The Ferrous Iron Transporter FeoB1 is Essential for *Clostridioides difficile* Toxin

Production and Pathogenesis in Mice

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ABSTRACT

Ferrous iron is the dominant form of iron in the oxygen-limited large intestine, the site for *Clostridioides difficile* infection (CDI). We investigated the extent to which *C. difficile* requires the ferrous iron transporter 1 (FeoB1), a main permease for iron acquisition, using *in vitro* and *in vivo* approaches. Construction of *feoB1* deletion mutant in *C. difficile* R20291 (i.e., R20291Δ*feoB1*) decreased intracellular iron content by ~25%. This was accompanied by downregulation of *tcdA* and *tcdB* genes and reduced synthesis of TcdA and TcdB toxins, which was reflected by a ~1000-fold reduction in cytopathy against Vero cells. Complementation with WT *feoB1* restored toxin production. Transcriptional and biochemical analyses revealed Δ*feoB1* altered metabolic pathways that negatively impact toxin production, including downregulation of the oxidative branch of the Kreb cycle and an associated cellular accumulation of pyruvate. Hence FeoB1 influences multiple bioenergetic and redox pathways, which in turn inhibits toxin biosynthesis. R20291Δ*feoB1* was avirulent in mice with underlying colitis. In this model, mice are prone to develop severe CDI, but mice infected with the mutant lacked diarrheal symptoms, had lesser inflammatory responses, bacterial bioburdens and cecal toxin titers. These results strongly imply that ferrous iron acquisition and homeostasis is central to toxin metabolism and virulence. Hence targeting FeoB1 could be a potential therapeutic strategy to impede the colonization and pathogenesis of *C. difficile*, even in the setting of colitis where intestinal bleeding may occur and CDI is more severe.

INTRODUCTION

Clostridioides difficile infection (CDI) is a leading cause of hospital-acquired diarrhea, with 30,600 and 20,500 in-hospital deaths in 2011 and 2017, respectively (1). The main risk factor for CDI is prior antibiotic use, which causes dysbiosis (2). Treatment with anti-*C. difficile* antibiotics, vancomycin, metronidazole or fidaxomicin, are associated with recurrence rates that may be 20% or higher (3-5). CDI symptoms range from mild-to-moderate diarrhea to severe pseudomembranous colitis, resulting from epithelial damage by *C. difficile* toxins TcdA and TcdB (6). These toxins glycosylate GTPases (e.g., Rho, Rac, Cdc42) to block actin polymerization, leading to cytoskeletal disruption, loss of barrier integrity, and ultimately epithelial and sub-epithelial cell death, which drives inflammation and tissue damage (6). While neutralizing these toxins is a validated clinical approach (7), targeting their biosynthesis represents a promising and emerging therapeutic strategy (8).

TcdA and TcdB are chromosomally encoded within the pathogenicity locus (PaLoc) and are subject to various levels of metabolic regulatory control (6). PaLoc encodes the following: alternative sigma factor TcdR, which activates transcription of *tcdA* and *tcdB*; the TcdR antagonist TcdC that represses *tcdA* and *tcdB*; and the holin-like protein TcdE that exports the toxins. TcdA and TcdB are produced in the late logarithmic and stationary phases of growth and are regulated by various environmental and nutritional changes. For example, *tcdA* and *tcdB* are repressed by metabolizable sugars (e.g., glucose) and metabolism of amino acids like proline, cysteine, and branched-chain amino acids (BCAAs) (9-11). Glucose activates catabolite repression through the global regulator CcpA that binds upstream of promoters in PaLoc, particularly the *tcdR* promoter, to block transcription of *tcdA* and *tcdB* (9). During logarithmic growth, high intracellular concentrations of GTP bind to the nutritional regulator CodY, which in

turn binds to regions of the *tcdR* promoter (12). Pyruvate build-up also suppresses toxin

production via an unresolved mechanism that might involve nutrient sensing and metabolic

control via the YpdA/YpdB pyruvate sensing two-component system (11); pyruvate is pivotal to

several anaplerotic reactions, linking glycolysis, amino acid metabolism, and the TCA cycle, and

contributes to maintaining NAD^+/NADH balance (13). Conversely, butyrate enhances the

synthesis of toxins by an unknown mechanism that may be related to NAD+ regeneration via

alternative fermentative pathways that produce butyrate (14, 15). These and other examples, , all

point to there being a complex metabolic and regulatory network for *C. difficile* toxin production.

Within environments that are anaerobic and acidic, such as the gastrointestinal tract, iron

mainly exists as ferrous iron (16, 17). Gut bacteria must therefore be able to obtain ferrous iron

in the microaerophilic and anaerobic niches of the intestine. *C. difficile* is thought to be limited in

its iron capture mechanisms, as it appears to lack heme degrading enzymes related to heme

oxygenases or staphylococcal IsdG (18, 19); it is also unable to robustly grow on transferrin or

lactoferrin (20). *C. difficile* also encodes a ferric (Fe^{3+}) hydroxamate transporter (FhuDBGC) to

capture xenosiderophores, but its deletion did not attenuate colonization and virulence in mice

(21). However, *C. difficile* stores ferrous iron (Fe^{2+}) in structures known as ferrosomes that are

made by FezA and FezB and deletion of FezA attenuates infectivity in mice (22). Thus, the

acquisition of Fe^{2+} is crucial for *C. difficile* metabolism and virulence, but direct studies on the

high affinity ferrous iron transporter (Feo transporter) is lacking.

The Feo system plays an essential role in iron acquisition by bacteria in the intestinal

tract (16, 23), and mainly consists of FeoA, a small cytoplasmic protein, and FeoB, the

membrane-bound permease that is thought to transport ferrous iron into cells; FeoC is also

present in some Feo systems. FeoA is thought to interact with the cytoplasmic domain of FeoB

to regulate ferrous iron transport (24-27). FeoC is under characterized but was shown to interact

with FeoB *in vitro* (25). *C. difficile* encodes three Feo transporter systems of which Feo1 is

thought to be the main iron-responsive transporter. Under iron-limiting conditions, *feoB1* is the

most transcribed *feo* homolog and is upregulated by >200-fold in mice (11, 28-30). In *C.*

difficile, deletion of *feoB1* in non-toxigenic ATCC 700057 did not affect growth in Brain Heart

Infusion (BHI) broth, but reduced iron content by approximately 21% and also redox-mediated

activity of metronidazole (31). Iron deficiency also perturbs *C. difficile* metabolism, including

shifting cells from ferredoxin to flavodoxin-mediated reactions; increases intracellular

concentrations of pyruvate and glucose (30, 31); and enhances proline reduction via Stickland

metabolism (30). Herein, we show that iron deficiency caused by loss of *feoB1* impacts *C.*

difficile toxin production and pathogenesis, and was associated with increased intracellular

pyruvate and avirulence in mice.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Loss of *feoB1* impairs toxin production. R20291 was adopted as a model strain of epidemic

ribotype 027 (32) to delete *feoB1* by allelic exchange to generate R20291Δ*feoB1*; deletion was

confirmed by PCR and Sanger sequencing (**Fig S1**). Growth of R20291Δ*feoB1* in BHI broth was

not substantially affected, when compared to WT R20291 (**Fig 1A**). Measurement of

intracellular iron content, by ICP-OES, revealed a ~25% reduction in iron content in

R20291Δ*feoB1* (0.087 ± 0.006 ppm) compared to the WT (0.116 ± 0.007 ppm) (**Fig 1B**; p ≤0.01,

by unpaired t-test). These results are comparable to the *feoB1* deletion mutant of non-toxigenic

ATCC 700057, which experienced a ~21% reduction in intracellular iron when grown in BHI

(31). We next quantified toxins in the supernatants of 24 h cultures using an ELISA kit from

tgcBIOMICS GmbH. Toxin concentrations in R20291Δ*feoB1*, for TcdA (5.72 ± 3.94 ng/ml) and

TcdB (2.50 ± 1.65 ng/ml), were significantly lower than those produced by WT R20291 ($227.4 \pm$

18.24 ng/ml; and 111.2 ± 6.10 ng/ml, respectively) ($p<0.0001$ and $p<0.0001$, by one-way

ANOVA) (**Fig 1C**). Complementation of R20291Δ*feoB1* with WT *feoB1*, ectopically expressed

from its own promoter, increased the synthesis of both toxins (81.04 ± 10.36 ng/ml; and $23.03 \pm$

5.05 ng/ml, for TcdA and TcdB, respectively (**Fig 1C**) ($p<0.0015$ and $p<0.0041$, by one-way

ANOVA). Comparable results were attained in cytopathic assays that measure toxin-induced cell

rounding of mammalian cells and detects picomolar amounts of toxins (33). Against Vero cells,

R20291Δ*feoB1* had toxin titers of $\leq 10^1$, which was 1000-fold lower than the titers of WT

cultures (10^4 toxin titer; **Fig. 1D**); the complemented strain (R20291Δ*feoB1*_WT *feoB1*) had

toxin titers of 10^3 to 10^4. These findings were confirmed by automated morphometric analysis of

cell rounding to avoid potential bias from manual visualization of cells; as shown in **Fig 1E**

1:1000 diluted supernatants for R20291, R20291Δ*feo*B1 and R20291Δ*feoB1*_WT *feoB1* caused

88.70 ± 1.60, 10.54 ± 0.52 and 52.02 ± 0.74 percentage cell rounding, respectively; noteworthy,

cell rounding of Vero cells is more due to TcdB than TcdA (34). Taken together, Δ*feoB1*

diminished intracellular iron content and restricted the biosynthesis of TcdA and TcdB, without

affecting growth rates in R20291 in BHI.

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C. difficile **adjust its metabolism to compensate for lack of FeoB1.** Ferrous iron is required by

enzymes involved in multiple metabolic pathways in *C. difficile*, which that are adopted at

various stages of growth (13). Hence, the transcriptome of R20291Δ*feoB1* was analyzed to

identify metabolic and virulence-associated pathways that are most affected in mid-logarithmic

(OD=0.3), late-logarithmic (OD=0.6) and stationary phase (OD=0.9) stages of growth.

Significantly differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were based on $p \leq 0.02$ and Log_2fold change

(FC) ≥ 1.5 i.e., FC≥2.8 following analysis in CLC Genomics Workbench version 12 (**Table S1**).

Table 1 highlights selected pathways/genes affected by Δ*feoB1*, including genes that were

identified at a less strict criteria of Log$_2$fold change (FC) ≥ 0.58 i.e., FC≥1.5. Across the three

growth phases, there were 435 common differentially expressed genes, of which 151 were

upregulated and 284 were downregulated (**Fig S1**). The transcriptome data revealed Δ*feoB1*

affected redox and flavin-dependent processes (**Table 1**; **Fig. 2A-C**; **Fig. S1**). Although our

studies were done in BHI media, expression changes seen in our RNAseq were generally

comparable to those reported for a *C. difficile* CD630 *fur* mutant that was grown in low iron

media (30), including carbohydrate metabolism, iron homeostasis, pathogenesis, flagellar

proteins, cell wall biosynthesis genes (**Table 1**). As described below, we focused on gene

signatures that are linked to iron metabolism and *C. difficile* pathogenesis, indicating how *C.*

difficile coped with reduced intracellular iron content.

Iron-responsive gene transcription. Iron starvation in *C. difficile* increases the transcription of

flavodoxin (*fldx*), ferric uptake regulator (*fur*), riboflavin biosynthesis and alternate iron uptake

transporters (30). Throughout the growth of R20291Δ*feoB1* there was upregulation of the

flavodoxin encoded by *CDR20291_1925*; riboflavin biosynthesis genes *ribB* and *ribD*; and

downregulation of *CDR20291_2756*, encoding the iron storage protein bacterioferritin (**Table 1;**

Fig. 3A). Upregulation of flavodoxin and riboflavin biosynthesis genes reflect a metabolic shift

to adopt flavin cofactors, to likely substitute for the iron-dependent ferredoxin (35, 36).

Downregulation of bacterioferritin suggests cells sought to increase cellular availability of iron,

by decreasing storage of ferric iron in bacterioferritin. Interestingly, the expressions of *fezA* and

fezB (*CDR20291_1517* and *CDR20291_1516*) were not substantially affected throughout

growth, which contrasts with observations in CD630, where iron limiting conditions caused by

bipyridyl exposure reduced mid-logarithmic growth (37). However, in our study, growth in BHI

was not attenuated, nor was iron limited, allowing us to map effects that are not due to

significant growth defects. However, alternate iron acquisition transporters were also upregulated

such as ferrichrome-specific ABC transporter genes (*fhuC* and *fhuD*) (**Fig. 3A**), the low-affinity

zinc transporter encoded by *zupT* and Feo2 encoded by *feoA2* and *feoB2* genes (**Table 1**).

Increased expression of *zupT* also occurred in *C. difficile* CD630 under bipyridyl-induced iron

limiting conditions (37) but it is unknown whether ZupT transports iron as previously shown in

Escherichia coli (20). Deletion of *zupT* in *C. difficile* was reported to impair colonization in

mice, although its effect on toxin production was not described (38).

Relationship between FeoB1, pyruvate metabolism and toxin production. In R20291Δ*feoB1*

(**Fig 3B**) PaLoc genes were significantly downregulated, including *tcdA* and *tcdB*, the sigma

factor *tcdR* and holin *tcdE* (**Table 1**). Thus, the low levels of TcdA and TcdB in supernatants

from R20291Δ*feoB1* directly correlate with reduced expression of *tcdA* and *tcdB*, suggesting loss

of *feoB1* enhanced their regulatory control. We recently reported that Δ*feoB1* and disruption of

iscR encoding iron-sulfur cluster regulator caused pyruvate accumulation in non-toxigenic

ATCC 700057 (31). Since pyruvate build-up negatively impacts toxin production (11), we

measured this metabolite in R20291Δ*feoB1* and found that it accumulated throughout all three

growth phases, when compared to R20291 (**Fig 3C**). This was especially pronounced in the

stationary phase, having a 34.48% increase in pyruvate, compared to 7.84% and 11.94% in mid-

and late-logarithmic cultures, respectively. Pyruvate feeds into multiple metabolic pathways,

where it can be converted to formate by pyruvate-formate lyase (Pfl); lactate by lactate

dehydrogenase (Ldh); acetyl-CoA by pyruvate-ferredoxin oxidoreductase (NifJ); or enter the

incomplete Krebs cycle of *C. difficile* to be converted to oxaloacetate by pyruvate carboxylase

(Pyc) (13). Many of these genes were differentially regulated in the transcriptome (**Table 1**). In

cultures at OD ~0.6 *pflD* and *pflE* were increased by 3.09- and 3.39-fold, respectively but were

not significantly differentially expressed in stationary phase cultures. *C. difficile* encodes an

incomplete Krebs cycle, in which pyruvate enters the oxidative branch via Pyc, which converts it

to oxaloacetate. Oxaloacetate is then metabolized to citrate, likely by homocitrate synthase

(NifV, CDR20291_0762), followed by conversion to isocitrate and 2-oxoglutarate, catalyzed by

aconitase   (CDR20291_0763)   and   isocitrate/3-isopropylmalate   dehydrogenase

(CDR20291_0764),   respectively   (39).   Interestingly,   *pyc*   was   approximately   two-fold

downregulated   (-2.2   to   -2.64)   throughout   the   growth   cycle.   *CDR20291_0762*   to

CDR20291_0764 were also all downregulated in the transcriptome (-1.89 to 12.93-fold across

the three growth phases (**Table 1**). RT-qPCR of *pyc*, *CDR20291_0763* and *CDR20291_0764*

confirmed their downregulation (**Fig. 3D**). Thus, it is likely that downregulation of *pyc* and the

oxidative branch of the Kreb cycle contributed to the build-up of pyruvate.

Deletion of *feoB1* attenuated virulence in mice with colitis CDI. Given that loss of *feoB1*

elevated pyruvate levels and attenuated toxin production *in vitro*, we examined the virulence of

R20291Δ*feoB1* in a model of colitis CDI in C57BL/6 showing that loss of *feoB1* attenuated

pathogenesis (**Fig. 4A-D**). Since this model is characterized by intestinal bleeding it enabled

assessment of R20291Δ*feoB1* virulence in a setting that favors iron availability in the large

bowel. Infection with WT R20291 resulted in half of the mice becoming moribund, whereas all

fifteen mice infected with R20291Δ*feoB1* survived (**Fig. 4C**); p=0.0003 according to log rank

test. Significant weight loss was also observed in animals infected with R20291 (**Fig. 4D**),

whereas mice infected with R20291Δ*feoB1* either gained weight or experienced marginal weight

loss (p=0.0009 by unpaired t-test). At sacrifice, mice infected with R20291 exhibited inflamed

ceca, while those infected with R20291Δ*feoB1* had ceca resembling the uninfected mice (**Fig.**

4B). Consistent with these observations, colonization rates were significantly higher in mice

infected with R20291, indicating poor infectivity by R20291Δ*feoB1*. In moribund mice, spore

bioburdens were ~10^7 CFU/g for R20291, which was ~2 logs [~99%] greater than the bioburdens

from animals that survived infection with R20291 (p<0.0001 by unpaired t-test; **Fig. 4E**).

However, animals infected with R20291Δ*feoB1* had even lower bioburdens ~10^4 CFU/g

(p<0.0001 by ANOVA; **Fig. 4E**). As a control, there was no difference in *in vitro* germination

between R20291 and R20291Δ*feoB1* (**Fig. S2**). Furthermore, cecal isolates from the respective

animals were confirmed to be R20291 from PCR amplicons of *CDR20291_1801* on *Tn6192*

transposon in R20291 and *tcdA*; R20291Δ*feoB1* was further confirmed from the absence of

feoB1 (**Fig. S3**).

Comparison of pathogenesis in mice at two days of infection. Across different mouse models

of CDI, infection on day 2 produces significant morbidity allowing capture of the acute response

to infection. We therefore conducted a separate study in which mice were culled at 48 h to

examine effects on animal health, immune response and spore and toxin burdens. Mice infected

with the WT had significant weight loss compared to the pre-infected weights (**Fig. 5A**; p ≤0.01),

whereas those infected with the mutant gained weight (p ≤0.05). For R20291Δ*feoB1* cecal

bioburdens were almost 3-logs less than mice infected with R20291, which was also evident in

fecal bioburdens at 24 and 48 h of post-infection (**Fig. 5B, C**); unpaired t-test p<0.0001). Cecal

toxins were also reduced in mice infected with R20291Δ*feoB1* and were 1-2 logs (90-99%) less

than mice infected with the WT infected, which had toxin titers of 10^2-10^3 per gram of cecal

content (**Fig. 5D**). Measurement of inflammatory responses, by qRT-PCR on cecal tissue,

showed significantly increased expression of pro-inflammatory tumor necrosis factor-alpha

(TNF-α), granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF) and anti-inflammatory

interleukin-10 (IL-10) in mice infected with the WT compared to R20291Δ*feoB1* (**Fig. 5E**).

While TNF-α and GM-CSF promote neutrophil recruitment in CDI, the upregulation of IL-10

may occur to repress TNF-α and GM-CSF (40). Elevation of these three cytokines may be

markers for CDI severity in the CDI colitis model (41). Overall, these findings indicate that *C.*

difficile requires FeoB1 to colonize and produce toxin-mediated disease symptoms.

CONCLUSION

Our study clearly shows that *feoB1* is necessary for *C. difficile* infectivity and virulence in mice,

which is a finding that mirrors the loss of ferrosome storage upon deletion of *fezA* (22).

Noteworthy, we adopted BHI and the colitis CDI model to evaluate the responses of *C. difficile*

in environments that are available iron sources. Although FeoB1 may be the main permease for

ferrous iron acquisition, its deletion did not affect *in vitro* growth, as *C. difficile* likely had

different iron sources in BHI media and could remodel its metabolism to utilize flavodoxin

cofactors and less iron-dependent energy generation involving coupling of the ATP synthetase

and Rnf complex (30). Upregulation of the proline reductase operon in the transcriptome of mid-

log cultures (**Table S1**) might also indicate that loss of *feoB1* increased the need for the Stickland

metabolism, in which the oxidation of an amino acid (e.g., cysteine) is coupled to the reduction

of another (e.g., proline) to produce ATP (13, 14).

The Feo system is also essential for other intestinal pathogens such as *E. coli*,

Helicobacter pylori (42) and *Salmonella typhimurium* (23), which encode a single FeoB

homolog. For example, without the Feo system *S. typhimurium* is unable to successfully colonize

the large intestine of mice, but it can grow in the circulatory system and systemic body sites (23).

Similarly, *H. pylori* requires FeoB to colonize the gastric mucosa of mice, despite encoding

transporters for ferric iron and an ability to acquire iron from lactoferrin and transferrin (42, 43).

This reports, along with findings of this study, indicate that FeoB1 is required for pathogenesis in

acid and anaerobic environments along the gastrointestinal tract. Hence, as the large bowel is the

only site for CDI, our findings indicate FeoB1 is indispensable for CDI disease, even if other

forms of iron are available in the colon during infection or *C. difficile* expresses other ferrous

iron transporters (e.g., FeoB2, FeoB3 or ZupT). This contrasts with ferric hydroxamate

transporter that is dispensable for colonization and virulence in mice (21). Nonetheless, research

is needed to establish the cellular functions of *C. difficile* FeoB2 and FeoB3, and the structure-

function relationships of all three Feo systems in *C. difficile*. Beyond impacting toxin production,

iron starvation also hinders the expression of other colonization determinants in *C. difficile*. For

example, iron starvation downregulated pili and flagella associated genes of a CD630 *fur* mutant

(30). Our transcriptome indicated Type IV pilin, surface layer protein A (*slpA*) and adhesin

encoded by *cwp66* were downregulated (**Table 1**). In *C. difficile*, Type IV pilin contributes to

adherence to epithelial cells and cell-cell attachment in biofilms; it was reported that deletion of

the Type IV pilin gene *pilB1* (*CDR20291_3349*), resulted in poorer colonization of mice (44).

Similarly, loss of *slpA* also attenuates *C. difficile* pathogenesis in animal models (45). Hence,

loss of *feoB1* imposes different pleiotropic effects on pathogenesis that may involve reduced

uptake of ferrous iron, poor toxin production and poor colonization of the gut epithelia. Taken

together, these results support the potential for FeoB1 to become a therapeutic target for the

discovery of agents that alter *C. difficile* metabolism to block the biosynthesis of TcdA and TcdB

and surface proteins required for colonization.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains and culture conditions. *C. difficile* R20291, R20291Δ*feoB1* and the complemented

strain were routinely grown in pre-reduced BHI broth or agar at 37°C in a Whitley A35

anaerobic workstation (Don Whitley Scientific). *E. coli* SD46 was grown at 37°C in Luria–

Bertani (LB) broth or agar. D-cycloserine (250 μg/ml), cefoxitin (8 μg/ml), and thiamphenicol

(15 μg/ml) were used to selectively culture *C. difficile* containing plasmids, whereas

chloramphenicol (15 μg/ml) and ampicillin (50 μg/ml) were used to grow *E. coli* SD46. For cell

rounding assays, Vero epithelial cells were cultured in 10% fetal bovine serum and Dulbecco's

Modified Eagle Medium at 37°C with 5% carbon dioxide in a humidified incubator.

Growth kinetics. Overnight cultures were diluted 1:100 and grown to mid-logarithmic phase

before being added to 96 - well plates containing fresh pre-reduced BHI. OD600 values were

automatically recorded under anaerobic conditions in a Synergy H1 microplate reader (BioTek)

over 16 h.

Genetic manipulation of *C. difficile*. R20291Δ*feoB1* was generated by allelic exchange, exactly

as we described (19). Essentially, *E. coli* SD46 carrying the *feoB1* allelic deletion cassette in

pMTL-SC7215 was conjugated into R20291, before subjecting the recombinant strain to serial

passage to select for double crossover mutants. The deletion was confirmed by PCR and Sanger

sequencing. R20291Δ*feoB1* was complemented with WT *feoB1* expressed from its promoter in

pMTL84151, as we described (19). The strain was maintained on pre-reduced BHI supplemented

with thiamphenicol (15 µg/ml). The primers used in the study are listed in **Table S2**.

Quantification of *C. difficile* toxins. Strains were grown anaerobically in pre-reduced BHI at

37°C for 24 h. Samples were centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 5 min and supernatants recovered for

ELISA and cell rounding assays, as follows. **(i) ELISA quantification.** 100 µl of diluted sample

was used to measure TcdA and TcdB with the tgcBIOMICS Gmbh ELISA kit that quantifies

both toxins, against standard curves from purified TcdA and TcdB, according to the

manufacturer's instructions. **(ii) Standard cell rounding assay.** Toxin titers were determined

against Vero epithelial cells (~10^5 cells/ml) that were adhered overnight. Supernatants from neat

and various diluted samples were added to the cells and incubated for 4 h. Cytopathic effects

(cell rounding) were visualized by microscopy, using six views per well. Toxin titers were

defined as the lowest dilution in which cell rounding was no longer visualized. (**iii**)

Determination of cell rounding by morphometric analysis. Briefly, 50 µl of 500-1000 Vero

epithelial cells (ATCC) were seeded per well of a 384-well black plate and incubated for ~18 h.

From a source plate containing diluted TcdB to generate a standard curve and undiluted culture

supernatants 0.05 µl of samples were automatedly transferred to the 384-well plate containing

the Vero cells using an Echo acoustic liquid handler (Labcyte). This represented an *in situ*

dilution of 1:1000 of the culture supernatants. Samples were incubated at 37°C for 6 h in 5%

carbon dioxide, followed by addition of 10 µl of 25% (v/v) paraformaldehyde. Cells were fixed

overnight at 4°C, washed with PBS and stained with the nucleic acid stain DAPI (25 µl). After

incubation in the dark for 15 min at room temperature, they were stained with Alexa Fluor 488

phalloidin strain (40 µl) at a concentration of 0.0006 µM in PBS with 5% milk powder solution.

After staining in the dark for 2 h, cells were washed twice, and PBS (50 µl) was added. Cell

images were captured using IN Cell Analyzer 6000 from GE Healthcare, with DAPI (excitation

358 nm and emission 451 nm) and phalloidin (excitation 495 nm and emission 518 nm). Images

were then processed as described previously (8), to capture morphometric features and classify

cells into control-like or toxin-treated-like (small, rounded) phenotypes to establish the

proportion of toxin-treated-like cells per well.

Quantification of intracellular iron by ICP-OES. Overnight grown cells were subcultured

(1:100) in fresh BHI broth and harvested after 6 h for ICP-OES analysis to determine the cellular

iron levels as we previously described (31).

Quantification of intracellular pyruvate. This assay was performed as we previously described

(31); essentially harvesting samples at OD~0.3, 0.6 and 0.9 to measuring intracellular pyruvate

in cell lysates using the Pyruvate Colorimetric/Fluorometric Assay kit from Biovision.

RNA Sequencing and analysis. Triplicates of R20291 and R20291Δ*feoB1* were grown

overnight in pre-reduced BHI broth. The next day, cultures were diluted 1:100 in pre-reduced

BHI broth and grown in the anaerobic chamber. Approximately 20 ml samples of each strain

were harvested at three-time points OD~0.3, ~0.6, and ~0.9 and further aliquots of each time

point also stored for subsequent analyses. These time points were selected to assess changes in

gene transcription at different points in the bacterial growth cycle. Bacterial RNAprotect™

reagent (QIAGEN) was added and RNA isolated using Qiagen's RNeasy mini kit. RNA quality

assessment, library preparation and Hi-Seq 2 x150 paired-end sequencing were performed by

GENEWIZ (New Jersey, USA).

Analysis of RNA sequencing data. CLC Genomics Workbench version 12.0 was used to

analyze RNA sequencing data. After trimming the adapters, the data was checked for its quality

and relatedness using Principal Component Analysis (PCA). Further, *C. difficile* R20291 coding

sequence (CDS, GenBank accession number: FN545816.1) was used for alignment and analysis.

Differential gene expression of R20291 Δ*feoB1* was analyzed against R20291 wild type.

Functional clustering of DEGs was done using KEGG Mapper. The raw RNA-Seq data are

deposited in NCBI database under accession number PRJNA753147.

Transcriptional analysis by RT-qPCR. RNA isolated from *C. difficile* samples was converted

to cDNA by M-MLV reverse transcriptase (Quantabio) using qScript cDNA SuperMix. qScript

One-Step SYBR Green qRT-PCR Kit, ROX (Quantabio) and gene-specific primers were used to

amplify genes in Applied Biosystems ViiA7 real-time PCR machine. Transcript levels were

calculated by the comparative Ct method (ΔΔCT method) and data normalized to 16S rRNA

(46). For analysis of cytokine levels in the cecal tissues, the same Qiagen's RNeasy mini kit was

used to isolate RNA and qRT-PCR was carried out as above. The data was normalized to the

beta-actin gene.

Mouse model of colitis CDI. These experiments were conducted under an animal use protocol

approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at Texas A&M University. The

model of CDI was modified from that described by Zhou et al. (41). Male and female C57/BL6

mice (6 weeks) were from Envigo. For 5 days, mice were given water containing kanamycin (0.4

µg/ml), gentamicin (0.035 µg/ml), colistin (850 U/ml), metronidazole (0.215 µg/ml),

vancomycin (0.045 µg/ml) and 1.5% w/v of dextran sodium sulfate. This was followed by two

days of regular drug-free water. On day-1, mice were injected (i.p.) with clindamycin (10

mg/kg). Approximately 20 h later (day 0) they were infected with 10^5 spores of either R20291 or

R20291$\Delta feoB1$. Three sets of experiments were carried out, as summarized in the results. *C.*

difficile spores were prepared according to a standard protocol (47). After infection, fecal

samples were collected daily, and ceca recovered from euthanized moribund animals or at the

experimental endpoint. Animals were monitored three times per day and scored for: health

appearance (hunched posture, ruffled fur, and diarrhea, and wet tail); weight loss; and decreases

in body temperature (**Table S3**).

Analysis of cecal and fecal bioburdens. Samples were weighed, homogenized in PBS and

normalized to g/ml. To enumerate spore burdens, samples were heated at 70ºC for 30 minutes,

diluted and then plated onto *C. difficile* selection agar (containing cycloserine, cefoxitin, and

fructose) supplemented with 0.1% w/v sodium taurocholate. After anaerobic incubation for up to

48 h viable counts were determined.

Quantification of toxins in mice ceca. Cecal samples were collected and flash frozen. Samples

(normalized to g/ml) were homogenized in PBS containing cOmplete^{TM} Protease Inhibitor

Cocktail from Roche, then centrifuged at 10, 000 rpm for 5 min. The supernatants (5 µl) were

used to quantify toxins by the above standard cell rounding assay.

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 TABLES AND FIGURES

 Table 1. Selected genes[a] in *C. difficile* R20291 that were differentially expressed in

 R20291Δ*feoB1* compared to WT R20291.

Functional group/proteins	Gene	Δ*feoB1* vs WT (Log2(FC) ≥0.58)		
		Mid log	Late log	Stationary
Flavodoxin, iron metabolism and metal transport				
Flavodoxin	*fldx (CDR20291_1925)*	4.33	3.87	2.91
Riboflavin synthase beta-chain	*ribH (CDR20291_1595)*			1.34
Riboflavin synthase alpha chain	*ribB (CDR20291_1597)*	1.27	1.41	1.52
Riboflavin biosynthesis bifunctional diaminohydroxyphosphoribosylaminopyrimidine deaminase and 5-amino-6-(5-phosphoribosylamino)uracil reductase]	*ribD (CDR20291_1598)*	1.19	1.24	1.61
Bacterioferritin	*bfr (CDR20291_2756)*	-2.9	-2.57	-2.53
Ferrichrome- specific ABC transporter permease, ATP-binding protein	*fhuC (CDR20291_2771)*	0.92	0.73	
Ferrichrome- specific ABC transporter permease, substrate binding protein	*fhuD (CDR20291_2774)*	1.16		-1.52
Zinc Transporter	*zupT (CDR20291_0946)*	1.42	0.83	1.63
ABC-type Fe3+ transport system, permease component	*CDR20291_2980*	-7.61	-7.37	-7.91
ABC-type spermidine/putrescine transport systems, ATPase component	*CDR20291_2981*	-7.19	-7.55	-8.09
Iron (III) transport system substrate-binding protein	*CDR20291_2983*	-7.1	-7.51	-8.46

ABC-type Fe3+ transport system, solute-binding protein	*CDR20291_3362*	2.83	2.62	2.38
ABC-type Fe3+ transport system, permease component	*CDR20291_3364*	4.39	4.29	4.12
ABC-type Fe3+ transport system, ATPase component (polyamine transport)	*CDR20291_3365*	4.11	4.59	3.7
Ferrous iron transporter subunit A2	*feoA2 (CDR20291_1367)*	3.06	3	1.81
Ferrous iron transporter subunit B2	*feoB2 (CDR20291_1366)*	2.05	1.91	1.90
Cobalt ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein	*cbiO (CDR20291_0332)*	0.91	1.51	
Polyamine biosynthesis				
S-adenosylmethionine decarboxylase	*speD (CDR20291_0819)*	-1.27	-0.96	-1.2
Spermidine synthase	*speE (CDR20291_0820)*	-0.69		
Energy metabolism				
Pyruvate carboxylase	*pyc (CDR20291_0010)*	-1.31	-1.4	-1.14
Pyruvate formate lyase	*pflD (CDR20291_3143)*		1.63	
Pyruvate-formate lyase-activating enzyme	*pflE (CDR20291_3144)*	0.87	1.76	
Homocitrate synthase NifV-type	*CDR20291_0762*	-3.11	-1.55	-3.69
Aconitase/3-isopropylmalate dehydratase	*CDR20291_0763*	-2.35	-2.47	-2.58
Isocitrate/3-isopropylmalate dehydrogenase	*CDR20291_0764*	-2.58	-1.89	-2.85
Succinyl-CoA:coenzyme A transferase	*cat1 (CDR20291_2232)*	6.19	6.55	5.38
Succinate-semialdehyde dehydrogenase [NAD(P)+]	*sucD (CDR20291_2231)*	6.39	6.74	5.48
Electron transfer flavoprotein alpha-subunit	*etfA2 (CDR20291_0912)*	1.64	2.42	1.91
Electron transfer flavoprotein beta-subunit	*etfB2 (CDR20291_0911)*		1.78	
Acetyl-CoA acetyltransferase	*thlA1 (CDR20291_0915)*		2.08	

3-hydroxybutyryl-CoA dehydratase	crt2 (CDR20291_0913)	1.14	2.11	1.53
Butyryl-CoA dehydrogenase complex	bcd2 (CDR20291_0910)		1.76	
Maltose phosphorylase	mapA (CDR20291_2094)	1.4	1.49	1.31
Maltose/glucose PTS system EIICB component	CDR20291_2402	1.8	1.86	1.95
Carbon catabolite repressor protein A	ccpA (CDR20291_0923)	0.77		
Pathogenicity locus (PaLoc)				
Toxin A	tcdA (CDR20291_0584)	-6.64	-6.53	-9.47
Toxin B	tcdB (CDR20291_0582)	-6.14	-6.21	-8.94
Positive toxin regulator	tcdR (CDR20291_0581)	-4.51	-4.9	-6.15
Holin-like protein	tcdE (CDR20291_0583)	-5.63	-6.36	-7.83
Surface proteins and Pili				
Cell surface protein	cwp66 (CDR20291_2678)		-0.59	
Surface layer protein A	slpA (CDR20291_2682)	-2.26	-2.1	-2.35
Type IV prepilin leader peptidase	CDR20291_3340	-0.78	-1.2	0.19
Type IV prepilin leader peptidase	CDR20291_3341	-0.96	-0.75	-1.01
Type IV pilus retraction protein	CDR20291_3342	-0.83	-0.65	
Type IV pilin	CDR20291_3345	-0.67	-0.78	
Type IV pilus assembly protein	CDR20291_3346	-0.64		
Type IV pilus assembly protein	CDR20291_3348	-0.73	-0.89	
Type IV pilus assembly protein	CDR20291_3349	-0.73		

[a]The above genes were selected from **Table S1** as they: (i) represent pathways affected by iron

limitation in cells, including iron and metal acquisition transporters and indicative of a shift to

flavodoxin metabolism (supported by riboflavin biosynthesis) and energy metabolism pathways;

(ii) indicate that polyamine biosynthesis was not enhanced to acquire iron in BHI; and (iii)

indicate expression of pathogenicity factors, PaLoc and surface proteins that help *C. difficile* to

colonize the large bowel. Log2Fold changes are based on $p \leq 0.02$.

 FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Deletion of *feoB1* attenuates toxin production in *C. difficile* R20291. A. Loss of

feoB1 did not affect growth of R20291 in BHI. **B.** Loss of FeoB1 was associated with ~25%

reduction in intracellular iron content in R20291Δ*feoB1*. **C.** TcdA and TcdB toxins were

diminished in R20291Δ*feoB1* as quantified by ELISA (limit of detection 0.5 ng/ml for TcdA and

TcdB); **D.** Toxin reduction was also confirmed by manual cell rounding analysis, showing

decreased toxin titers against Vero epithelial cells (limit of detection 10^1 dilution); there was ~

1000-fold less toxins produced by the mutant. Vero cells are more predictive for cell rounding

caused by TcdB. **E.** Cell rounding results were confirmed by automated morphometric analysis.

Images show that more cell rounding was more caused by WT R20291 than the mutant at 1:1000

in situ dilution. In the untreated control, the yellow arrow shows the morphology of Vero cells,

showing actin filaments stained with phalloidin (green) and nuclei stained with DAPI (red); in

cells treated with WT supernatants, the yellow arrow shows the morphology of rounded cells.

Cells treated with supernatants from the mutant, mostly appeared healthy. Statistical significance

in Graphpad Prism was determined by unpaired t-tests with Welch's correction in b, and by one-

way ANOVA with Tukey's test in c and d.

Figure 2. Transcriptome changes associated with lack of *feoB1* in R20291. A. Venn diagrams

show total differentially expressed genes (DEGs) and those that were upregulated or

downregulated at different growth phases (mid logarithmic OD600nm=0.3; late-logarithmic

OD600nm=0.6; and stationary phase OD600nm=0.9). **B, C**. Gene Ontology analysis of DEGs

identified different metabolic processes altered by loss of *feoB1*, including iron homeostasis,

pathogenesis, and redox reactions.

Figure 3. Effect of loss of FeoB1 on transcription of iron-responsive genes, PaLoc, TCA and

pyruvate accumulation. A. Across three growth phases, loss of *feoB1* dysregulated iron-

responsive genes in R20291Δ*feoB1*, shown by upregulation of flavodoxin (*fldx*), ferrichrome-

specific ABC transporter permease (*fhuC* and *fhuD*), ferric uptake regulator (*fur*) and riboflavin

biosynthesis genes (*ribB* and *ribD*), and downregulation of bacterioferritin (*bfr*). **B.**

Downregulation of toxins genes (*tcdA*, *tcdB*, *tcdD* and *tcdE*) was seen in R20291Δ*feoB1* late-

logarithmic (OD600nm=0.6) and stationary phase cultures (OD600nm=0.9). **C.** Across the three

growth phases intracellular pyruvate was higher in R20291Δ*feoB1* (1.25 ± 0.14 nm, 1.55 ± 0.11

nm and 2.24 ± 0.16 nm, respectively) compared to R20291 (1.16 ± 0.13 nm, 1.39 ± 0.08 nm and

1.66 ± 0.11 nm, respectively). **D.** Downregulation of genes encoding enzymes of the oxidative

branch of the Krebs cycle was also seen (*pyc* encodes pyruvate carboxylase; *CDR20291_0763*

aconitase; and *CDR20291_0764* encodes isocitrate/3-isopropylmalate dehydrogenase).

Figure 4. Deletion of FeoB1 attenuates colonization and virulence in mice. A. Experimental

summary of the colitis CDI model used to evaluate the virulence of R20291 and R20291Δ*feoB1*.

B. Ceca from the mice infected with the wild type were red and inflamed in contrast to ceca from

the *feoB1* mutant that resembled the uninfected control. **C.** Kaplan-Meier survival analysis show

significant difference (p=0.0003) between mortality risks of mice infected with R20291

compared to R20291Δ*feoB1*. **D.** Animals infected with R20291 had significant weight loss

(p=0.0009) compared to R20291Δ*feoB1* infected mice. **E.** Cecal bioburdens were highest in

deceased mice infected with R20291 than mice surviving infection, while R20291Δ*feoB1*

infected mice had lowest bioburdens. Data are based on group numbers of n=16 mice for R20291

and n=15 mice for R20291Δ*feoB1* (a mouse from the R20291Δ*feoB1* group was removed due to

inadvertent infection with R20291). All statistical analyses were done in GraphPad prism 10;

including Log-rank statistical testing in c; unpaired t-tests with Welch's correction in d; and one-

way ANOVA with alpha 0.05 in e.

Figure 5. Comparative analysis of virulence in mice at 48 h post-infection. A. Significant

weight loss was seen 48 hours after infection with R20291 whereas mice infected with

R20291Δ*feoB1* gained weight, which was also significant. **B, C.** Reduced colonization by

R20291Δ*feoB1* was also evident from bioburdens analyzed from the ceca taken at 48 hours and

fecal samples recovered at 24 and 48 h. **D, E.** Lower toxin titers and expression of cytokine in

cecal tissues were also evident. Statistical significance was determined in GraphPad Prism 10.0

by unpaired t-tests with Welch's correction in a-d and in e by two-way ANOVA with Šídák's

multiple comparisons test.

A

B

C

D

A

Day: **-7**   **-3**   **-1**   **0**   **2**   Day 2, animals recovered   **10**
for cecal analysis

Antibiotics + 1.5%   Regular water   **Health monitoring**
DSS in water
                           Infection
                  Day -1
                  Clindamycin

B

Uninfected   WT   Δ*feoB1*

C

Percent survival probability vs Days post infection

R20291
R20291Δ*feoB1*

p=0.0003

D

Percent change in weight vs Days post infection

R20291   R20291Δ*feoB1*

p=0.0009

E

Cecal bioburden (Log$_{10}$ CFU/ml)

<0.0001
<0.0001
<0.0001

R20291 (deceased)   R20291 (survived)   R20291Δ*feoB1* (survived)

A

Day: -7 ——— -3 ——— -1 — 0 —— 2 — Day 2, animals recovered —— 10
                                              for cecal analysis

Antibiotics + 1.5%   Regular water   Infection   ←———— **Health monitoring** ————→
DSS in water
                                              Day -1
                                              Clindamycin

B

Uninfected   WT   Δ*feoB1*

C

Percent survival probability

p=0.0003

Days post infection

● R20291
■ R20291Δ*feoB1*

D

Percent change in weight

● R20291   ■ R20291Δ*feoB1*

p=0.0009

Days post infection

E

Cecal bioburden (Log$_{10}$ CFU/ml)

<0.0001
<0.0001
<0.0001

R20291   R20291   R20291Δ*feoB1*
(deceased)   (survived)   (survived)