Staphylococcus aureus **prophages are gatekeepers of lipid utilization to control**

membrane flexibility, bacterial fitness, and antibiotic adaptation

Byang Zhou[a], Amit Pathania[a], Deepak Pant[a], David Halpern[a] Philippe Gaudu[a], Patrick Trieu-

Cuot[b], Alexandra Gruss[a] and Karine Gloux[a].

[a]Université Paris-Saclay, INRAE, AgroParisTech, Micalis Institute, Jouy en Josas, France,

[b] Institut Pasteur, Université de Paris, CNRS UMR 2001, Unité de Biologie des Bactéries

Pathogènes à Gram-Positif, Paris Cedex 15, France.

For correspondence: karine.gloux@inrae.fr

Key words: triglycerides, diglycerides, sphingomyelins, FASII, bacteriophage, Geh lipase, Hlb

hemolysin B, FakB1, FASII antibiotics.

Importance

Staphylococcus aureus is a major human health challenge. Its lipases are crucial for virulence and

immune response escape. Prophages inserted in lipases are common in *S. aureus* but the

selective benefits of their maintenance is little understood. We demonstrate that two prophages,

inserted in triglyceride and sphingomyelin lipase genes, interactively modulate fatty acid

incorporation into bacterial membranes. The presence or absence of prophage determine how

bacteria respond to a complex lipid environment such as the host, by affecting membrane properties,

fitness, and adaptation to antibiotics inhibiting fatty acid synthesis. Our findings highlight the

importance of assessing prophage status and lipid environments when evaluating infection risk

and therapy efficiency.

Abstract

Lipids are essential components of bacterial membranes and phages are quasi-ubiquitous in bacteria. Both are crucial mediators of bacteria-host interactions. In the major pathogen *Staphylococcus aureus*, two common prophages, φ11.1 and φ13, are preferentially integrated in lipase genes, respectively encoding Geh, a triglyceride lipase, and Hlb, a sphingomyelinase. Here we report how prophage status, and consequently lipase availability, impacts *S. aureus* metabolism of environmental lipids, and overall bacterial fitness. The fatty acid kinase subunit FakB1, known to promote saturated fatty acid incorporation, also facilitates incorporation of unsaturated fatty acids released from triglycerides by Geh; this process occurs only when φ11.1 is absent. Geh and Hlb lipase products compete for FakB1, and interference by prophage integration changes the outcome of this competition. Our findings could explain the selective advantage of prophage conservation, as a means of modulating bacterial membrane composition and preventing toxicity of environmental lipids. φ13 lysogeny also impaired the bacterial capacity to escape antibiotic inhibitors of FASII (fatty acid synthesis). We suggest that testing new therapeutics against *S. aureus* should consider prophage status and environmental lipids for accurate prediction of efficiency.

Introduction

Environmental lipids comprise an integral, but often overlooked, aspect of bacterial pathogenesis. Lipids are crucial for bacterial fitness and are front-line players in modulating interactions with the host (1-4). Lipids range in structure from simple short hydrocarbon chains to complex molecules, including triglycerides (TGs), phospholipids (PLs), sterols and their esters.

Fatty acids (FA), the basic constituents of complex lipids, vary in chain length, side chains, and

number and position of double bonds. A vast array of bacteria scavenge FA, which they

incorporate into their membranes (5-11). This quasi-ubiquity suggests a great potential of the

host lipid environment to modulate invading pathogen behavior. The environmental lipid

composition depends on human genetics and diet and is correlated to infection risk (12, 13, 3,

4). *Staphylococcus* aureus, a major human pathogen, incorporates exogenous FA, such as those

present in plasma lipids (14, 9). Incorporation involves a FA kinase, FakA, whose preference for

saturated and unsaturated FA is reportedly respectively conferred by the FA binding proteins

FakB1 and FakB2 (15-17). While *S. aureus* does not synthesize unsaturated and polyunsaturated

FA (UFA and PUFA), their incorporation has documented effects on bacterial membrane

functions and interactions with the host (18-22).

Prophages are potent factors of virulence, as reported in *S. aureus* (23). Remarkably, two

commonly found *S. aureus* prophages, φ11-1 and φ13, are inserted in *geh* and *hlb* genes

encoding lipases, respectively Geh glycerol ester hydrolase (EC 3.1.1.3) and Hlb neutral

sphingomyelinase C (EC 3.1.4.12) (24, 25) (Fig. 1A). About 15% of *S. aureus* isolates carry φ11.1

in *geh* and at least 90% of human clinical isolates carry φ13 in *hlb* (1, 26). In contrast φ13

prophage was quasi-absent in livestock isolates. φ11-1 and φ13 prophage excision is induced by

environmental signals (such as SOS response or biocide/H_2O_2 respectively), leading to

reactivation of Geh and Hlb activities with consequent impacts on *in vivo* inflammatory responses

(1, 27-31, 23). In contrast consequences of lipase genes inactivation by φ11.1 and φ13 on *S.*

aureus metabolism and physiology have been little explored (14). Here we show that these two

widespread prophages interactively affect membrane phospholipid composition and growth

response to toxic UFA C18:2. The FA binding protein FakB1 is identified as a control point for

phage-dependent dynamic competition between FA issued from triglycerides and

sphingomyelins. Finally, φ13 lysogeny led to impaired efficiency of anti-FASII antibiotics

compared to non-lysogens, further underlining the importance of prophage in *S. aureus* fitness.

Results

φ13 lysogeny increases C18:2 incorporation from serum into *S. aureus* phospholipids. We

analyzed FA profiles from two isogenic Newman strains (WT and Δφ13), which differ by the

presence of φ13 prophage (19). The φ13-lysogenized WT and Δφ13 strains showed identical FA

profiles in control BHI medium,, indicating that FASII-synthesis was unaffected by φ13 (Fig. S1).

In contrast, addition of 10% mouse serum to medium distinguished the two strains by their

incorporation of UFA. The Δ φ13 strain had approximately two times less UFA than the WT (6 ±

1% *versus* 13 ± 1%), including oleic acids C18:1Δ9, C18:1Δ11, and the PUFA linoleic acid C18:2

(Fig. 1B). Serum was the only UFA source for *S. aureus*, which lacks UFA synthesis and desaturase

functions (32). These results thus suggested an unexpected link between φ13 lysogenic status

and UFA incorporation from a serum source.

φ11.1 lysogeny decreases trilinolein-derived C18:2 incorporation, elongation and toxicity; φ13

effects depend on φ11.1 status. Trilinolein (TNL), a TG with three C18:2, is a substrate for Geh

lipase (33). We asked how the *geh*/φ11.1 status impacts breakdown of TNL to C18:2, and whether

φ13 lysogeny affects this process. For this, we analyzed FA profiles of isogenic Newman strains

lysogenized or not with φ11 (including the three φ11.1 to φ11.3 prophages) and φ13 prophages

(19). In BHI medium, the φ11 prophage status had no detectable effect on FA profiles which

reflect endogenous FA synthesis (Fig. S1). In contrast, TNL addition led to marked differences in

FA profiles and growth: the φ11 lysogenized strains showed markedly less C18:2 incorporation

from TNL and improved growth compared to non- φ11 lysogens (Fig. 1C). This result is in

accordance with *geh* inactivation by φ11.1 and C18:2 toxicity on *S. aureus* (34). The remaining

18:2 incorporation in the φ11 lysogens may indicate residual Geh activity despite the C-terminal

truncation, or C18:2 release by other lipases. Strikingly, φ11 lysogeny correlated with a quasi-

total inhibition of C18:2 elongation by FASII (Fig. 1C) suggesting that Geh facilitates accessibility

of TNL-derived C18:2 to FASII pathway. Furthermore, the φ13 lysogeny had effects depending on

the φ11 status. Indeed when φ11.1 was present, φ13 lysogeny led to higher C18:2 incorporation

from TNL (11 ± 1% in WT *versus* 4 ± 0.5% in Δφ13 strain). In contrast, in absence of φ11.1 (intact

geh), it did not impact the C18:2 incorporation (28 ± 4% in Δφ11 *versus* 28 ± 1% in Δφ11Δφ13

strain, Fig. 1C) but increases elongation of both C18:2 (from 50 to 70%) and C20:2 (from 14 to

28%). These observations point to an unexpected interconnection between *S. aureus* φ11 and

φ13 prophages for both incorporation and elongation of the PUFA C18:2 from TNL.

A *geh* mutant shows decreased incorporation of trilinolein-derived C18:2 and its elongation.

We asked whether φ11 prophage family effects were due to *geh* gene interruption by φ11.1. We

analyzed the strain USA300 which lacks φ11.1 (intact *geh*) and its isogenic *geh::tn* mutant. While

TNL-derived   C18:2   was   incorporated   and   efficiently   elongated   in   both   these   strains,

incorporation and particularly elongation were markedly lowered in the USA300 *geh::tn* mutant

(Fig. 1D). Both *geh*::tn mutant and φ11 Newman lysogens encode C-terminal truncations of Geh

(at   respective   amino   acid   [aa]   positions   517   and   643   from   a   full   length   protein   of   690   aa).

Furthermore, orlistat, an inhibitor which binds to Geh (35), inhibited both incorporation and

elongation of C18:2 from TNL (Fig. 1D). These results indicate that the Geh state, rather than an

intrinsic property of φ11.1, determines *S. aureus* capacity to both incorporate and elongate TNL-

derived C18:2.

1,3-diglyceride-derived C18:2 is efficiently incorporated and toxic for growth. In TGs, the UFA position on the glycerol backbone affects its absorption and metabolism by cells (36-38). Triglyceride lipases display positional selectivity, which can be discriminated using 1,2-dilinoleoylglycerol (1.2DG) and 1,3-dilinoleoylglycerol (1.3DG) as substrates (39-41). Geh reportedly cleaves TNL in both positions 1 and 2 whereas most lipases prefer position 1 (39, 40). Consequently, Geh activity liberates 1.3DG from TNL, in contrast to other lipases. We therefore examined C18:2 incorporation from 1.2DG and 1.3DG in WT, $\Delta\phi11$, $\Delta\phi13$ and $\Delta\phi11\Delta\phi13$ Newman isogenic strains. Addition of 30 µM 1.2DG led to low-level C18:2 incorporation whatever the prophage status. A growth retardation was observed in the Geh$^+$ strains (non-ϕ11.1 lysogens) where both incorporation and elongation were favored (Fig. 1E). The same concentration of 1.3DG lead to lysis of non-ϕ11.1 lysogens (data not shown). Lowering 1.3DG addition to 10 µM avoided lysis. Under this condition, very high incorporation and elongation of C18:2 clearly occurred only when Geh is intact (in non-ϕ11.1 lysogens). TG hydrolysis product, particularly attributed to Geh activity, leads therefore to high PUFA incorporation and elongation in *S. aureus*.

Serum-derived C16 incorporation is increased in Δϕ13 and *hlb*$^+$ strains. We focused on possible mechanisms involved in ϕ13 impact on UFA incorporation. In the presence of 10% mouse serum, the percentage of C16 and its derived FA (C18 + C20) was decreased in Newman WT strain compared to the Δϕ13 strain in favor of incorporated serum UFA (Fig. 2A). Serum sphingomyelins are dominant circulating Hlb substrates that contain mainly C16 as FA moieties (42, 43). To further understand how *hlb* affects UFA utilization, we complemented the USA300 *hlb::tn* mutant with a plasmid carrying an intact *hlb* gene. Hlb complementation increased C16 and elongated derived FA whereas it decreased incorporated serum UFA (Fig. 2B). These results indicate that *hlb* contributes to C16 liberation and its further incorporation whereas ϕ13 lysogeny increases

serum UFA incorporation. Based on these observations, we hypothesized that the ϕ13

lysogenic/excised status likely creates a dynamic competition between C16 and UFA from serum

TGs for incorporation in membrane phospholipids.

Incorporation of 1.3DG-derived C18:2 requires *fakB1*. The FakA kinase preference for saturated

and unsaturated FA incorporation is reportedly conferred by FakB1 and FakB2, respectively (15-

17). We first confirmed the reported phenotypes in USA300 derivative *fakA*, *fakB1*, and *fakB2*

mutants in keeping with a minor role of FakB1 in UFA incorporation, including that of free C18:2

PUFA (Fig. S2 and S3)(16, 17)). We then challenged USA300 derivative *fakA*, *fakB1*, and *fakB2*

mutants with TNL. The *fakA* mutant failed to incorporate TNL-derived C18:2 (data not shown).

Unexpectedly, *fakB1* and *fakB2* mutants failed to show selectivity when TNL was used as C18:2

precursor; both mutants displayed the capacity to incorporate C18:2 from TNL (Fig. S4). Thus,

while free C18:2 incorporation was FakB2-dependent (see Fig. S3), incorporation from TNL-

derived C18:2 was permissive. The strong effects of 1.3DG on non-ϕ11.1 lysogens growth and on

C18:2 incorporation, compared to 1.2DG (Fig. 2), led us to examine incorporation of these

substrates in *fakA*, *fakB1*, and *fakB2* backgrounds. *fakA* was essential for incorporation of both

substrates, reflecting the phosphorylation requirement ((17; data not shown). Incorporation of

1.2DG-derived C18:2 was in accordance with the reported FakB2 binding phenotype (15-17) (Fig.

S5). In contrast, incorporation of 1.3DG-derived C18:2 was remarkably greater in *fakB2* than in

fakB1 mutant (20 ± 7% versus 13 ± 3%) and *fakB1* inactivation results in markedly lower

incorporation compared to the USA300 wild type (13 ± 3 % and 31 ± 5% respectively, Fig. 3A).

To confirm the direct role of *fakB1*, we used RN450 strain, cured of phage lysogens and with a

natural *fakB1* in-frame deletion (483-bp within the 867-bp functional gene, Fig. S6) and the

isogenic RN450-R strain, repaired for *fakB1*. The RN450-R repaired strain incorporated more

1.3DG-derived C18:2 than RN450 strain (35 ± 3% and 27± 3% respectively, Fig. 4A). Furthermore

1.3DG impairs more growth of *fakB1* defective strains (the USA300 *fakB1* mutant and RN450

strain) compared to their respective *fakB1*[+] controls (WT USA300 and RN450-R, Fig. 3; Fig. 4).

These observations identified therefore FakB1 binding as the unconventional preferred pathway

for efficient incorporation of 1.3DG-derived C18:2 into PL and as a contributor of growth

protection.

1,3-diglyceride-derived C18:2 and C16 compete for FakB1. The unexpected role of FakB1 in

C18:2 incorporation from tri- and di-glycerides (Fig. S4A, 3A, 4A) led us to ask whether C16,

favored in *hlb*[+] strains, competes for FakB1. To test this, C16 was also added in experiments

discussed above. We first established that, as reported, free C16 and free C18:2 were poorly

competitive ((16), Fig. S3). In the *fakB1* background (USA300 WT and *fakB2* mutant), addition of

free C16 led to a slight decrease in C18:2 incorporation from either TNL or 1.3DG (Fig. S4, Fig 3).

The 1.3DG-derived C18:2 incorporation is little affected in the WT (22 ± 1 % compared to 31 ±

5%) and unaffected in the *fakB1* mutant (14 ± 4 % compared to 13 ± 3%). In contrast, when only

FakB1 is available (in the *fakB2* mutant), C16 addition led to a quasi-total arrest of C18:2

incorporation (Fig. S4, Fig 3). As example, *fakb2* mutant has more than three times less 1.3DG-

derived C18:2 in the presence of C16 (6 ± 3% compared to 20 ± 7%). In RN450 (naturally fakB1

defective), *fakB2* can compensate for C18:2 incorporation from 1.3DG but C16 had no

competitive effect (Fig. 4). A direct role for *fakB1* was confirmed using RN450-R, repaired for

fakB1. Notably, total incorporation of 1.3DG-derived C18:2 is highly increased in this strain and

quasi-totally inhibited (80 ± 10% decreased) in the presence of free C16 (Fig. 4). FakB1 is

therefore a key determinant responsible for competition between C16 and 1.3DG-derived C18:2.

φ13 lysogeny delays *S. aureus* adaptation to FASII antibiotics. We showed previously that *S.*

aureus can overcome inhibition by FASII antibiotics by incorporating exogenous FA (9) . We

reasoned that φ13 and/or φ11 lysogeny might affect this process, as lipase activity might be

needed to first liberate FA. Anti-FASII adaptation of *S. aureus* lysogens and non-lysogens was

therefore compared in medium containing mouse serum, using the FabI- antibiotic AFN-1252

(44). Remarkably, the absence of φ13, but not φ11.1, resulted in faster *S. aureus* outgrowth during

anti-FASII adaptation using two different antimicrobials, AFN-1252 (Fig. 5)) and triclosan (data

not shown). This observationsuggests that restoring Hlb lipase may improve *S. aureus* access to

exogenous lipids, thereby facilitating bypass of the FASII-antibiotic block.

Discussion

S. aureus metabolism of environmental lipids is modulated by two common prophages, φ11.1

and φ13, which interrupt the lipases encoding genes *geh* and *hlb*. The present work reveals

expanded roles for these prophages on exogenous lipid utilization and bacterial fitness. Three

interactive factors determine the bacterial responses: the environmental lipid offer, which is

highly variable according to the biotope; the status of prophages, which toggle the lipase genes

and control FA content and elongation in membrane phospholipids; and the FA kinase FakB1,

which controls competitive entry of PUFA and saturated FA released from lipids. Our work

demonstrates that lysogeny by φ11.1 and φ13 protects bacteria from lipid toxicity and modulates

membrane flexibility, thus conferring a selective benefit for prophage maintenance.

We propose a model for a two-level control of FA incorporation and elongation, first by

prophages, and then by FakB1 (Fig. 6).

The first control is determined by φ11.1 lysogeny, which protects *S. aureus* from PUFA toxicity.

When TG is available, φ11.1 lysogens carrying truncated Geh show decreased PUFA C18:2

incorporation and limited elongation compared to non-φ11.1 lysogens. To our knowledge this is

the first report that Geh impacts FASII elongation efficiency. PUFA provoke membrane

permeabilization and lysis (45-50). Unlike most lipases, Geh cleavage of TG liberates both 1,2-

and 1,3-diglycerides (39, 40); direct 1.3DG addition led to greater toxicity than did 1.2DG. By

inactivating Geh, φ11.1 lysogeny exerts a protective role on *S. aureus* by limiting PUFA release

and incorporation in membrane phospholipids, and likely improves bacterial survival in natural

lipid-rich environments. Considering φ13 lysogeny, its prevalence among human clinical *S. aureus*

isolates (26) suggests a functional benefit of preventing Hlb activity. As expected, *hlb,* intact in

the absence of φ13, led to increased saturated FA incorporation from serum. Remarkably

however, intact *hlb*, which is not implicated in PUFA metabolism, also reduced PUFA

incorporation and elongation.

FakB1 defines the second level of control. While FakB1 is reportedly associated with saturated

FA binding (15-17), it also mediates efficient incorporation of C18:2 issued from 1.3DG cleavage

by Geh. Entry of 1.3DG -derived C18:2 contrasts with both free and 1.2DG-derived C18:2, which

involves mainly FakB2. Thus FakB1 binding is more permissive than initially reported, in

accordance with recent studies (16, 51, 17). We propose that FakB1 acts as a C18:2 chaperone

that prevents cytoplasmic toxicity (34), prior to membrane incorporation. FakB1-C18:2 binding

would lead to FakA-mediated C18:2 phosphorylation of FA, which is required for FA efflux, and

hence bacterial protection, *via* FarE (52). Further investigation will elucidate the TG intermediate

recognized by FakB1, and the contributions of Geh to these binding specificities.

The unexpected role of FakB1 in PUFA incorporation reveals a new role of Hlb as generating

interference with unsaturated FA incorporation. Hlb activity in φ13 non-lysogens increases entry

of saturated FA, that binds FakB1, and compete with PUFA. FakB1 is thus a gatekeeper that

selects between PUFA and saturated FA for incorporation in membrane phospholipids. If PUFA-

FakB1 binding is out-competed by saturated FA, the free intracellular PUFA would not be

phosphorylated and effluxed, thus compromising *S. aureus* survival.

We propose that the combined effects of prophages and FakB1 on FA incorporation are relevant

to *S. aureus* infection. Both φ11.1 and φ13 phage may be maintained episomally and reintegrated,

implying transient activation of *geh* and *hlb* expression (53, 26, 27, 29-31, 23); these events may

help adjust bacterial membrane lipids during infection. PUFA may in turn impact the life cycle of

these prophages.

The composition and levels of TGs and SMs vary among individuals according to their state of

health and dietary intake. These factors are determinants of infection risk and predisposition to

bacterial resistance (54-56, 43, 57, 58). TGs are major reservoirs of long chain UFA and PUFA

liberated by Geh activity and incorporation of these FA alters bacterial membrane functions and

host interactions (18, 21, 9, 59, 22). Cholesterol was recently reported to be a Geh substrate (21),

suggesting another lipid substrate that might impact *S. aureus* fitness according to prophage.

Interestingly, intact Geh contributes to masking *S. aureus* from immune surveillance by the TLR2

receptor (1, 60) and 1,2-diglycerol moieties are involved in the interaction TLR2 (61). Roles of

Geh-mediated position 2 hydrolysis and φ11.1 lysogeny on immune escape merit further

investigation.

The *in vivo* significance of φ13 impacts on PUFA incorporation and elongation is intriguing. φ13

maintenance in the *hlb* locus or integration into atypical sites was observed in non human

mammals or in cystic fibrosis disease (26, 62). Differences in the lipid environments in these cases

may select for prophage excision from its preferred site. Interestingly, *S. aureus* escape from anti-

FASII inhibition in the presence of serum was facilitated in strains carrying intact *hlb*. While the

mechanisms underlying more efficient bacterial adaptation to anti-FASII antibiotics remain to be

elucidated, a simple explanation would be an increased access to environmental FA, which

compensate the FASII block. In accordance our model (Fig. 6), saturated FA liberated from serum

sphingomyelin may protect *S. aureus* from lysis due to membrane incorporation of serum PUFA

and thus reduces latency before adaptation. These results illustrate how prophage status can

impact antimicrobial resistance, and should be considered when conducting antimicrobial

screenings.

In conclusion, φ11.1 and φ13 are interactive regulators of *S. aureus* membrane phospholipid

composition in response to environmental TGs and SMs. Our findings lead us to suggest that

prophage lysogeny contributes to protecting bacteria from lipid toxicity. Prophage instability also

offers greater membrane flexibility, which contributes to *S. aureus* adaptation in different host

biotopes. While Hlb (ß toxin) is an *S. aureus* virulence factor, we showed that it affects bacterial

fitness in response to environmental triglycerides. Thus, by controlling FA availability from

triglycerides and sphingomyelins, φ11.1 and φ13 exert a fine tuning between metabolism of

lipids and their toxicity. These results provide new mechanistic insights of *S. aureus* lipid

physiology and indicate the need to assess mechanisms of prophage/lipase switches in

developing strategies against *S. aureus* infection*.*

Materials and methods

Bacterial strains. *S. aureus* Newman, USA300 FPR3757 JE2 (called here USA300), and NCTC 8325

derivative strains RN450 and RN450-R, were used in this study. Isogenic Newman strains

differentiated by the presence of prophages were provided by Dr O. Schneewind (Department of

Microbiology, University of Chicago). Newman strain has 4 prophages which are from

Siphoviridae family: ϕ11.1, ϕ11.2 and ϕ11.3 from Sfi 11/Sa6 subfamily and ϕ13 from Sfi 21/Sa3

subfamily (24). Methicillin-resistant USA300 and the Nebraska library of transposon insertions

(University of Nebraska Medical Center) were generously supplied by BEI resources (63). USA300

derivatives from this library used in this work contained insertions in the following genes:

SAUSA300_0320 (*geh*), SAUSA300_1973 (*hlb*), SAUSA300_1119 (*fakA*), SAUSA300_0733 (*fakB1*),

SAUSA300_1318 (*fakB2*); all mutants were verified by PCR. RN450 is a phage-free derivative of

the NCTC 8325 strain (64). It was repaired for a natural *fakB1* deletion as described for another

strain (65).

Construction of *hlb* complemented strain. A PCR fragment containing the *S. aureus* subsp.

aureus COL *hlb* promoter and open reading frame from SACOL_RS10470 (-355 from ATG start

codon and +40 after TAG stop codon) was cloned in EcoRI and SmaI sites of modified pAW8 (66).

The primers pairs used for the PCR are 5'-TTGCCGGAATTCTGCAACTTAATTATAGCCAGACTTTC-3'

and 5'-CATCAACCCGGGCGTCCTTTTAGAACGAAGCAAG-3'. Genomic co-ordinates of the 1388 bp

cloned segment are 2063371-2064758, as present on plasmid phlb.

Construction of *fakB1*-repaired strain. The *fakB1* gene of *S. aureus* RN450, as the entire NCTC

8325 lineage, displays a 483-bp deletion removing 56% of the 867-bp functional gene (Fig. S6).

To repair this deletion, a 1,939-bp DNA fragment containing a functional *fakB1* was amplified as

described for other NCTC 8325 derivatives (65). The *fakB1*-repaired strain is designated as

RN450-R.

Growth media and conditions. Brain heart infusion (BHI) was the base medium for *S. aureus* cultures unless specified. Cultures were grown aerobically at 37°C and the starting OD_{600nm} was 0.02 from a preculture at OD_{600nm} between 1 and 5. Mouse serum (Clinisciences, France) was added at 10% final concentration. Stocks of trilinolein (TNL, 50 mM), 1,2-dilinoleoylglycerol (1.2DG, 50 mM), 1,3-dilinoleoylglycerol (1.3DG, 50 mM), palmitic acid (C16, 100 mM) (Larodan Fine Chemicals, Sweden) and orlistat (38 mM, MedChemExpress, France) were prepared in DMSO. Stocks of the anti-FabI antibiotic AFN-1252 (MedChemExpress, France) were prepared in DMSO (1 mg/ml), and used at a final concentration of 0.5 μg/ml. To follow *S. aureus* adaptation to AFN-1252, overnight cultures in BHI medium containing 10% mouse serum (Eurobio, France) were inoculated in the same medium containing AFN-1252. OD_{600} values were determined over a 12 hour period.

Determination of *S. aureus* fatty acid profiles. FA profiles were performed as described (10). For each condition, profiles were determined from three independent cultures. In these experiments culture aliquots were routinely taken under exponential growth at OD_{600} between 0.5 and 2. After sample preparation (10), analyses were performed in a split-splitless injection mode on an AutoSystem XL Gas Chromatograph (Perkin-Elmer) equipped with a ZB-Wax capillary column (30 m x 0.25 mm x 0.25 mm; Phenomenex, France). Data were recorded and analyzed by TotalChrom Workstation (Perkin-Elmer). FA peaks were detected between 12 and 40 min of elution, and identified by comparing to retention times of purified esterified FA standards (Mixture ME100, Larodan, Sweden). Results are shown as representative gas chromatograph profiles, or as percent of specific FA as calculated from their proportions compared to total peak areas (TotalChrom Workstation; Perkin Elmer).

Statistics analysis. Graphs were prepared using Microsoft Excel software. Means and standard

deviations are presented for culture growth (OD_{600nm}/h) and FA percentages. Statistical

significance was determined by unpaired, nonparametric Mann Whitney tests, as recommended

for small sample sizes.

Acknowledgments: We gratefully acknowledge funding from the following French granting

agencies: French Agence Nationale de la Recherche (StaphEscape project ANR-16-CE15-0013),

and the Fondation pour la Recherche Medicale (DBF20161136769). We thank Myriam Gominet

(Institut Pasteur) for the construction of the *S. aureus* RN450 *fakB1*-repaired strain.

328
FIG 1 *S. aureus* lysogenic status impacts incorporation and elongation of C18:2 derived from acylglycerides.

(*A*) Upper, site of φ13 insertion in *hlb*, encoding sphingomyelinase (Hlb). φ13 insertion results in enzyme N-terminal truncation (position 56 aa of the 330 aa protein). Lower, preferred site of φ11.1 insertion is *geh*, encoding triacylglycerol lipase (Geh). φ11-1 insertion results in truncation of the encoded triglyceride Geh (position 643 aa of the 690 aa protein).

(*B*) φ13 lysogen displays greater C18:2 incorporation from mouse serum than non-lysogen. The Newman strain (wild type, WT), a φ13 lysogen, and an isogenic Δφ13 derivative were grown 2h in BHI medium containing 10% mouse serum. FA were extracted and analyzed by gas

chromatography. The y axis represents relative FA abundance (mV response) at indicated peak positions. Black arrows indicate FA that can be endogenously produced. Red arrows indicate FA not synthesized by *S. aureus* but incorporated from serum. Representative FA profiles from four determinations are shown.

(*C*) φ13 and φ11 prophages interfere to modulate C18:2 incorporation and elongation from trilinolein. Four isogenic Newman strains (NM) vary in prophage content, including φ11.1 and φ13 (19). These isogenic strains were grown 2h in BHI medium supplemented with 30μM trilinolein (comprising 3 oleic acid moieties). Growth is presented as the absorbance increase in one hour (OD_{600nm}/h). Proportions of C18:2 and elongated forms (C20:2 and C22:2) were determined from the FA profiles as in (*A*) and presented as percent of the total FA areas for each profile (n=5).

(*D*) *geh* truncation decreases both incorporation and elongation of C18:2 from trilinolein. C18:2 incorporation from trilinolein is favored when *geh* is intact. USA300 (*geh*$^+$) and the *geh*::tn, were grown in media supplemented with TNL. The Geh inhibitor orlistat (orli; 30 μM) was added as indicated. The confirmed *geh*::tn mutant has a C-terminal truncated Geh (position 517 aa/690aa). The percent of C18:2 and its elongated forms were determined as in (B). The OD/h of the *geh*::tn mutant and the wild type were comparable (0.8 ± 0.3 for both cultures), (n=3).

(*E*) Acylated positions in a diglyceride determine C18:2 incorporation into *S. aureus* membrane phospholipids**.** The four isogenic Newman strains, which differ in φ11.1 and φ13 prophages (19) were grown 2h in BHI medium supplemented with 30 μM diglycerides comprising linoleic acid moieties; 1,2-dilinoleoylglycerol (1.2DG) or 10μM 1,3-dilinoleoylglycerol (1.3DG), (n=4). Note that 1.3DG was more incorporated and more toxic than 1.2DG; 30μM 1.3DG generated cell lysis and FA profiles of unrepresentative non-lysed subpopulation (not shown). Studies were therefore with 10μM. Percent of C18:2 and its elongated forms were determined as in (*B*). FA profiles and percent of C18:2 and elongated forms are described as in (*B*).

p-values were determined by Mann Whitney test on percent total incorporated C18:2, including elongated forms ('i'), and on percent elongation of C18:2 ('e1'), and C20:2 ('e2'); n.s., not significant.

FIG 2 Intact *hlb* favors incorporation of saturated FA and decreases incorporation of UFA from
serum. (*A*) Newman (NM) WT and Δϕ13 cultures were grown for 2 hours in BHI medium
supplemented with 10% mouse serum. The proportion of UFA (left) and SFA (right) are shown.
ϕ13 lysogeny increases unsaturated FA while lowering incorporation of C16 and elongated forms.
(*B*) Plasmid-driven expression of *hlb* increases incorporation of C16 and elongated forms, while
lowering incorporation of unsaturated FA. Cultures of the USA300 (USA) *hlb*::tn p∅ strain bearing
an empty plasmid or a plasmid carrying intact *hlb* (pHlb, derived from the COL strain) were grown
for 2.5 h in BHI supplemented with 10% mouse serum. FA extractions were performed and FA
profiles and area of FA were determined as in Fig. 1. Proportions of saturated FA (C16, C18and
C20) and unsaturated FA (C18:1Δ9, C18:1Δ11, C18:2 and C20:1) were compared to total FA
(shown as percent of total). Data presented are means ± standard deviations from three
independent experiments. p-values were determined by Mann Whitney test.
389

FIG 3 *fakB1* and C16 modulate 1.3DG-derived C18:2 incorporation and its toxicity on growth. (*A*)
Involvement of *S. aureus fakB1* in 1.3DG-mediated C18:2 incorporation. USA300, *fakB1* and *fakB2*
strains were grown 2 hours in BHI supplemented with 10µM 1.3DG. (*B*) 1.3DG-derived C18:2 and
C16 compete for FakB1. Effects of C16 (20 µM) addition on C18:2 incorporation from 1.3DG were
assessed in USA300, *fakB1*, and *fakB2* strains, as in (*A*). Representative FA profiles are shown in
(A) and (B), (n=5). (*C*) Growth of WT and *fakB* mutants under conditions described in (*A*) and (*B*),
presented as OD_{600nm} per hour. Representative profiles (*A*, *B*) or means (*C*) from four independent
experiments are presented. p-values were determined by Mann Whitney test for percent
incorporated C18:2, including elongated forms and OD/h.
410

FIG 4 Competition between 1.3DG-derived C18:2 and C16 at *fakb1* shapes incorporation into phospholipid. (*A*) FA profiles of RN450 (*fakB1⁻*) and RN450-R (*fakB1⁺*) grown 2.5 h in BHI supplemented with 10µM 1.3DG without or with 40µM C16. (*B*) Growth of RN450 and RN450-R cultures from (*A*). Data presented are representative profiles (A) or means (C) from five independent experiments. p-values were determined by the Mann Whitney test for percent incorporated C18:2 (*A*)(including elongated forms) and OD/h (*B*).

FIG 5 φ13 prophage lowers *S. aureus* adaptation to the FASII antibiotic AFN-1252. The four isogenic Newman strains (NM) vary in prophage content by the absence or presence of φ11.1 and φ13, as indicated. Strains were grown in BHI medium supplemented with 10% mouse serum containing AFN-1252 (0.5μg/ml). Kinetics of anti-FASII adaptation was followed by OD_{600} measurements. *S. aureus* undergoes a transient latency phase prior to outgrowth in AFN1252. The latency time is reduced in φ13 lysogens. Data presented are means of four independent experiments. p-values were determined by the Mann Whitney test for latency times and were significant (p<0.05) between φ13 lysogens and Δφ13 strains.

449
450
FIG 6 A mechanistic model for environmental lipid utilization by *S. aureus*; ϕ11.1, ϕ13 and *fakB1*
are lipid toxicity and membrane flexibility checkpoints.

ϕ11.1 lysogeny protects *S. aureus* from toxic C18:2 incorporation from triglyceride. ϕ11.1 in *geh*
prevents TG hydrolysis, so that *S. aureus* incorporates low amounts of C18:2. In the absence of
ϕ11.1, or upon stress-induced excision, intact Geh allows TG hydrolysis to 1.3 DG which promotes
C18:2 incorporation. 1.3DG-derived C18:2 (C18:2$^{1.3DG}$) is incorporated via the FakA-FakB kinase
system and the phosphorylated product (C18:2$^{1.3DG}$-P) may then be incorporated in
phospholipids or cycled towards FASII for rounds of elongation before incorporation. The latter
pathway is favored by intact Geh by an unknown mechanism.

FakB1 binds C18:2$^{1.3DG}$ and protects from its toxicity. Exogenous FA are phosphorylated *via* FakAB
system comprising FakA kinase and FakB1 or FakB2 acyl binding proteins, initially reported as
being specialized in saturated and unsaturated FA respectively (15, 17). Despite this bias, we
showed in this study that C18:2 from TG or 1.3DG interacts with FakB1 binding protein.

Intact *hlb* interferes with binding of C18:2$^{1.3DG}$ to FakB1, with consequences on toxicity. The
absence of ϕ13 (or oxidative stress condition) enables Hlb activity and liberation of C16 from
serum SMs. This C16 competes with C18:2$^{1.3DG}$ for FakB1 binding and increases pools of free
C18:2, which may be toxic. In contrast, ϕ13 lysogeny inactivates *hlb* and prevent sphingomyelins
(SMs) hydrolysis, thus reducing competition. The entry of C18:2$^{1.3DG}$ via FakB1 may prevent

intracellular toxicity and lead to FA elongation via FASII. φ13 lysogeny thus fine-tunes membrane
flexibility via both $C18:2^{1.3DG}$ incorporation and elongation.
$C18:2^{1.3DG}$ represents C18:2 issued from 1.3DG. Impact of φ11.1, green arrows; impact of φ13,
purple arrows; unknown mechanism of fatty acid diffusion, gray arrows. Experimental results of
this study are indicated by the star (*).
Supplementary information titles and legends

Supplementary FIG S1 φ11.1 or φ13 lysogeny has no effect on fatty acid (FA) profiles of *S. aureus*
grown in BHI medium. Four isogenic Newman strains, lysogenized or not by φ11.1 and φ13
prophages (1) were grown in BHI medium. FA were extracted at $OD_{600} = 1$ and analyzed by gas
chromatography as described in material and methods. Representative FA profiles from three
determinations are shown.

Supplementary FIG S2 Validation of free fatty acids (FA) incorporation in USA300 (WT), and *fakA,*
fakB1 and *fakB2* mutant derivatives. The indicated strains were grown in BHI in the presence of
0.17 mM each free FA, C14:0, C16:0, and C18:1. FA were extracted and analyzed as in Fig. S1. The
three exogenous FA and elongated forms are indicated in red. Data presented are representative
profiles from three independent experiments.

Supplementary FIG S3 Incorporation of free C18:2 in the *fakB2* mutant without and with C16
supplementation. The *fakB2* mutant was grown in BHI in the presence 10μM free C18:2 without
or with 40 μM C16, and fatty acids (FA) were extracted and analyzed as in Fig. S1. C16 in upper
panel corresponds to endogenous synthesis; the higher C16 peak in lower panel reflects
exogenous FA addition. Exogenous FA or their elongated forms are represented in red. Data
presented are representative profiles from three independent experiments.

Supplementary FIG S4 *fakB1* and *fakB2* mutants both mediate C18:2 incorporation from
trilinolein, but only the *fakB2* mutant is affected by C16 addition. (*A*) C18:2 incorporation from
trilinolein in USA300 wild type and *fakB* mutants. Strains were grown two hours in BHI
supplemented with 30μM trilinolein, and fatty acid (FA) profiles were determined as in Fig. S1.
The y-axis represents relative fatty acid (FA) abundance (mV response). Exogenous FA
incorporated products (C18:2, C20:2, and C22:2) are in red. (B) Cultures were prepared as in (A),
except that 20 μM C16 was further added to medium. The *fakB2* mutant, which expresses FakB1,
is totally inhibited for C18:2 incorporation. Green and red arrows indicate changes due to C16
addition on peaks of C16, and C18:2 + elongated products, respectively. (C) Growth of WT, *fakB1*
and *fakB2* strains in the presence of trilinolein supplemented or not with C16. Samples
correspond to those presented in (*A*) and (*B*); results are presented as OD_{600nm} per hour. Data
are representative profiles, (*A* and *B*) or means (*C*) from three independent experiments.

Supplementary FIG S5 *fakB2*, and not *fakB1*, affects C18:2 incorporation from 1,2-
dilinoleoylglycerol (1.2DG). C18:2 incorporation from 1.2DG was assessed in USA300 WT, *fakB1*,
and *fakB2* strains. Strains were grown two hours in BHI supplemented with 30μM 1.2DG, and
fatty acids (FA) profiles were determined as in Fig. S1). Exogenous FA incorporated products
(C18:2, C20:2, and C22:2) are in red. The *fakB2* mutant shows significant inhibition of the
cumulative percentage of C18:2 and elongated forms (10 ± 3 %) compared to wild type (34 ± 5%).
Data are representative profiles from three independent experiments.
514

515   **Supplementary FIG S6** FakB1 defect in NCTC 8325 lineage, comprising RN450. Alignment of
516   FakB1 sequences from Newman (non-NCTC 8325 lineage) and NCTC 8325 strains. The non-
517   deleted region of NCTC 8325 FakB1 shares 99% identity with the synonymous region in
518   Newman. Red arrows indicate amino acids required for FA binding and for FakA-mediated
519   phosphotransfer (1).
520

References

1. Chen X, Alonzo F, 3rd. 2019. Bacterial lipolysis of immune-activating ligands promotes evasion of innate defenses. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 116:3764-3773

2. Gajenthra Kumar N, Contaifer D, Jr., Baker PR, Ekroos K, Jefferson KK, Wijesinghe DS. 2018. Untargeted lipidomic analysis to broadly characterize the effects of pathogenic and non-pathogenic staphylococci on mammalian lipids. PLoS One 13:e0206606.

3. Sun H, Zhang X, Shi W, Fang B. 2019. Association of soft tissue infection in the extremity with glucose and lipid metabolism and inflammatory factors. Exp Ther Med 17:2535-2540.

4. Trinder M, Boyd JH, Brunham LR. 2019. Molecular regulation of plasma lipid levels during systemic inflammation and sepsis. Curr Opin Lipidol 30:108-116.

5. Brinster S, Lamberet G, Staels B, Trieu-Cuot P, Gruss A, Poyart C. 2009. Type II fatty acid synthesis is not a suitable antibiotic target for Gram-positive pathogens. Nature 458:83-6.

6. Brinster S, Lamberet G, Staels B, Trieu-Cuot P, Gruss A, Poyart C. 2010. Brief communication arising replying to: W. Balemans *et al.* Nature 462, 10.1038/nature08667 (2009).

7. Gloux K, Guillemet M, Soler C, Morvan C, Halpern D, Pourcel C, Vu Thien H, Lamberet G, Gruss A. 2017. Clinical relevance of type II fatty acid synthesis bypass in *Staphylococcus aureus*. Antimicrob Agents Chemother doi:10.1128/AAC.02515-16:61(5), e02515-16.

8. Hays C, Lambert C, Brinster S, Lamberet G, du Merle L, Gloux K, Gruss A, Poyart C, Fouet A. 2021. Type II fatty acid synthesis pathway and cyclopropane ring formation are dispensable during *Enterococcus faecalis* systemic infection. J Bacteriol 203:e0022121. doi 10.1128/JB.00221-21. 10.1128/JB.00221-21.

9. Kenanian G, Morvan C, Weckel A, Pathania A, Anba-Mondoloni J, Halpern D, Gaillard M, Solgadi A, Dupont L, Henry C, Poyart C, Fouet A, Lamberet G, Gloux K, Gruss A. 2019. Permissive fatty fcid Incorporation promotes staphylococcal adaptation to FASII antibiotics in host environments. Cell Rep 29:3974-3982 e4.

10. Morvan C, Halpern D, Kenanian G, Hays C, Anba-Mondoloni J, Brinster S, Kennedy S, Trieu-Cuot P, Poyart C, Lamberet G, Gloux K, Gruss A. 2016. Environmental fatty acids enable emergence of infectious *Staphylococcus aureus* resistant to FASII-targeted antimicrobials. Nat Commun 7:12944.

11. Morvan C, Halpern D, Kenanian G, Pathania A, Anba-Mondoloni J, Lamberet G, Gruss A, Gloux K. 2017. The *Staphylococcus aureus* FASII bypass escape route from FASII inhibitors. Biochimie 141:40-46.

12. Feingold KR, Grunfeld C. 2000. The effect of inflammation and infection on lipids and lipoproteins. *In* Feingold KR, Anawalt B, Boyce A, Chrousos G, Dungan K, Grossman A, Hershman JM, Kaltsas G, Koch C, Kopp P, Korbonits M, McLachlan R, Morley JE, New M, Perreault L, Purnell J, Rebar R, Singer F, Trence DL, Vinik A, Wilson DP (ed), Endotext, South Dartmouth (MA).

13. Kaysen GA, Ye X, Raimann JG, Wang Y, Topping A, Usvyat LA, Stuard S, Canaud B, van der Sande FM, Kooman JP, Kotanko P, Monitoring Dialysis Outcomes I. 2018. Lipid levels are inversely associated with infectious and all-cause mortality: international MONDO study results. J Lipid Res 59:1519-1528. 10.1194/jlr.P084277.

14. Delekta PC, Shook JC, Lydic TA, Mulks MH, Hammer ND. 2018. *Staphylococcus aureus* utilizes host-derived lipoprotein particles as sources of fatty acids. J Bacteriol 200:(11):e00728-17.

15. Broussard TC, Miller DJ, Jackson P, Nourse A, White SW, Rock CO. 2016. Biochemical roles for conserved residues in the bacterial fatty acid-binding protein family. J Biol Chem 291:6292-303.

16. Cuypers MG, Subramanian C, Gullett JM, Frank MW, White SW, Rock CO. 2019. Acyl-chain selectivity and physiological roles of *Staphylococcus aureus* fatty acid-binding proteins. J Biol Chem 294:38-49.

17. Parsons JB, Broussard TC, Bose JL, Rosch JW, Jackson P, Subramanian C, Rock CO. 2014. Identification of a two-component fatty acid kinase responsible for host fatty acid incorporation by *Staphylococcus aureus*. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 111:10532-7.

18.   Arsic B, Zhu Y, Heinrichs DE, McGavin MJ. 2012. Induction of the staphylococcal proteolytic
cascade by antimicrobial fatty acids in community acquired methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus*
aureus. PLoS One 7:e45952.
19.   Bae T, Baba T, Hiramatsu K, Schneewind O. 2006. Prophages of *Staphylococcus aureus* Newman
and their contribution to virulence. Mol Microbiol 62:1035-47.
20.   Bosch M, Sanchez-Alvarez M, Fajardo A, Kapetanovic R, Steiner B, Dutra F, Moreira L, Lopez JA,
Campo R, Mari M, Morales-Paytuvi F, Tort O, Gubern A, Templin RM, Curson JEB, Martel N, Catala
C, Lozano F, Tebar F, Enrich C, Vazquez J, Del Pozo MA, Sweet MJ, Bozza PT, Gross SP, Parton RG,
Pol A. 2020. Mammalian lipid droplets are innate immune hubs integrating cell metabolism and
host defense. Science 370, aay8085.
21.   Hines KM, Alvarado G, Chen X, Gatto C, Pokorny A, Alonzo F, 3rd, Wilkinson BJ, Xu L. 2020.
Lipidomic and ultrastructural characterization of the cell envelope of *Staphylococcus aureus*
grown in the presence of human serum. mSphere 5. doi 10.1128/mSphere.00339-20.
22.   Nguyen MT, Hanzelmann D, Hartner T, Peschel A, Gotz F. 2016. Skin-specific unsaturated fatty
acids boost the *Staphylococcus aureus* innate immune response. Infect Immun 84:205-15.
23.   Ubeda C, Maiques E, Knecht E, Lasa I, Novick RP, Penades JR. 2005. Antibiotic-induced SOS
response promotes horizontal dissemination of pathogenicity island-encoded virulence factors in
staphylococci. Mol Microbiol 56:836-44.
24.   Goerke C, Pantucek R, Holtfreter S, Schulte B, Zink M, Grumann D, Broker BM, Doskar J, Wolz C.
2009. Diversity of prophages in dominant *Staphylococcus aureus* clonal lineages. J Bacteriol
191:3462-8.
25.   Lee CY, Iandolo JJ. 1985. Mechanism of bacteriophage conversion of lipase activity in
Staphylococcus aureus. J Bacteriol 164:288-93.
26.   Goerke C, Koller J, Wolz C. 2006. Ciprofloxacin and trimethoprim cause phage induction and
virulence modulation in *Staphylococcus aureus*. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 50:171-7.
27.   Goerke C, Wirtz C, Fluckiger U, Wolz C. 2006. Extensive phage dynamics in Staphylococcus aureus
contributes to adaptation to the human host during infection. Mol Microbiol 61:1673-85.
28.   Jung P, Abdelbary MM, Kraushaar B, Fetsch A, Geisel J, Herrmann M, Witte W, Cuny C, Bischoff
M. 2017. Impact of bacteriophage Saint3 carriage on the immune evasion capacity and hemolytic
potential of *Staphylococcus aureus* CC398. Vet Microbiol 200:46-51.
29.   Salgado-Pabon W, Herrera A, Vu BG, Stach CS, Merriman JA, Spaulding AR, Schlievert PM. 2014.
Staphylococcus aureus beta-toxin production is common in strains with the beta-toxin gene
inactivated by bacteriophage. J Infect Dis 210:784-92.
30.   Tang Y, Nielsen LN, Hvitved A, Haaber JK, Wirtz C, Andersen PS, Larsen J, Wolz C, Ingmer H. 2017.
Commercial Biocides Induce Transfer of Prophage Phi13 from Human Strains of *Staphylococcus*
aureus to Livestock CC398. Front Microbiol 8:2418.
31.   Tran PM, Feiss M, Kinney KJ, Salgado-Pabon W. 2019. phiSa3mw prophage as a molecular
regulatory switch of *Staphylococcus aureus* beta-toxin production. J Bacteriol 201:e00766-18.
32.   Parsons JB, Frank MW, Jackson P, Subramanian C, Rock CO. 2014. Incorporation of extracellular
fatty acids by a fatty acid kinase-dependent pathway in *Staphylococcus aureus*. Mol Microbiol
92:234-45.
33.   Cadieux B, Vijayakumaran V, Bernards MA, McGavin MJ, Heinrichs DE. 2014. Role of lipase from
community-associated methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* strain USA300 in hydrolyzing
triglycerides into growth-inhibitory free fatty acids. J Bacteriol 196:4044-56.
34.   Zheng CJ, Yoo JS, Lee TG, Cho HY, Kim YH, Kim WG. 2005. Fatty acid synthesis is a target for
antibacterial activity of unsaturated fatty acids. FEBS Lett 579:5157-62.
35.   Kitadokoro K, Tanaka M, Hikima T, Okuno Y, Yamamoto M, Kamitani S. 2020. Crystal structure of
pathogenic *Staphylococcus aureus* lipase complex with the anti-obesity drug orlistat. Sci Rep
10:5469.
36.   Ikeda I, Yoshida H, Tomooka M, Yosef A, Imaizumi K, Tsuji H, Seto A. 1998. Effects of long-term
feeding of marine oils with different positional distribution of eicosapentaenoic and

docosahexaenoic acids on lipid metabolism, eicosanoid production, and platelet aggregation in
hypercholesterolemic rats. Lipids 33:897-904.

37. Schuhmacher M, Grasskamp AT, Barahtjan P, Wagner N, Lombardot B, Schuhmacher JS, Sala P,
Lohmann A, Henry I, Shevchenko A, Coskun U, Walter AM, Nadler A. 2020. Live-cell lipid
biochemistry reveals a role of diacylglycerol side-chain composition for cellular lipid dynamics and
protein affinities. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 117:7729-7738.

38. Yoshinaga K, Sasaki K, Watanabe H, Nagao K, Inoue N, Shirouchi B, Yanagita T, Nagai T, Mizobe H,
Kojima K, Beppu F, Gotoh N. 2015. Differential effects of triacylglycerol positional isomers
containing n-3 series highly unsaturated fatty acids on lipid metabolism in C57BL/6J mice. J Nutr
Biochem 26:57-63.

39. Douchet I, De Haas G, Verger R. 2003. Lipase regio- and stereoselectivities toward three
enantiomeric pairs of didecanoyl-deoxyamino-O methyl glycerol: a kinetic study by the
monomolecular film technique. Chirality 15:220-6.

40. Horchani H, Ben Salem N, Chaari A, Sayari A, Gargouri Y, Verger R. 2010. Staphylococcal lipases
stereoselectively hydrolyse the sn-2 position of monomolecular films of diglyceride analogs.
Application to sn-2 hydrolysis of triolein. J Colloid Interface Sci 347:301-8.

41. Lyberg AM, Adlercreutz P. 2008. Lipase specificity towards eicosapentaenoic acid and
docosahexaenoic acid depends on substrate structure. Biochim Biophys Acta 1784:343-50.

42. Hammad SM, Pierce JS, Soodavar F, Smith KJ, Al Gadban MM, Rembiesa B, Klein RL, Hannun YA,
Bielawski J, Bielawska A. 2010. Blood sphingolipidomics in healthy humans: impact of sample
collection methodology. J Lipid Res 51:3074-87.

43. Hanamatsu H, Ohnishi S, Sakai S, Yuyama K, Mitsutake S, Takeda H, Hashino S, Igarashi Y. 2014.
Altered levels of serum sphingomyelin and ceramide containing distinct acyl chains in young
obese adults. Nutr Diabetes 4:e141.

44. Kaplan N, Albert M, Awrey D, Bardouniotis E, Berman J, Clarke T, Dorsey M, Hafkin B, Ramnauth
J, Romanov V, Schmid MB, Thalakada R, Yethon J, Pauls HW. 2012. Mode of action, in vitro activity,
and in vivo efficacy of AFN-1252, a selective antistaphylococcal FabI inhibitor. Antimicrob Agents
Chemother 56:5865-74. 10.1128/AAC.01411-12.

45. Butcher GW, King G, Dyke KG. 1976. Sensitivity of *Staphylococcus aureus* to unsaturated fatty
acids. J Gen Microbiol 94:290-6.

46. Desbois AP, Smith VJ. 2010. Antibacterial free fatty acids: activities, mechanisms of action and
biotechnological potential. Appl Microbiol Biotechnol 85:1629-42.

47. Kabara JJ, Swieczkowski DM, Conley AJ, Truant JP. 1972. Fatty acids and derivatives as
antimicrobial agents. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2:23-8.

48. Kelsey JA, Bayles KW, Shafii B, McGuire MA. 2006. Fatty acids and monoacylglycerols inhibit
growth of *Staphylococcus aureus*. Lipids 41:951-61.

49. Knapp HR, Melly MA. 1986. Bactericidal effects of polyunsaturated fatty acids. J Infect Dis 154:84-
94.

50. Zhang Q, Wu W, Zhang J, Xia X. 2020. Antimicrobial lipids in nano-carriers for antibacterial
delivery. J Drug Target 28:271-281.

51. Krute CN, Ridder MJ, Seawell NA, Bose JL. 2019. Inactivation of the exogenous fatty acid utilization
pathway leads to increased resistance to unsaturated fatty acids in *Staphylococcus aureus*.
Microbiology 165:197-207.

52. Alnaseri H, Kuiack RC, Ferguson KA, Schneider JET, Heinrichs DE, McGavin MJ. 2019. DNA binding
and sensor specificity of FarR, a novel TetR family regulator required for induction of the fatty scid
efflux pump FarE in *Staphylococcus aureus*. J Bacteriol 201.

53. Deutsch DR, Utter B, Verratti KJ, Sichtig H, Tallon LJ, Fischetti VA. 2018. Extra-chromosomal DNA
sequencing reveals episomal prophages capable of impacting virulence factor expression in
Staphylococcus aureus. Front Microbiol 9:1406.

54. Al-Daghri NM, Torretta E, Barbacini P, Asare H, Ricci C, Capitanio D, Guerini FR, Sabico SB, Alokail
MS, Clerici M, Gelfi C. 2019. Sphingolipid serum profiling in vitamin D deficient and dyslipidemic
obese dimorphic adults. Sci Rep 9:16664.

55.   Astorg P, Bertrais S, Laporte F, Arnault N, Estaquio C, Galan P, Favier A, Hercberg S. 2008. Plasma
675   n-6 and n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids as biomarkers of their dietary intakes: a cross-sectional
676   study within a cohort of middle-aged French men and women. Eur J Clin Nutr 62:1155-61.
677   56.   Dobner J, Kaser S. 2018. Body mass index and the risk of infection - from underweight to obesity.
678   Clin Microbiol Infect 24:24-28.
679   57.   Hodson L, Skeaff CM, Fielding BA. 2008. Fatty acid composition of adipose tissue and blood in
680   humans and its use as a biomarker of dietary intake. Prog Lipid Res 47:348-80.
681   58.   Trinder M, Walley KR, Boyd JH, Brunham LR. 2020. Causal inference for genetically determined
682   levels of high-density lipoprotein cholesterol and risk of infectious disease. Arterioscler Thromb
683   Vasc Biol 40:267-278.
684   59.   Lopez MS, Tan IS, Yan D, Kang J, McCreary M, Modrusan Z, Austin CD, Xu M, Brown EJ. 2017. Host-
685   derived fatty acids activate type VII secretion in *Staphylococcus aureus*. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A
686   114:11223-11228.
687   60.   Nguyen MT, Luqman A, Bitschar K, Hertlein T, Dick J, Ohlsen K, Broker B, Schittek B, Gotz F. 2018.
688   Staphylococcal (phospho)lipases promote biofilm formation and host cell invasion. Int J Med
689   Microbiol 308:653-663.
690   61.   Jimenez-Dalmaroni MJ, Radcliffe CM, Harvey DJ, Wormald MR, Verdino P, Ainge GD, Larsen DS,
691   Painter GF, Ulevitch R, Beutler B, Rudd PM, Dwek RA, Wilson IA. 2015. Soluble human TLR2
692   ectodomain binds diacylglycerol from microbial lipopeptides and glycolipids. Innate Immun
693   21:175-93.
694   62.   Rohmer C, Wolz C. 2021. The role of *hlb*-converting bacteriophages in *Staphylococcus aureus* host
695   adaption. Microb Physiol 31:109-122.
696   63.   Fey PD, Endres JL, Yajjala VK, Widhelm TJ, Boissy RJ, Bose JL, Bayles KW. 2013. A genetic resource
697   for rapid and comprehensive phenotype screening of nonessential *Staphylococcus aureus* genes.
698   mBio 4:e00537-12.
699   64.   Herbert S, Ziebandt AK, Ohlsen K, Schafer T, Hecker M, Albrecht D, Novick R, Gotz F. 2010. Repair
700   of global regulators in *Staphylococcus aureus* 8325 and comparative analysis with other clinical
701   isolates. Infect Immun 78:2877-89.
702   65.   Pathania A, Anba-Mondoloni J, Gominet M, Halpern D, Dairou J, Dupont L, Lamberet G, Trieu-Cuot
703   P, Gloux K, Gruss A. 2021. (p)ppGpp/GTP and malonyl-CoA modulate *Staphylococcus aureus*
704   adaptation to FASII antibiotics and provide a basis for synergistic bi-therapy. mBio 12:e03193-20.
705   doi 10.1128/mBio.03193-20.
706   66.   Katayama Y, Zhang HZ, Hong D, Chambers HF. 2003. Jumping the barrier to beta-lactam resistance
707   in *Staphylococcus aureus*. J Bacteriol 185:5465-72.
708