1 *Staphylococcus aureus* overcomes anaerobe-derived short-chain fatty acid stress via FadX and 2 the CodY regulon

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- 20 Running Title: Mechanisms of *S. aureus* short-chain fatty acid stresses

21 Abstract

22

Chronic rhinosinusitis (CRS) is characterized by immune dysfunction, mucus hypersecretion, and 23 24 persistent infection of the paranasal sinuses. While Staphylococcus aureus is a primary CRS pathogen, 25 recent sequence-based surveys have found increased relative abundances of anaerobic bacteria. 26 suggesting that S. aureus may experience altered metabolic landscapes in CRS relative to healthy 27 airways. To test this possibility, we characterized the growth kinetics and transcriptome of S. aureus in 28 supernatants of the abundant CRS anaerobe Fusobacterium nucleatum. While growth was initially 29 delayed, S. aureus ultimately grew to similar levels as in the control medium. The transcriptome was 30 significantly affected by F. nucleatum metabolites, with the agr quorum sensing system notably 31 repressed. Conversely, expression of fadX, encoding a putative propionate coA-transferase, was 32 significantly increased, leading to our hypothesis that short chain fatty acids (SCFAs) produced by F. 33 nucleatum could mediate S. aureus growth behavior and gene expression. Supplementation with 34 propionate and butyrate, but not acetate, recapitulated delayed growth phenotypes observed in F. 35 nucleatum supernatants. A fadX mutant was found to be more sensitive than wild type to propionate, 36 suggesting a role for FadX in the S. aureus SCFA stress response. Interestingly, spontaneous resistance 37 to butyrate, but not propionate, was frequently observed. Whole genome sequencing and targeted 38 mutagenesis identified codY mutants as resistant to butyrate inhibition. Together, these data show that S. 39 aureus physiology is dependent on its co-colonizing microbiota and metabolites they exchange, and 40 indicate that propionate and butyrate may act on different targets in S. aureus to suppress its growth.

41 Importance

42 S. aureus is an important CRS pathogen, yet is found in the upper airways of 30-50% of people without 43 complications. The presence of strict and facultative anaerobic bacteria in CRS sinuses has recently 44 spurred research into bacterial interactions and how they influence S. aureus physiology and 45 pathogenesis. We show here that propionate and butyrate produced by one such CRS anaerobe, F. 46 nucleatum, alter the growth and gene expression of S. aureus. We show that fadX is important for S. 47 aureus to resist propionate stress, and that the CodY regulon mediates growth in inhibitory concentrations 48 of butyrate. This work highlights the possible complexity of S. aureus-anaerobe interactions, and 49 implicates membrane stress as a possible mechanism influencing S. aureus behavior in CRS sinuses.

50 **INTRODUCTION**

51 Chronic rhinosinusitis (CRS) is an inflammatory condition of the sinuses that is broadly 52 characterized by facial pain, mucus hypersecretion and accumulation, immune dysfunction, pathogen 53 colonization, and persistent polymicrobial infection^{1–6}. Although CRS affects up to 15% of the population 54 and represents a substantial economic burden, its complexity has slowed development of new treatments and therapeutic strategies⁷. CRS patients are frequently prescribed antibiotics, yet many do not respond 55 56 and require functional endoscopic sinus surgery (FESS) to remove accumulated mucus and inflamed 57 mucosa that prevents proper sinus drainage⁵. Given the urgent threat of antimicrobial resistance among 58 CRS microbiota, there is a critical need to better understand microbial community dynamics in the upper 59 airways and how they may contribute to disease⁸.

60 Staphylococcus aureus is a frequently isolated CRS pathogen and is aggressively targeted by 61 antibiotic therapy, yet, this bacterium is also prevalent and abundant in the upper airways of asymptomatic healthy individuals^{9,10}. This seeming paradox suggests that colonization by *S. aureus* is 62 63 not sufficient to drive disease, but rather that there may be important environmental cues in the upper 64 airways that shift the lifestyle of S. aureus towards commensalism or pathogenesis. Indeed, in a genome-65 wide association study of S. aureus isolated from 28 CRS patients, few S. aureus genetic signatures 66 were associated with CRS subtypes, suggesting that S. aureus pathogenesis in CRS is unlikely due to 67 selection for increased production of a particular toxin¹¹.

68 Application of culture-independent genomics to the study of CRS has led to a paradigm shift from 69 a small number of etiologic bacterial species toward a polymicrobial basis of disease^{4,5,12}. However, the 70 role of the greater CRS microbiome in disease pathophysiology remains poorly understood. To address 71 this knowledge gap, we recently surveyed 16S rRNA gene sequences in FESS-derived mucus from a 72 cohort of CRS patients and found increased relative abundances of numerous anaerobic bacterial taxa, 73 including many known to degrade mucin glycoproteins⁶. CRS bacterial communities enriched on mucins 74 as a sole carbon source converged on similar profiles, typically dominated by a combination of 75 Streptococcus, Prevotella, Fusobacterium, and Veillonella. Interestingly, S. aureus had a variety of 76 growth phenotypes and gene expression patterns when cultured in supernatants from these enrichment

communities, indicating that nutrient usage and metabolite release by co-colonizing microbiota can profoundly affect *S. aureus* physiology⁶. Enrichment supernatants that best supported *S. aureus* growth had low levels of short-chain fatty acids (acetate, propionate, butyrate; SCFAs) and undetectable levels of *Fusobacterium*, members of which are known for producing SCFAs as amino acid fermentation byproducts^{13,14}. However, neither growth promotion nor inhibition could be ascribed to any one taxon or metabolite within these communities.

83 In this study, we extend our previous work by demonstrating that F. nucleatum metabolites 84 impede S. aureus growth and repress transcription of the accessory gene regulator (agr) guorum sensing 85 system while inducing a putative fatty acid degradation operon (fadXEDBA). We confirm that the SCFAs 86 propionate and butyrate are sufficient to impair S. aureus growth and alter gene expression, while acetate 87 had relatively little effect. We show that growth of a $\Delta fadX$ mutant is significantly attenuated in the 88 presence of propionate only, despite differing from butyrate by only one carbon. Spontaneous resistance 89 to growth inhibition by butyrate arose frequently, while we failed to obtain propionate resistant mutants. 90 Genome sequencing of butyrate resistant mutants identified premature stop codons and in-frame 91 deletions in the gene encoding the nutrient-responsive global regulator codY, indicating a connection 92 between de-repression of the CodY regulon through nutrient limitation and SCFA resistance. These data 93 suggest that certain anaerobes may influence CRS community structure by limiting S. aureus growth via propionate and butyrate production. In addition, they implicate the CodY regulon as a mechanism 94 95 allowing S. aureus persistence in otherwise inhospitable anaerobic bacterial communities of the upper 96 airways.

97

98 MATERIALS AND METHODS

99 Bacterial strains and growth conditions. Bacterial strains used throughout this study are shown in 100 Table S1. Plasmids and primers used for mutagenesis and complementation can be found in Table S2 101 and S3, respectively. *Staphylococcus aureus* strains USA300 LAC, JE2 and *fadX*::tn transposon mutant 102 (obtained from the Nebraska Transposon Mutant Library) were routinely cultured aerobically at 37°C on 103 LB agar (IBI Scientific IB49020) or with shaking at 220 rpm in LB broth, both supplemented as needed

104 with 10 µg/mL chloramphenicol (Cm, Teknova C0325)^{6,15}. S. aureus was also grown in cell free 105 supernatants (CFS) of Fusobacterium nucleatum ATCC 25586 that had been cultured anaerobically for 106 48 h in BBL Brucella Broth (BD 2011088) supplemented with 250 µg/mL and 50 µg/mL of hemin and 107 vitamin K (Hardy Diagnostics Z237), respectively. To test the effects of specific SCFAs on S. aureus 108 growth and gene expression, the sodium salts of acetate (Fisher Scientific S209), propionate (Sigma 109 P1880), or butyrate (Sigma 303410) were added at various concentrations to LB then passed through a 110 0.22 µm polyethersulfone (PES) filter prior to use. Escherichia coli strain One Shot TOP10 111 (ThermoFisher Scientific C404010) was used for cloning the fadX mutagenesis plasmid while E. coli 112 DC10B was used for plasmid passaging to prevent cytosine methylation to facilitate easier transfer to S. 113 aureus. E. coli strains were routinely grown on and in LB with 20 µg/mL Cm or 100 µg/mL ampicillin 114 (Amresco 0339) as needed.

Growth curves. Overnight cultures of wild type *S. aureus* and various mutants were diluted 1:100 in sterile PBS, then 5 μ L was added to 195 μ L of growth medium per well in a 96 well microtitre dish. Plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 h in a BioTek Synergy H1 microplate reader for 24 h, with five seconds of orbital shaking performed prior to hourly OD₆₀₀ readings.

119 **Biofilm guantification.** The crystal violet staining of biofilm material was performed according to Merritt 120 et al¹⁶. Briefly, overnight S. aureus LB cultures were centrifuged at 5,000 rpm for 5 minutes and washed 121 once with sterile PBS. They were sub-cultured 1:100 into fresh media in a 96 well microtiter plate and 122 incubated statically at 37°C for 48 h, after which time the OD₆₀₀ values were recorded in a BioTek Synergy 123 H1 microplate reader. Plates were then inverted to remove the cultures, washed three times in water, 124 and allowed to dry. The wells were stained with 0.1% w/v crystal violet for 15 minutes at room 125 temperature. The crystal violet was removed, and the plates were washed a further three times in water 126 and allowed to dry. The dye was solubilized with 30% acetic acid for 15 minutes and then the absorbance 127 at 560 nm was recorded. The OD₅₆₀ was normalized to the OD₆₀₀ for each well to generate the final 128 values.

129 **RNA extraction.** For S. aureus growth in anaerobe cell-free supernatants and in LB with or without SCFA 130 supplementation, 2 mL of growth medium was inoculated 1:100 with S. aureus overnight LB cultures and 131 grown at 37°C with shaking at 220 rpm. Growth of each culture was monitored until they reached an 132 OD₆₀₀ of ~0.2 to 0.3, after which they were centrifuged for 1 min at 14,000 rpm. Supernatants were 133 discarded, and pellets suspended in 50 µL of fresh LB supplemented with 20 µg/mL of lysostaphin 134 (Sigma-Aldrich L7386). These were then incubated in a 37°C water bath for 15-20 min or until the 135 suspension cleared (no longer than 30 min). One mL of TRIzol Reagent (ThermoFisher 15596018) was 136 added to the lysate, pipetted gently until mixed, and incubated at room temperature (RT) for 5 min. 200 137 µL of chloroform (VWR 0757) was added per tube and samples were vigorously shaken for 15 s, then 138 incubated at RT for 5 min. Phase separation was performed by centrifugation at 12,000 rpm for 15 min 139 at 4°C. ~500 µL of the aqueous phase was removed and added to 500 µL of 95% ethanol (Decon 140 Laboratories, Inc. UN1170), vortexed for 5 s and incubated at RT for 5 min. RNA was then isolated using 141 the Zymo RNA Clean & Concentrator-5 kit according to the manufacturer's instructions, including an on-142 column DNase I treatment.

143 **NanoString analysis of S. aureus gene expression.** A custom NanoString probe set (Table S4) was 144 designed to target transcripts for several key S. aureus virulence factors, metabolic genes, and global 145 regulators. The probe set also included six housekeeping genes for normalization. DNase I-treated RNA 146 from S. aureus grown in triplicate to OD₆₀₀ ~0.2 to 0.3 in control medium (Brucella Broth, BB) or 48 h cell-147 free supernatants from F. nucleatum (Fn CFS) was submitted to the University of Minnesota Genomics 148 Center (UMGC) for hybridization to the custom probe set. Raw data were imported into the nSolver 149 Advanced Analysis software package for normalization and differential gene expression analysis using 150 default settings. Transcripts were considered differentially expressed if their levels changed by two-fold 151 and the Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-value was less than 0.05. The heatmap was constructed using 152 the pheatmap package (v.1.0.12) in R (v.4.1.0)¹⁷.

Reverse transcription and quantitative real-time PCR. 1.5 μg of RNA was reverse transcribed using
 M-MuLV Reverse Transcriptase (NEB M0253L) following the manufacturer's protocol. cDNA was diluted

155 1:15 in sterile water prior to use in qRT-PCR using SsoAdvanced Universal SYBR Green Supermix (Bio 156 Rad 1725271). PCR products for each gene being assayed (see Table S3 for primer sequences) were 157 used to construct standard curves for quantification. To determine relative copy number, transcript levels 158 were normalized to the housekeeping gene *gmk* (guanylate kinase), which was confirmed to be 159 consistent across growth conditions.

160 **Construction of a S. aureus** $\Delta fadX$ deletion mutant. ~500 bp sequences flanking the fadX gene (SAUSA300 0229) were amplified by PCR using Q5 DNA Polymerase (NEB M0491L). For cloning 161 162 purposes, the upstream amplicon contained a 5' KpnI restriction site and the downstream amplicon 163 contained a 3' SacI site, while the internal ends contained complementary overhangs to facilitate overlap 164 extension PCR to fuse the fragments together. The final product was a ~1 kb fragment encoding the first 165 11 codons and the stop codon of fadX. The amplicon was digested with KpnI-HF (NEB R3142S) and 166 SacI-HF (NEB R3156S) and cloned into the temperature sensitive, counter-selectable mutagenesis plasmid pIMAY with T4 DNA ligase (NEB M0202)¹⁸. The $\Delta fadX$ plasmid was transformed into *E. coli* 167 168 DC10B, then electroporated (2900 V, 25 μ F, 100 Ω) in a 2 mm cuvette into *S. aureus*. The culture was 169 grown at the plasmid replication permissive temperature of 28°C with shaking for 4 h, after which time it 170 was plated onto LB + 10 µg/mL Cm and incubated on the benchtop for 48 h. The single colony that was 171 obtained was streaked onto two LB + Cm plates. One was incubated on the benchtop for 48 h to generate 172 a freezer stock and the other was incubated at 37°C. Cm-resistant colonies were screened via PCR for 173 chromosomal integration of the plasmid. Positive colonies were grown in LB in the absence of selection 174 at 37°C for 24 h, subcultured 1:1000 into fresh LB for another 24 h, then plated onto LB + 1 µg/mL 175 anhydrotetracycline hydrochloride (Sigma Aldrich 37919) for counter-selection via induction of the TetR-176 regulated secY antisense RNA and incubated overnight at 37°C. Resultant colonies were patched onto 177 fresh counter-selection agar and LB + Cm to screen for loss of the plasmid. Cm-sensitive clones were 178 screened by PCR for loss of fadX coding sequence and four were confirmed as mutants by Sanger 179 seauencina.

HPLC method for extraction and measurement of organic acids in complex media. Reversed-phase
 high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) was used for the targeted quantification of acetate,

182 butyrate, and propionate in cell free supernatants. Organic acids of interest were purified from complex media components through a modified liquid-liquid extraction method¹⁹. To account for analyte loss 183 184 during extraction, 100µL of 0.2M succinate was added as an internal standard to 2mLs of each sample (9.5mM final concentration)¹⁹. After equilibration at room temperature for 5 min, 200µL of 12N HCl was 185 186 added, and samples were vortexed for 15 seconds. 10mL of diethyl ether was then added to each sample 187 before gently rolling them for a total of 30 min. After centrifugation for 5 min at 4000rpm, supernatants 188 were transferred to a new extraction tube and 1mL of 1M NaOH was added before gently rolling for 189 another 30 min. The resulting aqueous phase was extracted and transferred to an autosampler vial 190 followed by addition of 100µL of 12N HCL before vortexing and storage at 4°C until analysis.

191 Samples were analyzed using a Dionex UltiMate 3000 UHPLC (Thermo Fisher) system equipped 192 with a reversed-phase Acclaim Organic Acid (OA) Column (5µm, 120 A, 4.0 X 250mm). 8µL of each 193 sample was injected and separation was achieved using a 32-minute isocratic instrument method (1.0 194 mL/min, 30°C) employing Na₂SO4 (100mM, pH 2.6) as the mobile phase. The column was allowed to 195 equilibrate for 8 min prior to sample injection. Absorbance was monitored at 210nm to identify compounds 196 with a carboxylic acid functional group. Chromatograms were processed using Dionex Chromeleon 7 197 (Thermo Fisher) Chromatography Data System. Cobra Wizard was used to reproducibly identify and gate 198 peaks of interest.

199 **Isolation and genome sequencing of butyrate resistant mutants.** The $\Delta fadX$ mutant was grown for 200 24 hours in LB, serially diluted, plated onto LB supplemented with 200 mM sodium butyrate, and 201 incubated overnight at 37°C. Four large colonies were re-streaked onto the same media to confirm their 202 ability to grow in the presence of butyrate. Genomic DNA was then isolated from our S. aureus USA300 203 LAC isolate and butyrate-resistant mutants using the PowerSoil Pro kit (Qiagen 47014). Overnight 204 cultures were pelleted and suspended in 200 µL of an enzymatic lysis buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, 2 mM 205 EDTA, 1.2% (vol/vol) Triton X-100, and 20 µg/mL lysostaphin) for 30 min at 37°C. Lysates were 206 transferred to Power Bead tubes and the manufacturer's protocol was followed with no further alterations. 207 Genomic DNA was processed and sequenced on the Illumina MiSeq platform at the Microbial Genome

208 Sequencing Center (MiGS, Pittsburgh, PA). Raw paired-end fastg files were imported into Geneious 209 v.2022.0.1 and trimmed for guality using BBDuk with the following settings: Set ORDERED to true, k=27, 210 mink=6, maskMiddle=true, hamming distance=1, right-ktrimming using 1 reference, guality-trimming both 211 ends to Q30. Trimmed reads for our USA300 isolate were mapped to the S. aureus subsp. aureus 212 USA300 FPR3757 reference genome (CP000255) using the Geneious Mapper on medium-low 213 sensitivity with a minimum mapping quality of 20 and only mapping reads whose pair mapped 214 appropriately nearby. The assembled USA300 genome was then used as the reference against which 215 reads from the butyrate resistant mutants were mapped using the same guality trimming and mapping 216 strategy detailed above. Putative SNPs and indels were detected using the "Find Variations/SNPS..." 217 function within Geneious, requiring occurrence of the variation in >90% of reads, with a minimum of 10 218 reads.

Data availability. Raw sequences were deposited at NCBI's Sequence Read Archive (SRA) with the
BioProject ID PRJNA798706.

221

222 **RESULTS**

223 S. aureus growth is impaired by F. nucleatum. In a previous study of upper airway (CRS) microbiota, 224 we found that in patients (n=27) with detectable Fusobacterium, relative abundances of Staphylococcus 225 were minimal or below the level of detection (Fig. $1A)^6$. When S. aureus was grown in supernatants 226 derived from anaerobic enrichment cultures of CRS sinus mucus, it exhibited slower growth in those that 227 had *Fusobacterium* as a core constituent genus of the enrichment community. These supernatants also 228 contained higher levels of the short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs) propionate and butyrate⁶. Given these 229 data, we hypothesized that *Fusobacterium* spp. exert an antagonistic effect on *S. aureus* through the 230 production of SCFAs. To test this, we grew S. aureus USA300 LAC in filtered cell-free supernatants 231 (CFS) from F. nucleatum ATCC 25586 grown for 48 h in Brucella Broth (BB) supplemented with hemin 232 and vitamin K (Fig. 1B). S. aureus grew in Fn CFS, albeit slower than in the control medium (BB) with an 233 increased lag phase. However, both cultures reached approximately similar OD₆₀₀ values by 24 h, 234 indicating that S. aureus was able to obtain sufficient nutrients over the course of the experiment. We

235 reasoned that the extended lag phase was likely due to F. nucleatum-mediated depletion of an easily 236 metabolizable nutrient source and/or the presence of an inhibitory metabolite(s) that S. aureus was able 237 to adapt to over time. We tested the latter by measuring acetate, propionate, and butyrate content of the 238 CFS before and after S. aureus growth (Fig. 1C). All three SCFAs were detected in F. nucleatum CFS 239 (~5mM acetate, ~5mM propionate, ~15mM butyrate). After overnight growth (~16 h) in F. nucleatum 240 supernatants, S. aureus cultures had increased acetate levels, while propionate and butyrate remained 241 the same as in CFS alone, indicating that S. aureus does not actively metabolize the latter two SCFAs 242 under these conditions. We interpret this to mean that S. aureus adapts to SCFAs by modifying its 243 physiology rather than directly detoxifying them via degradation. The increased acetate levels are likely 244 due to S. aureus utilization of glucose remaining in Fn CFS, as F. nucleatum preferentially ferments 245 amino acids^{20,21}. Given that S. aureus growth is similarly impaired when BB is supplemented with the 246 sodium salts of acetate (5mM), propionate (5mM), and butyrate (15mM)(Fig. 1B), these data suggest that 247 SCFAs may be key factors driving bacterial interactions in the CRS sinus environment, providing a 248 mechanism by which Fusobacterium and other anaerobes may restrict S. aureus growth in vivo.

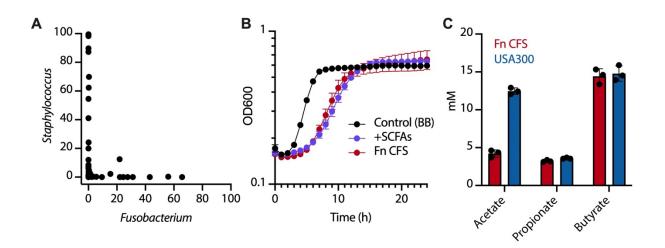


Figure 1. S. aureus growth is impaired in *F. nucleatum* supernatants. A) Relative abundances of *Fusobacterium* and *Staphylococcus* in sinus mucus from patients with chronic rhinosinusitis are inversely correlated (Lucas, et al 2021). B)
 Representative growth curve of *S. aureus* USA300 in brucella broth (BB, control), BB supplemented with 5mM acetate, 5mM
 propionate, and 15mM butyrate, and cell-free supernatants from *F. nucleatum* (Fn CFS). C) Production of SCFAs by *F. nucleatum* after 48h (Fn CFS) and their levels after *S. aureus* (USA300) growth in Fn CFS.

255 F. nucleatum metabolites significantly alter S. aureus gene expression. We next determined how 256 S. aureus modified its transcriptome in F. nucleatum CFS. To do so, we performed a targeted analysis 257 using a custom NanoString code set (Table S4) that included 34 genes encoding several known virulence 258 factors, key metabolic genes, and master regulators of gene expression (Fig. 2A). Of these genes, we 259 detected thirteen differentially expressed transcripts (≥2-fold change in expression and adjusted p-260 value<0.05); expression of fadX, cidA, icaB, and gltB increased while nanA, alsS, IrgA, narG, agrA, hla, 261 hld, saeR, and ldh1 decreased in S. aureus grown on CFS relative to BB alone (Fig. 2B). A number of 262 other transcripts (aur. fib. pai. codY. opp3b. and arIR) were statistically significant, but exhibited less than 263 two-fold change in expression (Table S4). Decreased signaling through the quorum-sensing response 264 regulator agrA in Fn CFS results in lower expression of the hla and hld genes, encoding alpha and delta 265 hemolysins²². Neuraminate lyase, encoded by nanA, is induced by the presence of sialic acids and 266 exhibited lower expression in Fn CFS, indicating that F. nucleatum likely utilized sialic acids present in Brucella Broth as a nutrient source^{23,24}. Expression of the nutrient-sensing transcriptional regulator codY 267 268 was reduced in Fn CFS by nearly 50% compared to the control medium, likely explaining the increase in the glutamate synthase subunit gene $gltB^{25}$. We selected three genes (fadX, agrA, and nanA) for 269 270 validation via quantitative reverse-transcription PCR and show that they were highly correlated with the 271 NanoString results (Fig. S1). That nearly half of the transcripts in the NanoString probe set are 272 differentially regulated in Fn CFS, including a number of major transcriptional regulators important for 273 integrating metabolic cues and virulence gene expression, highlights the global nature of alterations to 274 the S. aureus transcriptome. These data show that S. aureus physiology can be significantly influenced 275 by the metabolic activity of a single anaerobic species and underscore the possible complexity of bacterial 276 behaviors and interactions within a diverse CRS community.

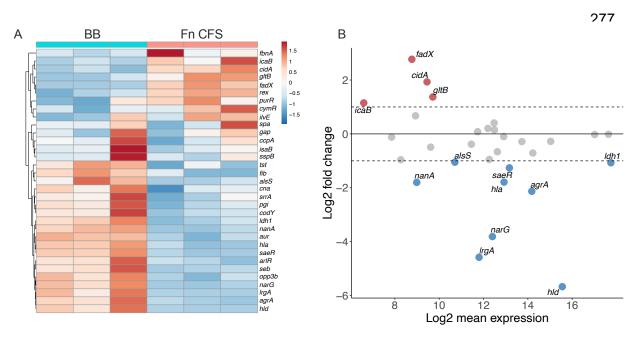


Figure. 2. *F. nucleatum* metabolites significantly impact the *S. aureus* transcriptome. A) Heatmap depicting log10-transformed *S. aureus* gene expression in control media (BB) and *F. nucleatum* supernatant (CFS) as detected by NanoString. Genes were clustered with unsupervised hierarchical clustering. B) MA plot representation of *S. aureus* gene expression in Fn CFS relative to the control medium. Genes were considered significant if they had a log2 fold change \geq 1 and a Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-value < 0.05.

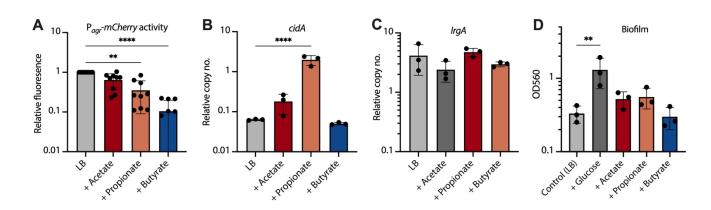
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286 SCFAs significantly alter S. aureus gene expression. SCFAs, especially propionate and butyrate, have been reported to impair S. aureus growth and attenuate murine skin infections²⁶. We therefore 287 288 sought to determine if individual SCFAs were sufficient to drive some of the S. aureus gene expression 289 patterns observed after growth in Fn CFS. To measure the effects of each SCFA on the agr quorum 290 sensing system, we grew S. aureus carrying pAH1 (encoding Paur-mCherry) in LB or LB supplemented 291 with acetate, propionate, or butyrate for 24 h and measured fluorescence intensity normalized to culture 292 density (Fig. 3A). All three SCFAs led to decreased fluorescence, with propionate (p=0.0035) and 293 butyrate (p<0.0001) significantly inhibiting reporter activity, while acetate (p=0.203) had the least effect. 294 Given these observations, CRS bacterial communities dominated by Fusobacterium and other taxa that 295 produce propionate and butyrate would not only be predicted to impede the growth of S. aureus, but also 296 minimize the production of *agr*-regulated virulence factors.

297 Given the reduction in *agr* quorum sensing activity and thus lack of repression of proteins involved 298 in surface attachment, we hypothesized that SCFAs may be a pro-biofilm signal to *S. aureus*²⁷. We

299 performed qRT-PCR on S. aureus grown to OD₆₀₀ ~0.2-0.3 in LB or LB supplemented with 100 mM of 300 each individual SCFA to determine if biofilm-associated transcripts identified as differentially regulated in 301 Fn CFS were affected. We found that expression of *cidA*, encoding a holin-like protein involved in 302 programmed cell death and extracellular DNA release during biofilm formation, was approximately ten-303 fold higher (p<0.0001) in the presence of propionate, but was relatively unaffected by acetate or butyrate (Fig. 3B)²⁸. Conversely, there was no effect of SCFAs on the expression of *IrgA*, which encodes a putative 304 305 anti-holin that is antagonistic to CidA²⁸. This suggests that decreased *IrqA* expression detected in Fn CFS 306 is likely independent of the SCFAs tested here (Fig. 3C). Despite increased *cidA* expression, SCFA 307 supplementation of LB had marginal effects on biofilm production, with acetate and propionate leading 308 inducing modest but insignificant increases relative to LB alone, and butyrate having no detectable effect 309 (Fig. 3D). The lack of downregulation of IrgA under these conditions suggests that sufficient LrgA protein 310 may be available to offset any increased CidA activity. Alternatively, other environmental cues may be 311 needed to enhance biofilm formation under these conditions.

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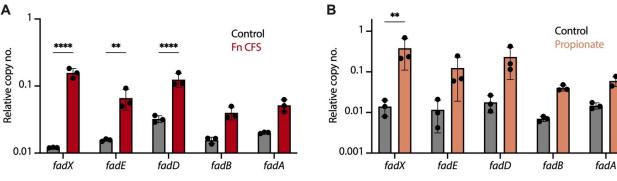


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315 Fig. 3. Propionate and butyrate repress the S. aureus agr system but fail to induce biofilm. A) S. aureus 316 carrying pAH1 (Pagr-mCherry) was grown for 24 hours in LB supplemented with 100 mM of sodium acetate, 317 propionate, or butyrate (n=3 biological replicates with n=3 cultures per replicate). Fluorescence was measured and 318 normalized to culture density for each replicate, then normalized to the LB controls. B, C) Expression of *cidA* and 319 IrgA from S. aureus in LB supplemented with SCFAs (n=3). Copy number was determined via standard curve and 320 normalized to the gmk housekeeping gene. D) Crystal violet assay quantifying biofilm formation in LB, LB 321 supplemented with glucose (positive control for increased biofilm formation), or LB supplemented with 100 mM of 322 each SCFA.

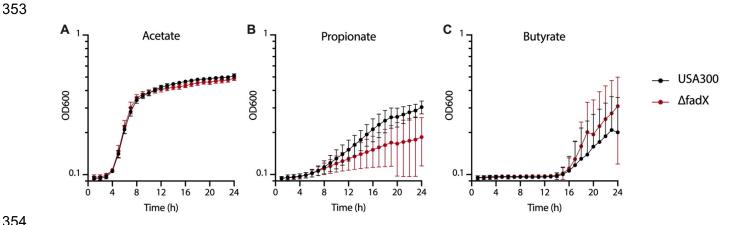
323 The fadX gene mediates propionate resistance. The most highly induced transcript in S. aureus grown 324 in Fn CFS was fadX, encoding a putative propionate CoA-transferase, the first in a five gene operon 325 predicted to be involved in fatty acid degradation. Given their annotation, we hypothesized that the fad 326 operon may encode a component of the S. aureus SCFA stress response. The fad genes were induced 327 after growth in Fn CFS and in the presence of propionate and butyrate: their status as an operon was 328 confirmed by obtaining amplicons from cDNA using PCR primer sets that spanned each intergenic region 329 (Fig. 4, Fig. S2). We tested a *fadX* transposon mutant (obtained from the Nebraska Transposon Mutant 330 Library) and its parental strain (JE2) for the ability to grow in 100 mM propionate, and found that fadX::tn 331 had a significant growth defect in propionate relative to the wild type (Fig. S3). The mutant grew as well 332 as the parent strain in LB alone, indicating that growth inhibition was specific to propionate in the medium. 333 We then performed dose-response growth curves in six concentrations of sodium propionate, ranging 334 from 100 mM to 3.125 mM in two-fold reductions, and found clear growth differences between JE2 and 335 fadX::tn, with the mutant having a defect in media with as low as 12.5 mM (Fig. S4A).

336 To determine if the transposon insertion in the *fadX*::tn mutant disrupted the entire *fad* operon, 337 we performed gRT-PCR and confirmed that the three genes downstream of fadX had considerably 338 reduced expression in LB (Fig. S4B). We therefore constructed a $\Delta fadX$ deletion mutant in the USA300 339 LAC background and tested its growth in LB supplemented with each SCFA (Fig. 5). Relative to wild 340 type, there was no growth defect in acetate, however there was modest inhibition of the mutant in 341 propionate, with growth curves diverging after approximately 8-10 hours and remaining consistent 342 through the end of the experiments. Neither strain grew well in butvrate, though sporadic growth was 343 detected after ~15 h, irrespective of genotype and only in butyrate. Together, these data implicate FadX 344 in ameliorating or resisting propionate stress, though the mechanism remains unclear. Further, the 345 occasional growth of either strain at later time points in butvrate, but not propionate, provides indirect 346 evidence that these SCFAs may have different mechanisms of S. aureus growth inhibition.



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Figure 4. The fad operon is induced by propionate and butyrate. A) Quantitative reverse transcription PCR was used to detect fad operon expression in control (BB) or Fn CFS, or B) in LB supplemented with 100 mM sodium propionate. Cultures were grown to an OD₆₀₀ of approximately 0.2-0.3 prior to RNA extraction. Data shown are mean +/- standard deviation of three biological replicates.



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355 Figure 5. The *AfadX* mutant is more susceptible to growth inhibition by propionate than wild type. Combined 356 growth curves (n=4) of wild type USA300 or the $\Delta fadX$ mutant in 100 mM of the sodium salts of A) acetate, B) 357 propionate, or C) butyrate. Data shown are the mean +/- standard deviation of three biological replicates. 358

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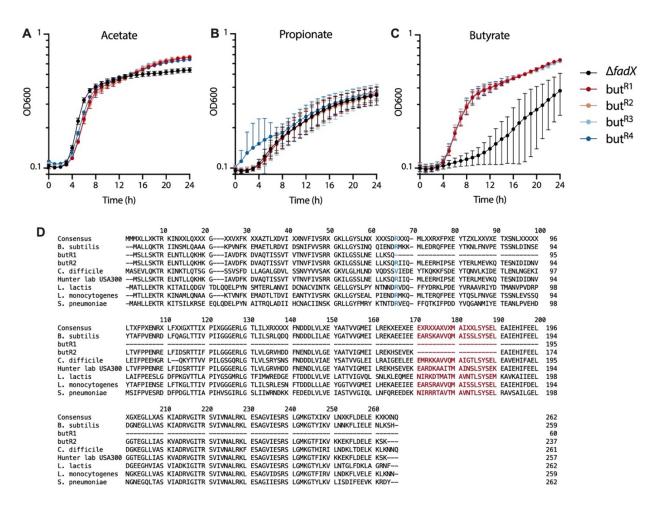
360 codY mutants are resistant to butyrate.

361 Although occasional growth was detected in LB supplemented with butyrate after ~15 hours of 362 incubation, it consistently occurred in only one of three technical replicates of a given sample (either wild 363 type or $\Delta fadX$). These wells were plated onto LB and mannitol salt agar to confirm the absence of 364 contamination and that the observed turbidity was due solely to S. aureus growth. To further investigate 365 this phenomenon, we grew the $\Delta fadX$ mutant for 24 h in LB, then plated ten-fold serial dilutions onto LB agar + 200 mM sodium butyrate. Large colonies were occasionally observed in the 10⁻² dilutions after 366 367 overnight incubation, which we assumed to be due to increased resistance to butyrate. Patching these

368 colonies onto the same medium confirmed their resistance phenotype. We interpret these data to mean 369 that butyrate resistant mutants arose spontaneously in LB starter cultures, and that the occasional 370 turbidity in LB + butyrate cultures after ~15 hours represents growth after an extended lag phase resulting 371 from their extremely low starting abundance.

372 Growth curves in each SCFA were then performed to determine if the large colonies had a growth 373 advantage over the parental strain. We found that all four large colonies grew significantly faster in the 374 presence of butyrate than the parental strain, yet there were no differences in media supplemented with 375 acetate or propionate (Fig. 6A-C). We then sequenced their genomes to identify genetic determinant(s) 376 of butyrate resistance, and found two independent mutations in the gene encoding the GTP- and 377 branched chain amino acid-sensing global regulator CodY. The first mutation resulted in a premature 378 stop codon truncating the protein after 65 amino acids, while the second led to a 20 amino acid deletion 379 from a conserved region of the protein at codons 171-190 (Fig. 6D). We repeated growth curves using a 380 JE2 codY::tn mutant (with an intact fadX gene) and confirmed that codY mutation alone was sufficient to 381 rescue growth in the presence of butyrate (Fig. 7A). Finally, we performed qRT-PCR on JE2 and the 382 codY::tn mutant to assay for fad operon expression and found that while the operon was modestly 383 induced in the mutant, none of the genes reached significance (Fig. 7B). These data, coupled with the 384 fact that codY mutants have similar levels of growth impairment in propionate is further evidence that 385 propionate and butyrate may act on different targets to inhibit *S. aureus* growth.

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Figure 6. Spontaneous *S. aureus codY* mutants are not inhibited by butyrate. Combined growth curves of the $\Delta fadX$ mutant and butyrate-resistant derivatives in 100 mM A) sodium acetate, B) sodium propionate, or C) sodium butyrate. D) Alignment of CodY protein sequences from diverse Gram-positive bacteria and *S. aureus*, including butyrate resistant mutants (but^{R1} and but^{R2}). but^{R1} encodes a premature stop codon at position 66 (blue), while but^{R2-4} mutants have a 20 amino acid deletion from positions 171-190 (red). but^{R3} and but^{R4} mutants were omitted from the alignment as their codY mutations are identical to but^{R2}.

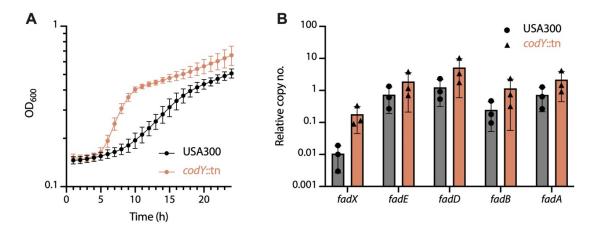


Figure 7. *codY* mutation is sufficient to escape butyrate growth inhibition, though not likely through Fad activity. A) Growth of wild type *S. aureus* and a *codY*::tn mutant in 100 mM sodium butyrate. B) Expression of the fad operon from the same strains as in A, grown in LB to an OD₆₀₀ of approximately 0.2-0.3.

398 **DISCUSSION**

399 Although not lethal, CRS remains a significant source of morbidity for a large percentage of the population 400 $(\sim 15\%)$, and recalcitrance to antibiotic therapy often requires invasive surgical intervention⁵. The recent 401 advances in bacterial community profiling by 16S amplicon sequencing has revealed extensive 402 colonization of CRS sinus mucus with oral anaerobes and other taxa not frequently observed via 403 traditional culture-based methods^{4,6}. While *S. aureus* is appreciated as a significant CRS pathogen, it 404 coexists with these communities and must adapt to the sinonasal microenvironment shaped by both host 405 and microbial processes. Many of the anaerobes associated with CRS release nutrients in the form sialic 406 acid and other carbohydrates, peptides and amino acids, and byproducts of mixed-acid fermentation⁶. 407 One such class of metabolites, short-chain fatty acids, are derived from amino acid-fermenting 408 anaerobes, particularly members of the Fusobacterium genus²⁹. Our goals in this work were to (i) 409 determine if Fusobacterium nucleatum, a model member of the Fusobacteria, could impair S. aureus 410 growth, (ii) characterize the response of S. aureus to individual SCFAs, and (iii) identify potential 411 mechanisms of SCFA stress.

412 We show that F. nucleatum produces millimolar amounts of the SCFAs acetate, propionate, and 413 butyrate, and that S. aureus has an extended lag phase and significant alterations to its transcriptome 414 when grown in F. nucleatum supernatants or control medium supplemented with SCFAs. Consistent with 415 a prior study, propionate and butyrate were both inhibitory to S. aureus growth, though we found that butyrate was more potent in this regard²⁶. Both SCFAs were sufficient to reduce expression of the master 416 417 regulator of virulence, agrA, and alter expression of metabolic pathways (cidA and the fad operon), in 418 support of the hypothesis that SCFAs were responsible for altered gene expression and the delayed lag 419 phase in F. nucleatum supernatants. Reduced agr-regulated virulence factor output may alter the 420 inflammatory tone of the CRS sinus environment, with the host response instead being directed towards 421 members of the anaerobic community rather than S. aureus. In support of this idea, CRS patients have 422 been reported to have circulating antibodies targeting Fusobacterium and Prevotella, members of which 423 were enriched in CRS sinus mucus in our previous study, and that they show a decline in these antibodies after successful antibiotic therapy^{6,30}. Alternatively, butyrate produced by anaerobes in the CRS sinus 424

environment may occasionally select for *S. aureus codY* mutants, whose growth inhibition would be relieved³¹. Such mutants overproduce numerous virulence factors, and as such, may exacerbate the inflammatory response³². Whatever the case, the recent development of robust animal models of CRS will facilitate our ability to test these hypotheses *in vivo*^{33,34}.

429 While the mechanisms of action of propionate and butyrate on S. aureus are still unclear, our data 430 suggest that they may act on different targets. Propionate induced expression of the fad operon and a 431 fadX mutant exhibited worse growth in its presence than did the wild type strain. The fad operon 432 annotation suggests a role in fatty acid degradation, though it is unlikely that it acts directly on propionate. 433 as S. aureus showed no evidence of metabolizing it over time (Fig. 1C). Another possibility is that 434 propionate induces lipid membrane stress, and the Fad proteins may act to degrade or repair damaged 435 lipid species. This consistent with recent findings from human gut commensal Bacteroides, where 436 butyrate (rather than propionate) induced membrane stress in a species- and context-dependent 437 manner³⁵. Butyryl-CoA levels were increased by Acyl-CoA enzymatic activity, suggesting that other CoA-438 regulated enzymes could be starved of an essential cofactor, likely imparing several metabolic processes. 439 While butyrate also induced expression of fadX, we did not detect a mutant phenotype in LB 440 supplemented with 100 mM butyrate, suggesting that the other members of the fad operon may 441 compensate for the loss of fadX under these conditions, or that they are less important for the response 442 to butyrate. Interestingly, we readily obtained spontaneous butyrate resistance in the form of codY 443 mutations, while we did not for propionate. Further, butyrate resistant codY mutants were as sensitive to 444 propionate as the parent strain, suggesting that each SCFA may have unique mechanisms of action on 445 S. aureus. CodY is an allosteric transcriptional regulator whose affinity for specific motifs in promoter regions is dictated by the levels of GTP and branched chain amino acids in the cell³⁶. As it regulates 446 447 hundreds of genes in S. aureus, determining which CodY target(s) are responsible for bypassing 448 butyrate-mediated growth inhibition are beyond the scope of this work, though transposon screens in a 449 codY mutant background may prove fruitful in this regard.

In summary, we have identified a possible mechanism by which anaerobic bacteria in polymicrobial airway infections may influence *S. aureus* growth and physiology via the activity of the

452 short-chain fatty acids propionate and butyrate, and have identified the fad operon and the CodY regulon 453 as possible mechanisms of resistance, respectively. Our study has some limitations, as the experiments 454 were performed in *F. nucleatum* supernatants *in vitro* and in defined media conditions rather than in the 455 context of intact anaerobic communities or two-species co-cultures. Additionally, our experiments lack 456 the potential contributions of the host, such as reactive oxygen and nitrogen species, or cationic 457 antimicrobial peptides^{37,38}. Despite these limitations, the genetic approach taken here is informative and 458 amenable to translation into animal models for further dissection of the effects of CRS bacterial 459 communities on S. aureus pathogenesis.

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