. The day before

infection 2×10^5 THP-1 cells per well were plated in a 24-well plate with coverslips in

full RPMI medium plus 50 nM PMA to allow differentiation of the cells to

macrophages. On the day of infection, cells were washed and infected with the

different stained *M. tuberculosis* strains (*Mtb*H37Rv, *MtbΔfasR* and *MtbΔfasR*-

c*fasR*) prepared in RPMI medium, at a MOI of 5. After 2 h of uptake, cells were

washed and incubated with 10 µM Lysotracker Red DND-99 for 1 hour to allow the

staining of acidic compartments, fixed with 4 % paraformaldehyde solution in PBS

for 30 min and subjected to immunofluorescence analysis.

Cells were quenched by incubation with 50 mM NH_4Cl solution in PBS for 30 min.

and permeabilized with 0.05 % saponin/1 % BSA in PBS for 15 min, followed by

overnight incubation with goat anti-LAMP-3 (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa

Cruz, CA) primary antibody diluted 1:50 in PBS. Secondary anti-goat antibody

conjugated to Cy3 (Jackson Immuno Research Labs, Inc.) was diluted 1:600 in

PBS. Cells were mounted with mounting medium (Dako, Denmark) and analysed

by confocal microscopy using an SP5 AOBS confocal microscope (Leica

Microsystems, Germany). Mycobacterial internalization was monitored by following

FITC fluorescence (green). Lysotracker Red DND-99 or LAMP-3 association with

mycobacterial phagosomes was analysed in at least 250 cells using Fiji software

(U.S. National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD) as described previously [43].

The experiments were performed in duplicates in three independent experiments.

The statistical analysis was performed using two-tailed Student's t-test.

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Figure captions

Fig 1. Schematic representation of the genetic organization of the

chromosomal region of *fasR*.

(**A**) Wild type H37Rv strain (*Mtb*H37Rv), (**B**) *fasR* conditional knockdown strain

(*Mtb*Δ*fasR*-c*fasR*) and (**C**) *fasR* KO strain (*Mtb*Δ*fasR*). (**D**) Southern Blot analysis

of the different strains: chromosomal DNA was digested with XhoI and probed for

hybridization with the probe indicated with a black bar, corresponding to the 5′ end

of the *Rv3207* gene.

Fig 2. Growth of *M. tuberculosis* strains.

Growth curves of the wild type strain (*Mtb*H37Rv), the *fasR Mtb∆fasR*-c*fasR* strain

grown without ATc (complemented strain) and *fasR* KO strain (*Mtb∆fasR*) were

obtained in 3 different media (7H9 complete, 7H9 without OADC and Sauton).

Growth was followed by measuring $OD_{600\text{ nm}}$. Results are representative of three

independent experiments.

Fig 3. Relative expression levels of *fasR*, *fas* and *acpS* mRNAs measured by

quantitative RT-PCR.

Values were normalized to *sigA* and to the wild type strain (*Mtb*H37Rv). Samples

for RNA extraction were collected at $OD_{600\text{nm}} \sim 0.3$.

Fig 4. Lipid profile in negative ion mode

LC-MS analyses (negative mode) of the phospholipids and mycolic acids present

in the wild type strain (*Mtb*H37Rv), the *fasR* complemented strain (*Mtb∆fasR*-

c*fasR*) and *fasR* KO strain (*Mtb∆fasR*). The values indicated represent the relative

abundance of the MS signals corresponding to the different lipid classes found in

the samples. Results are the means of three independent experiments. CL,

cardiolipin; PI, phosphatidylinositol; PIM, phosphatidylinositol mannosides; PG,

phosphatidylglycerol; PE, phosphatidylethanolamine; SL, sulfolipids; MA, mycolic

acids.

Fig 5. Lipid profile in positive ion mode

LC-MS analyses (positive mode) of lipids present in the wild type strain

(*Mtb*H37Rv), the *fasR* complemented strain (*Mtb∆fasR*-c*fasR*) and *fasR* KO strain

(*MtbΔfasR*). The values indicated represent the relative abundance of the MS

signals corresponding to the different lipid classes found in the samples. Results

are the means of three independent experiments. TAG, triacylglycerol; DAG,

diacylglycerol; MMDAG, monomycolyl DAG; PDIM, phthiocerol dimycocerosates;

GroMM, glycerol monomycolate; TMM, trehalose monomycolate.

Fig 6. FasR is required for the intracellular survival of *M. tuberculosis*.

THP-1-derived macrophages were infected with wild type *M. tuberculosis* H37Rv

(*Mtb*H37Rv), *fasR* mutant (*MtbΔfasR*) and the complemented *fasR* strain

(*MtbΔfasR*-c*fasR*) a MOI =5. At different time post-infection (24, 48, 120, 144

hours) cells were washed and intracellular viable bacteria were counted on agar

plates. Bars represent the average of three independent experiments performed in

triplicate wells with standard deviation.

Fig 7. FasR regulates phagosome maturation in macrophages.

Confocal microscopy analysis of THP-1 macrophages infected with wild type *M.*

tuberculosis H37Rv (*Mtb*H37Rv), *fasR* mutant (*MtbΔfasR*) and the complemented

fasR strain (*MtbΔfasR-cfasR*). A) Representative images of THP-1 macrophages

infected with the different strains labelled with FITC (green fluorescence) using a

MOI=5. After 2 h of uptake, cells were washed and incubated with Lysotracker Red

DND-99 for 1 hour to allow the staining of acidic compartments, fixed and

subjected to immunofluorescence. The infected and fixed cells were used to detect

LAMP-3 by indirect immunofluorescence using a specific antibody against LAMP-3.

Scale bars: 10 μm. Merge indicates the location of the different strains in the

phagolysosome. B, C) Fluorescence intensity quantification of Lysotracker and LAMP-3 associated with the phagosome of *M. tuberculosis Mtb*H37Rv (circles), *MtbΔfasR* (squares) and the complemented *fasR* strain *MtbΔfasR-cfasR* (triangles). Data were expressed in arbitrary units (a.u.). Fiji software was used for quantification. Data represent means ± SEM of three independent experiments. Asterisks indicate significance: *, P ≤ 0.05; **, P ≤ 0.01; and ***, P ≤ 0.001. Data were analyzed using a two-tailed Student *t* test.

Fig 8. FasR is essential for the multiplication of mycobacteria in mouse lungs.

Three groups of BALB/c mice (10 per group) were infected intratracheally with 10^2 CFU of *Mtb*H37Rv, *MtbΔfasR* and *MtbΔfasR-cfasR* strains and 60 days post-infection bacterial loads in lungs were determined by plating serial dilutions on Middlebrook 7H10 complete agar medium. The graph shows the mean values and error bar of CFU. Data were analyzed using one-way ANOVA analysis and Bonferroni's post-test. (**, P <0.01; ***, P ≤ 0.001).

Fig 1. Schematic representation of the genetic organization of the chromosomal region of *fasR*.

Fig 2. Growth of *M. tuberculosis* strains.

Fig 3. Relative expression levels of *fasR*, *fas* and *acpS* mRNAs measured by quantitative RT-PCR.

Fig 4. Lipid profile in negative ion mode

Fig 5. Lipid profile in positive ion mode

Fig 6. FasR is required for the intracellular survival of *M. tuberculosis*.

A

Lysotracker | LAMP-3 | Merge

*Mtb*H37Rv

*Mtb*Δ*fasR*

*Mtb*Δ*fasR-cfasR*

B

***

**

Lysotracker associated to Mtb phagosome (a.u.)

*Mtb*H37Rv *Mtb*Δ*fasR* *Mtb*Δ*fasR-cfasR*

M. tuberculosis

C

***

*

LAMP-3 associated to Mtb phagosome (a.u.)

*Mtb*H37Rv *Mtb*Δ*fasR* *Mtb*Δ*fasR-cfasR*

M. tuberculosis

Fig 7. FasR regulates phagosome maturation in macrophages.

Fig 8. FasR is essential for the multiplication of mycobacteria in mouse lungs.