Heme-Mediated Selection of Encapsulated *Streptococcus pneumoniae* in the Lungs

by Oxidative Stress

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Running title: Oxidative stress-mediated selection of encapsulated Spn

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Abstract

Streptococcus pneumoniae (the pneumococcus) causes cytotoxicity and encapsulates within the lung parenchyma, leading to pneumococcal pneumonia. However, the underlying mechanisms remain unclear and likely involve multiple bacterial and host factors.

We investigated the selection process of encapsulated pneumococci, a critical factor in lung damage during pneumococcal pneumonia.

Our study revealed that pneumococci initially lack capsules but re-encapsulate upon reaching the alveoli. This process is driven by *S. pneumoniae*-derived hydrogen peroxide (Spn-H_2O_2), which oxidizes lung hemoglobin, leading to heme release and polymerized hemoglobin formation. Physiologically relevant levels of heme were found to promote the selection of encapsulated bacteria. Furthermore, encapsulation protects bacteria from intracellular heme toxicity, a defense absent in non-encapsulated strains. Ultrastructural analysis demonstrated interactions between hemoglobin and both encapsulated and non-encapsulated pneumococci in human sputum.

These findings reveal a critical connection between oxidative stress-mediated lung damage and the selection of encapsulated pneumococci, suggesting potential therapeutic avenues by targeting these oxidative processes.

Introduction

Streptococcus pneumoniae (Spn) strains colonize the lungs causing pneumonia, a global disease that kills more than a million individuals every year.[1] Invasion of bronchi and terminal bronchiole allows pneumococci to reach respiratory bronchiole, alveolar ducts, and alveoli, where pneumococci have access to the alveolar-capillary network, a large surface area containing ~300 billion of capillaries and where the exchange of CO_2 by O_2 occurs.[2, 3]

In the lungs where molecular oxygen (O_2) is available, Spn uses a fermentative metabolism to produce ATP by oxidizing glucose to acetate.[4, 5, 6] Spn strains encode an incomplete set of genes for enzymes of the Krebs cycle, or proteins of the respiratory chain. ATP production includes the oxidation of pyruvate by the enzyme pyruvate oxidase (SpxB), releasing H_2O_2 as a byproduct.[4, 5, 6] In the absence of O_2, pyruvate is converted to L-lactate, whereas, in the presence of oxygen, L-lactate is oxidized back to pyruvate, via lactate oxidase (LctO), producing H_2O_2 as a byproduct.[4, 5]

Besides components of the glycolytic pathway and atmospheric O_2, the alveolar-capillary network is a source of erythrocytes and hemoglobin. We recently demonstrated that hemoglobin enhances in vitro growth of Spn strains and upregulates expression of spxB.[7, 8] H_2O_2 produced by the pneumococcus oxidizes oxy-hemoglobin (Fe^{2+}) from different mammals, including humans, to produce the non-oxygen-binding form of hemoglobin known as met-hemoglobin (Hb-Fe^{3+}).[9, 10] The oxidation of hemoglobin by Spn produced toxic species, including labile heme[11] and a hemoglobin-derived tyrosyl radical [Fig. 1A, ($^\bullet$Hb-Fe^{4+})].[12] These toxic products are implicated in the pathophysiology of human diseases characterized by intravascular hemolysis, such as sickle cell disease (SCD), and in inflammatory conditions, such as sepsis.[13, 14, 15]

This study demonstrates that hydrogen peroxide produced by Spn (Spn-H_2O_2) oxidizes hemoglobin within the alveolar-capillary network, driving the differentiation of encapsulated

pneumococci within the alveolar space. This oxidation process leads to hemoglobin polymerization,

which disrupts the alveolar epithelium and is closely associated with pneumococci. Ultrastructural

analysis of human sputum revealed interactions between hemoglobin and both encapsulated and

non-encapsulated pneumococci. Encapsulated, H_2O_2-producing pneumococci exhibit resistance to

physiological levels of free heme, unlike their unencapsulated, H_2O_2-deficient counterparts, which

are more susceptible to heme-mediated toxicity. These findings highlight the capsule's role as a

protective barrier against heme-mediated toxicity and suggest its potential as a therapeutic target

for pneumococcal pneumonia.

Results

Spn oxidizes hemoglobin generating molecules of oxidative stress. Reactive oxygen species (ROS)

can contribute to heme degradation by damaging the protoporphyrin IX ring (Fig. 1A)[16, 17, 18]. To

investigate Spn-H_2O_2 involvement in oxidative stress and hemoglobin oxidation, we assessed H_2O_2 in

Spn cultures. Wild-type Spn strains (TIGR4, D39, and EF3030) generated substantial H_2O_2 (>650 µM)

at 6 h post-inoculation in THY medium (Fig. 1B, and Fig. S1A) whereas the isogenic H_2O_2-defective

Δ*spxB*Δ*lctO* mutants did not (Fig. 1B and Fig. S1A). To further explore this, Spn and Δ*spxB*Δ*lctO*,

strains were cultured in THY supplemented with met-hemoglobin (THY-Hb^{3+}). Heme levels in

supernatants were quantified using an in-gel heme staining (Fig. S1B), and a Quantichrom assay.[19, 20]

Compared to the uninfected control, heme levels in Spn cultures were significantly reduced or

undetectable within 6 hours (Fig. 1C-E, Fig. S1C). In contrast, THY-Hb^{3+} cultures of Δ*spxB*Δ*lctO* strains

yielded >16.82 µM of total heme at 6 h (Fig. 1C-E). This heme degradation correlated with Spn-

mediated pseudoperoxidase activity, as Spn-H_2O_2 levels were undetectable in THY+Hb^{3+} cultures 2

or 4 h post-inoculation (Fig. 1F).

To confirm hemoglobin oxidation, we cultured TIGR4 and TIGR4Δ*spxB*Δ*lctO* in THY or in THY-

Hb^{3+} for two h. Subsequent metabolomic analysis using partial least squares discriminant analysis

(PLS-DA) revealed distinct metabolic profiles between groups (Fig. 1J). The largest biological

variation was observed between TIGR4 cultures grown in THY-Hb^{3+} (component 2, 10% variance;

AUC=0.9542) (Fig. 1K). A heatmap summarizing metabolites with at least a 2-fold change and FDR p-

value <0.05 is presented (Fig. 1J). Compared to THY cultures, TIGR4 grown with THY- Hb^{3+} exhibited

increased levels of metabolites indicative of hemoglobin oxidation, such as creatinine, isoleucine,

leucine, guanosine, putrescine, and tyrosyl. Conversely, aspartic acid, guanine, and oxoproline levels

decreased (Table S1). Interestingly, TIGR4 cultures with H$_2$O$_2$ (THY- Hb^{3+}) showed increased levels of

oxidative stress markers,[21] like methionine sulfoxide (MetO), oleamide, and putrescine (Table S1)

compared to Δ*spxB*Δ*lctO* mutant cultures. Additionally, methionine (precursor to MetO) and pyruvic

acid (SpxB substrate) were downregulated (Table S1). These findings collectively suggest that Spn-

derived H$_2$O$_2$ oxidizes hemoglobin and generating metabolites associated with oxidative stress.

Spn oxidation and polymerization of hemoglobin favor the selection of encapsulated bacteria.

Oxidation crosslinks hemoglobin globins, potentially leading to precipitation.[22, 23] Consistent with

this, Spn cultures in hemoglobin-supplemented media (THY-Hb^{3+}) exhibited reduced levels of soluble

α and β globins upon oxidation (Fig. 1G-H, Fig. S1D and, S1E). In contrast, H$_2$O$_2$-deficient mutants

displayed normal hemoglobin monomer and dimer levels in THY-Hb^{3+}, similar to uninfected controls

(Fig. 1G-H, Fig. S1D).

We next investigated the structural localization of the polymerized hemoglobin aggregates.

Confocal microscopy analysis of biofilms from Spn cultures grown in THY-Hb^{3+} included capsule,

hemoglobin, and DNA staining. Z-stack projections and their 3D reconstruction revealed bacteria

associated with hemoglobin (hereafter Spn-Hb$^+$) as early as 2 h post-inoculation, with increasing

abundance over time (Fig. 2A, Fig. S2A-B). Structures suggestive of hemoglobin polymers were also

observed (Fig. S2C and S2D). Additionally, Spn-Hb$^+$ bacteria were positive for staining with anti-alpha

chain hemoglobin antibodies (Not shown).

Confocal microscopy analysis revealed that a significant proportion of Spn-Hb$^+$ were non-

viable. Quantitative analysis of images showed only 12% of Hb$^+$-associated bacteria colocalized with

DNA (a viability marker), compared to 76% of capsular polysaccharide-positive (CPS$^+$) pneumococci

(Fig. 2B and not shown). Furthermore, the DNA area of Spn-Hb$^+$ bacteria was significantly smaller

than that of CPS$^+$ pneumococci (Fig. 2B), suggesting DNA degradation due to oxidative stress.

Notably, cultures with the H_2O_2-deficient $\Delta spxB\Delta lctO$ strain showed a significant decrease in both

dead Spn-Hb$^+$ bacteria (Fig. 2C and 2D) and CPS$^+$ pneumococci (Fig. 2C). Similar trends were

observed in planktonic cultures, with wild-type exhibiting increased Spn-Hb$^+$ and reduced viability,

while the $\Delta spxB\Delta lctO$ mutant showed the opposite (Fig. 2E-G, S2F, S3A-C). These findings suggest

that oxidative products of hemoglobin, including heme (assessed in a later section), contribute to

bacterial toxicity.

The exclusive presence of Hb$^+$ bacteria in wild-type Spn cultures suggests hemoglobin binds

to the cell wall, followed by H_2O_2-mediated oxidation (Fig. 2H). To investigate heme location, we

quantified heme levels in cytosolic, insoluble and cell wall fractions of Spn grown with THY-Hb^{3+}.

Heme was detected in the insoluble fraction (Fig. 2J) and significantly increased in the cell wall

fraction of H_2O_2-deficient $\Delta spxB\Delta lctO$ mutant compared to wild-type Spn (Fig. 2I). Conversely, the

cytosolic fraction of H_2O_2-producing Spn contained significantly more heme compared to the

$\Delta spxB\Delta lctO$ mutant, indicating that hemoglobin oxidation facilitates heme uptake (Fig. 2K). These

findings demonstrate that Spn-H_2O_2-mediated hemoglobin oxidation contributes to bacterial killing,

hemoglobin polymerization, and the selection of encapsulated pneumococci, potentially enhancing

survival during infection.

Spn-H_2O_2 oxidation of hemoglobin contributes to mortality in a mouse model of pneumococcal

disease. Since hemorrhage, a hallmark of lobar pneumococcal pneumonia (also known as red

hepatization)[24], involves hemoglobin, we employed a mouse model to assess the contribution of

H_2O_2-mediated hemoglobin oxidation to pneumococcal pneumonia severity. The mouse model

mimics the natural course of infection, where Spn is aspirated into the lower airways, facilitating

colonization in the bronchi, bronchioles, and/or alveoli (Fig. 3A). Since the capsule *in vivo* protects

Spn from the immune response[2, 25, 26, 27], and mutations in *spxB* affect capsule production in some

strains[28], we quantified CPS$^+$ bacteria in strains used to inoculate animals (Fig. 3B). The majority of

TIGR4, TIGR4Ω*spxB-lctO,* D39, and D39Δ*spxB*Δ*lctO* (>84.1%) expressed the capsule, whereas the

capsule-deficient TIGR4Δ*cps* mutant and TIGR4Δ*spxB*Δ*lctO* exhibited significantly lower capsular

polysaccharide-positive (CPS$^+$) populations (<28.8%), compared to TIGR4 (Fig. 3C). Similar results

were obtained using an ELISA approach (Data not shown). Deletion of *spxB* and *lctO* affected

production of capsule in TIGR4 but not in D39, indicating strain-specific effects

Balb/c mice were then intranasally infected with wild-type strains (TIGR4 or D39) or H_2O_2-

deficient mutants. Mice infected with TIGR4, complemented TIGR4Ω*spxB-lctO,* or D39 succumbed

within 96 h post infection (Fig. 3D and Supplementary Fig. 4A, 5A). In contrast. mice infected with

TIGR4Δ*spxB*Δ*lctO* survived at least 96 h, and a significant proportion of mice infected with

D39Δ*spxB*Δ*lctO* also survived (Fig. 3D, and Supplementary Fig. 5A). Notably, D39-infected mice

succumbed 3.5 times faster than the D39Δ*spxB*Δ*lctO* group (not shown). Weight loss, another

indicator of disease severity, was also monitored. Animals infected with H_2O_2-producing strains

displayed significantly greater body weight reduction at the time of euthanasia compared to their

isogenic $\Delta spxB\Delta lctO$ mutant counterpart (Fig. 3E, Supplementary Fig. 4B, and 5B).

Lung pathology in mice infected with TIGR4, or TIGR4$\Omega spxB$-$lctO$ resembled human lobar

pneumonia, exhibiting hemorrhage with focal sub-lobar lesions[24] (Fig. 3F). In contrast, lungs from

mice infected with H_2O_2-deficient strain appeared normal (Fig. 3F). This observation aligned with

bacterial burden data: the median lung density of TIGR4 reached $2.3x10^7$ cfu/g, while TIGR4$\Omega spxB$-

$lctO$ reached $1.4x10^8$ cfu/g (Fig. 3G, and Supplementary Fig. 4C). Importantly, the H_2O_2-deficient

strain was completely cleared from the lungs by 96 h post-infection (Fig. 3G). Consistent with lung

colonization, pneumococci were detected in the blood of mice infected with TIGR4, or TIGR4$\Omega spxB$-

$lctO$, ($3.4x10^6$ and $2.8 x10^6$ cfu/ml, respectively) (Fig. 3H) but not in those infected with H_2O_2-

deficient strain (Fig. 3H).

To investigate if the rapid clearance of the H_2O_2-deficient strain from the lung was due to

decreased adhesion, we infected human (A549), and mouse (MLE-12), alveolar type I pneumocytes

with TIGR4 or a GFP-tagged H_2O_2-deficient strain (TIGR4$\Delta spxB\Delta lctO^{GFP}$). Bacterial burden, quantified

by both culture and confocal microscopy, demonstrated comparable levels for both strains in both

human and mouse pneumocytes (Fig. 3I, 3J and 3K).

Histopathological examination of lung tissue revealed extensive damage induced by H_2O_2-

producing pneumococci. Mice infected with H_2O_2-producing strains, TIGR4 and D39, exhibited

severe lung pathology characterized by bronchiolar epithelial detachment, fibrotic alveolar changes,

alveolar hemorrhage, and pneumococcal infiltration (Fig. 3L, Supplementary Fig. 5D). Alveolar artery

endothelial damage was also evident in these mice. In contrast, H_2O_2-deficient strains,

TIGR4$\Delta spxB\Delta lctO$ and D39$\Delta spxB\Delta lctO$, induced milder lung pathology with primarily inflammatory

cell infiltration and intimal/medial thickening of alveolar arteries, but without endothelial

cytotoxicity (Fig. 3L, Supplementary Fig. 5D). While TIGR4$\Delta spxB\Delta lctO$ caused minimal bronchiolar

hemorrhage and no fibrosis or cytotoxicity, D39$\Delta spxB\Delta lctO$ induced localized inflammation and

some alveolar fibrosis without endothelial damage (Fig. 3L and Supplementary Fig. 4E, and 5D).

Histopathological scoring revealed significantly higher scores for bronchiolar hypertrophy, cellular

exudate, and alveolar inflammatory cell infiltrate in lungs from mice infected with TIGR4 or

complemented TIGR4$\Omega spxB$-$lctO$ compared to those infected with TIGR4$\Delta spxB\Delta lctO$ (Fig. 3M-O).

These findings indicate that H_2O_2-producing pneumococci induce substantial cytotoxic damage

across multiple lung cell types.

Increased reactive oxygen species in the lungs of mice infected with H_2O_2-producing pneumococci.

To assess H_2O_2 production by pneumococci *in vivo*, we measured ROS levels in lung tissue. Mice

infected with wild-type TIGR4 for 24 h exhibited significantly elevated lung ROS levels compared to

uninfected mice or those infected with the H_2O_2-deficient $\Delta spxB\Delta lctO$ strain (Fig. 3P), confirming

Spn-H_2O_2 production *in vivo*. While host immune cells such as neutrophils likely contribute to the

overall ROS levels, a human lung cell model was used to directly evaluate pneumococcus-derived

ROS. In this model, intracellular ROS in alveolar A549 cells infected with TIGR4 was significantly

elevated, mirroring the effect of menadione, a positive redox control (Supplementary Fig. 6A-B)[29].

Confocal microscopy confirmed intracellular pneumococci in both TIGR4 and $\Delta spxB\Delta lctO$ infected

cells (Supplementary Fig. 6C), suggesting H_2O_2 from TIGR4 contributed to the ROS rise. As H_2O_2

exposure can damage cellular structures, we examined potential damage to tubulin and GAPDH,

proteins known to be sensitive to H_2O_2[30, 31]. Western blotting revealed significant degradation of β-

tubulin and GAPDH in human alveolar cells infected with TIGR4 but not in those infected with the

H$_2$O$_2$-deficient $\Delta spxB\Delta lctO$, while cytosolic catalase levels remained unchanged (Supplementary Fig.

6D-F). These findings demonstrate that Spn-H$_2$O$_2$ production elevates intracellular ROS levels,

leading to structural cellular damage.

In vivo oxidation of hemoglobin by Spn-H$_2$O$_2$ selects for encapsulated pneumococci in the lung.

Building on our *in vitro* observation that Spn-H$_2$O$_2$ oxidation of hemoglobin favors encapsulated

pneumococci, we investigated the lung subcellular compartments where this selection occurs. Lung

sections from mice infected with Spn were stained for capsule, DNA, and cell membranes, and

analyzed by confocal microscopy. Notably, within the open central channel (lumen) of respiratory

bronchioles in TIGR4-infected mice (Fig. 4A) or mice infected with the complemented TIGR4Ω*spxB*-

lctO strain (Fig. 4C), nearly all pneumococci (98%) lacked a capsule (referred to as decapsulated or D-

CPS) (Fig. 4D). Furthermore, D-CPS bacteria were the dominant population (88.4%) found inside the

bronchiolar epithelium (Fig. 4A, 4C-D, and Supplementary Fig. 7). The proportion of CPS$^+$

pneumococci increased significantly (by 42.1%) in Spn located within alveoli adjacent to bronchioles

(Fig. 4D).

In stark contrast to the bronchiolar environment, the proportion of CPS$^+$ pneumococci

increased significantly (by 39.5%) within the alveoli, while the lumen (central channel) showed a

marked decrease (Fig. 4A, 4C, and 4E). This trend continued as CPS$^+$ were 27.3% when bacteria

invaded the endothelial cells of pulmonary arteries (Fig. 4A and 4F). Notably, a similar pattern was

observed in D39-infected mice, with these CPS$^+$ bacteria concentrated on the bronchiolar membrane

and in alveoli adjacent to bronchioles (Supplementary Fig. 5E). Comparable findings were noted in

mice infected with serotype 3 strain WU-2 (data not shown). Since we began the experiment with a

population of CPS$^+$ pneumococci infected into the animals (Fig. 3B), these findings suggest that the

bacteria lose their capsule (decapsulate) during bronchiolar invasion and then regain it (re-

encapsulate) as they migrate deeper into the lung reaching the alveolar epithelium (Fig. 4G).

Motivated by the abundance of hemoglobin in the alveolar-capillary network, we

investigated how its oxidation affects capsular gene expression. Incubating pneumococci (Spn) with

red blood cells (RBCs), adding RBCs to alveolar cells, or bronchial cells all significantly increased

transcription of *cps4A*, the first gene in the capsule locus, and *spxB* (Fig. 4H and 4J). Spectroscopic

analysis of culture supernatants confirmed methemoglobin formation (heme-Fe^{3+}) in Spn-infected

RBCs-containing cultures, where most heme was already degraded (Fig. 4I). Importantly, only the

higher concentration (10 µM) of hemoglobin mimicked the upregulation observed with RBCs (Fig. 4H

and 4J), suggesting a dose-dependent effect. Previous studies reported similar findings, Spn grown

in hemoglobin, mouse model of pneumonia but not in a carriage model, exhibited upregulated *spxB*

and *cps* locus genes (Fig. 4K, Supplementary Fig. 6G). Notably, genes encoding pyruvate node

enzymes (*lctO, ackA, ldh*) and the pneumolysin gene *ply* remained unaffected by hemoglobin

exposure (Fig. 4K, Supplementary Fig. 6G). Similarly, ply expression remained unchanged in the

H_2O_2-deficient TIGR4ΔspxBΔlctO mutant compared to wild-type TIGR4 under hemoglobin

exposure[32].

Hemoglobin polymerization occurs in the lung during pneumococcal disease. We then investigated

hemoglobin oxidation *in vivo*. Since hemoglobin oxidation can lead to its aggregation, we examined

lung sections from Spn-infected animals for the presence of aggregated hemoglobin. We discovered

aggregated hemoglobin, red blood cells (RBCs), CPS$^+$ pneumococci, and bacteria associated with

hemoglobin (Spn-Hb$^+$) within alveoli (Fig. 5A, and Supplementary Fig. 8), the alveolar lumen (not

shown), and the pulmonary artery (Fig. 5D). In contrast, mice infected with the H_2O_2-deficient

TIGR4$\Delta spxB\Delta lctO$ strain did not exhibit aggregated hemoglobin or Spn-Hb$^+$ bacteria in the alveoli

(Fig. 5B) or pulmonary arteries (Fig. 5C). To assess the potential toxic effect of hemoglobin oxidation

on Spn, we quantified the DNA area in both CPS$^+$ pneumococci and Spn-Hb$^+$ bacteria. The DNA area

associated with Spn-Hb$^+$ bacteria was significantly lower compared to that of CPS$^+$ pneumococci (Fig.

5E), suggesting that hemoglobin oxidation may impair bacterial survival.

In alveoli with extensive hemoglobin polymerization, we observed nuclei resembling those of

white blood cells (leukocytes), but no nuclei from other cell types such as type I and II pneumocytes

or endothelial cells were present (Fig. 5A, Supplementary Fig. 8). To confirm that these were

leukocytes migrating after tissue damage, lung sections were stained with an anti-CD45 antibody

(Fig. 5F). This revealed that a majority of the cells (median, 56%) were CD45$^+$, indicating immune

cells. Compared to nuclear area of CD45$^+$ cells, the nuclear area of these CD45$^-$ cells was significantly

shrunken, suggesting cytotoxicity (Fig. 5G).

We then examined pneumococci in close proximity, within ~1 µm, to CD45$^+$ cells (Fig. 5H).

The area of both the DNA (Fig. 5I) and capsule (Fig. 5J) of CPS$^+$ pneumococci near CD45$^+$ cells was

similar to those of bacteria farther away in the alveoli. This suggests that capsule expression was not

directly influenced by the presence of immune cells.

Since hemoglobin oxidation in the alveoli leads to heme degradation and iron release[11, 33],

we expected elevated iron levels in the lungs. Using high-resolution laser ablation inductively

coupled plasma time-of-flight mass spectrometry (LA-ICP-TOFMS), we quantified iron levels in lung

sections from infected and uninfected mice. These analyses revealed high iron concentrations in

animals infected with H_2O_2-producing pneumococci, with iron localized in areas exhibiting tissue

damage (Fig. 5K, Supplementary Fig. 9). In contrast, mice infected with the H_2O_2-deficient

TIGR4$\Delta spxB\Delta lctO$ strain only displayed increased iron levels in areas with abundant inflammatory

infiltrate (Supplementary Fig. 9). These findings collectively demonstrate that *in vivo* hemoglobin

oxidation triggers its polymerization, facilitates the formation of Spn-Hb$^+$ pneumococci, and

promotes bacterial encapsulation.

Next, hemoglobin oxidation was investigated in sputum from a pneumococcal pneumonia

patient[34]. Ultrastructural analysis revealed aggregation of CPS$^+$ pneumococci embedded in the

sputum sample (Fig. 5L) and presence of Spn-Hb$^+$ bacteria throughout (Fig. 5M). Hemoglobin signal

was detected surrounding encapsulated bacteria, as quantified by overlap volume analysis. Due to

bacterial embedding within the aggregate, hemoglobin-capsule interactions were significantly

reduced compared to capsule-DNA interaction (Fig. 5N). Furthermore, hemoglobin overlap with

DNA from Spn-Hb$^+$ bacteria was significantly lower than that from CPS$^+$ pneumococci (Fig. 5O),

suggesting hemoglobin-induced toxicity in Spn-Hb$^+$ bacteria.

Both H_2O_2 and the capsule protect pneumococci from heme toxicity. Since heme exposure can kill

a subpopulation of pneumococci, we investigated the mechanisms of heme resistance. Minimum

bactericidal concentration (MBC) assays revealed that ≥10 µM heme was needed to kill 99.97% of

wild-type pneumococci (Fig. 6A, Fig. 6E, Fig. 6G, and Supplementary Fig. 10A). Culture supernatants

from pneumococci surviving exposure to lower heme concentrations (≤7.5 µM) showed significant

heme degradation, while cultures exposed to a lethal dose (12.5 µM) retained the characteristic

heme peak in spectral analysis (Fig. 6C and 6D). These findings suggest that pneumococci can

degrade heme at low concentrations, potentially protecting themselves from its toxic effects. Labile

heme levels in the bloodstream and lungs are ~0.2 µM[35, 36, 37]. Therefore, H_2O_2 production by

pneumococci might be particularly important for defense against heme toxicity at these

physiological concentrations.

To directly test this hypothesis, we performed heme susceptibility assays in cultures lacking

H_2O_2 production. H_2O_2-defective strains ($\Delta spxB\Delta lctO$) were significantly more susceptible to heme,

with an MBC below 2.5 µM (Fig. 6B, Fig. 6F and Supplementary Fig. 10B). Similarly, treating wild-type

pneumococci with catalase, an enzyme that degrades H_2O_2, also rendered them susceptible to 2.5

µM heme (Fig. 6J). Spectral analysis confirmed the presence of intact heme in supernatants from

cultures lacking H_2O_2 (Fig. 6C).

We then explored whether the pneumococcal capsule contributes to heme resistance, in

addition to the established role of H_2O_2 production. Capsule-deficient strains (TIGR4Δcps and R6)

displayed increased heme susceptibility compared to wild-type strains (MBC of 5 µM for mutants vs.

>10 µM for wild-type) despite producing normal H_2O_2 levels (Fig. 1B, 6K-L, and Supplementary Fig.

1A). Furthermore, scavenging H_2O_2 with catalase in these capsule-deficient strains dramatically

reduced the MBC of heme to 1.25 µM or 0.625 µM, respectively (Fig. 6K and 6L).

To assess labile heme as a defense strategy, mice were infected with a heme-susceptible

pneumococcal strain (TIGR4$\Delta spxB\Delta lctO$) after depletion of complement factor 3 (C3) using cobra

venom factor (CoVF). C3 depletion increases susceptibility to bloodstream infections[38]. We reasoned

that if heme offered protection, CoVF-treated mice would still be resistant (Suppl. Fig. 4D). While

some CoVF-treated mice lost weight (Suppl. Fig. 4E), likely due to CoVF itself, and as per protocol

were euthanized and considered in the mortality group (Suppl. Fig. 4F), there were no significant

differences in bacterial colonization or dissemination compared to controls (Suppl. Fig. 4G).

Collectively, these *in vivo* and *in vitro* experiments demonstrate that both the capsule and

H_2O_2 production contribute to pneumococcal heme resistance (Fig. 6M). Loss of either factor

increases heme susceptibility, and the absence of both renders pneumococci highly susceptible to

heme toxicity at concentrations below 1.5 µM (Fig. 6M).

Discussion

Spn thrives in the lung's alveolar-capillary network, exploiting host oxygen, carbohydrates, and iron from heme-hemoglobin. However, this study demonstrates that Spn's aerobic metabolism releases H_2O_2, unintentionally causing host damage. *In vitro*, Spn-H_2O_2 reacts with Fe^{2+}, generating hydroxyl radicals ($^{\bullet}OH^-$)[39, 40] and oxidizes hemoproteins (hemoglobin, cytochrome C) to labile heme and tyrosyl radicals[9, 11, 12]. Our findings reveal these Spn-H_2O_2 driven oxidative reactions as a major contributor to lung toxicity. Additionally, neutrophil infiltration in response to pneumococcal infection[41] produces hydrogen peroxide, potentially synergizing with Spn-H_2O_2 to exacerbate oxidation of heme-containing proteins within the alveolar-capillary microenvironment. Hemoglobin oxidation triggers cytosolic protein degradation and facilitates Spn differentiation into encapsulated bacteria, primarily within alveoli and pulmonary artery endothelial cells. These mechanisms represent novel targets for intervention against pneumococcal disease, which claims millions of lives annually.

Spn-H_2O_2 oxidation of hemoglobin induces globin chain aggregation (α and β) under physiological infection conditions, potentially aiding pneumococcal suspension in lung tissue[22, 23]. This contrasts with *in vitro* studies reporting preferential crosslinking of either α or β globin by H_2O_2. The oxidation also generates methionine sulfoxide (MetOH) in the β chain, potentially contributing to globin collapse[23]. Free hemoglobin is normally bound by haptoglobin (Hp) for macrophage uptake via CD163 receptors. However, oxidized hemoglobin exhibits reduced Hp binding, weakening its interaction with macrophages[22, 42]. In our mouse model, oxidized hemoglobin bound to a subset of non-encapsulated Spn-Hb$^+$ bacteria, while the majority localized near PMNs. This suggests

membrane-bound hemoglobin in Spn-Hb^{+} bacteria trigger an immune response, supported by the

abundance of CD45^{+} leukocytes surrounding Spn-Hb^{+} in severe pneumonia.

Pneumolysin (Ply), a pneumococcal toxin, may not fully explain the complex lung pathology

observed in pneumonia[43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48]. Spn-H_2O_2 shows promise as a mediator of both cell death and

pneumococcal disease in animal models[28, 45, 49, 50, 51, 52]. Notably, the co-activation of apoptosis and

pyroptosis markers suggests a multifaceted cytotoxicity mechanism[53, 54, 55, 56]. Our study identified a

loss of cellular structure in mouse lung regions exhibiting severe alveolar and bronchial cytotoxicity,

harboring intracellular pneumococci. Notably, epithelial cell nuclear DNA was absent, while

infiltrated CD45^{+} cells retained nuclei. *In vivo* cytotoxicity was partially attributed to Spn-H_2O_2

produced by pneumococci in the lungs. Furthermore, Spn-H_2O_2 was delivered intracellularly to

cultured human alveolar cells. While Spn-H_2O_2 can directly oxidize proteins, LA-ICP-TOFMS analysis

revealed elevated iron levels in these cytotoxic regions. This suggests a potential role for the Fenton

reaction in generating hydroxyl radicals ($^\bullet OH^-$) and subsequent DNA damage, contributing to the

observed toxicity[40, 57].

Our study unveils a mechanism linking H_2O_2-producing pneumococci to lung cell death and

structural collapse. Infection of human alveolar or bronchial cells with these bacteria triggered the

degradation of key cytoskeletal proteins (β-tubulin, β-actin) and cytosolic GAPDH (glycolysis) [12, 31].

This correlated with microtubule collapse and cell swelling, potentially mimicking damage observed

in cardiomyocytes exposed to high H_2O_2[30]. Mechanistically, Spn-H_2O_2 likely targets cysteine residues

in α and β-globin chains, weakening tubulin-tubulin interactions and inhibiting polymerization[30, 58,

59]. Similarly, H_2O_2 can directly oxidize the catalytic cysteine (Cys152) of GAPDH, leading to S-

glutathionylation and subsequent cell death[31, 60, 61]. This process holds therapeutic potential, as

studies suggest pharmacological induction of GAPDH oxidation shows promise for treating tumors[62].

Furthermore, antioxidant treatment in animal models and human trials improves survival rates from

pneumococcal infections[63, 64, 65].

Spn-H_2O_2 oxidation of hemoglobin triggers a cascade of detrimental events within the lung.

This process releases heme, leading to its degradation and the formation of highly reactive tyrosyl

radicals[12, 17, 18, 66, 67]. Heme destruction is well-documented for its toxicity. For instance, the

accumulation of labile heme during hemolytic diseases like malaria and sickle cell disease (SCD) is

linked to inflammation, blood clot formation (prothrombotic complications), and a form of cell

death called PANoptosis[15, 68, 69]. Importantly, the oxidation of other heme-containing proteins like

myoglobin, cytochrome C (Cytc), and methemoglobin (Hb-Fe3+) also generates these toxic tyrosyl

radicals[12, 70, 71, 72, 73]. Collectively, our findings unveil novel intervention strategies. By addressing

oxidative reactions in pneumococcal pneumonia or by stimulating the natural antioxidant response

of lung cells through pharmacological approaches, we may unlock promising therapeutic

possibilities.

Material and Methods

The Materials and Methods section is provided in supplementary materials. It can be

accessed online for further details.

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Figure legends

Fig. 1. Oxidation of hemoglobin by Spn creates metabolites that contributes to oxidative stress. (A)

Schematic representation of oxy-hemoglobin (Hb^{2+}), met-hemoglobin (Hb^{3+}), and ferryl-hemoglobin ($\bullet Hb^{4+}$).

(B) Spn was cultured in THY medium at 37°C for 6 h. Supernatants were collected, and H_2O_2 concentration

was quantified using Amplex Red (LOD < 0.56 μM). (C) THY added with met-hemoglobin (THY-Hb^{3+}) was

inoculated with Spn or left uninfected. Supernatants, THY alone, or Hb^{3+} (10 μM) were analyzed by native gel

electrophoresis with in-gel heme staining. (D & E) Heme, or (F) H_2O_2, was quantified in supernatants from (C)

using the QuantiChrom Heme Assay or Amplex Red assays, respectively. (G) Supernatants from cultures in (C)

and Hb^{3+} (10 μM) were analyzed by Western blot with a mouse monoclonal anti-β-hemoglobin antibody. (H)

Densitometric analysis of Hb monomer relative to control Hb^{3+}. Data in panels B, D-F, and H represent mean ±

SEM from ≥ 3 independent experiments. Statistical significance was determined by one-way ANOVA with

Dunnett's post hoc test (*$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.001$, ***$p < 0.0005$, ****$p < 0.0001$). (I) Heatmap depicting

pairwise comparisons between groups for identified molecules. Each row represents a chemical compound,

and each column represents a comparison. Asterisks indicate statistical significance by Mann-Whitney U test.

The color bar indicates the chemical superclass. (J) PCA biplot showing the first two principal components

with group membership and normal data ellipses. (K) PLS-DA biplots of the first two components, showing

group membership and normal data ellipses.

Fig. 2. Oxidation of hemoglobin by Spn selects for hemoglobin-binding (Spn-Hb[+]) and encapsulated

pneumococci. TIGR4 (A, B, E) or TIGR4Δ*spxB*Δ*lctO* (C) were incubated with Hb^{3+} and analyzed. Biofilms (A, C)

or planktonic bacteria (E) were stained for capsule (green), Hb (red), and DNA (blue). Images were acquired

by confocal microscopy and represent z-stack projections. Arrows: white, CPS[+] bacteria; yellow, Spn-Hb[+]

bacteria; arrowheads, DNA. (B) Area occupied by CPS⁺ and Spn-Hb⁺ bacteria was quantified using Imaris

software. The top panel shows masks used for quantification. (D) Minimum fluorescent intensity (MFI) of Spn-

Hb⁺ bacteria (red channel) in TIGR4 (A) or TIGR4Δ*spxB*Δ*lctO* (C) cultures incubated for 6 h was measured with

Imaris software. (F) TIGR4 or TIGR4Δ*spxB*Δ*lctO* were incubated with Hb for 6 h. Planktonic bacteria were

collected, stained for Hb and DNA, and analyzed by confocal microscopy. XY, XZ (bottom), and YZ (side)

optical sections are shown. (G) MFI of the DAPI channel (live Spn) was measured using Imaris software. (H)

Schematic diagram depicting the hypothesized mechanism: Hb binds a cell wall receptor, is oxidized by Spn-

H_2O_2, releasing heme that enters the cytosol. (J, K) Spn was incubated with Hb for 4 h. Cellular fractionation

was performed, and the insoluble fraction is shown in (J). Heme was quantified from the (I) cell wall fraction

or the (K) cytosolic fraction using the QuantiChrom Heme Assay. Data (B, D, G, I, K) are presented as mean ±

SEM of at least three independent experiments. Statistical analysis: Student's t-test (B, D, G) or one-way

ANOVA with Dunnet's test for multiple comparisons (I, K). ns, not significant; *, $p < 0.05$; ***, $p < 0.005$; **, p

< 0.0001.

Fig. 3. Pneumococci lacking capsule and hydrogen peroxide are rapidly cleared from the lungs. (A)

Schematic representation of the murine pneumococcal pneumonia model. (B) Confocal micrographs of

capsule-stained pneumococci. (C) Quantification of capsule production (percentage capsule-positive

bacteria). (D-H) Groups of eight Balb/c mice were intranasally inoculated with approximately ~10^7 colony-

forming units (CFU) of the indicated strain. Survival (D) and weight loss (E) were monitored. At endpoint, lung

tissues were harvested, imaged (F), homogenized to quantify bacterial burden (G), and processed for

histological analysis (L). Blood was collected for bacterial quantification (H). (I) Human alveolar A549 (J) or

mouse alveolar MLE-12 (J) cells were infected with TIGR4 or TIGR4^{GFP}Δ*spxB*Δ*lctO* for 6 hours, followed by

bacterial enumeration. (K) Confocal microscopy of membrane-, DNA-, and capsule-stained A549 cells infected

with pneumococci. (M-O) Lung sections were subjected to histopathological analysis, and scores for

bronchiolar hypertrophy (M), bronchiolar cellular exudate (N), and alveolar inflammatory cell infiltrate (O)

were assigned by a blinded pathologist. (P) Hydrogen peroxide levels in lung homogenates from mock-

infected or pneumococcus-infected mice. Data are presented as mean ± SD. One-way ANOVA with Dunnett's

multiple comparisons test was used for (C, E, G, H, M-P), and Mann-Whitney test for (I, J). Survival analysis

was performed using the log-rank Mantel-Cox test. *$p < 0.0001$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$. ns: not

significant.

Fig. 4. *S. pneumoniae* producing hydrogen peroxide encapsulates in the alveolar epithelium. Balb/c mice

were intranasally infected with TIGR4 ($\sim 10^7$ CFU) (A, D-F), TIGR4$\Delta spxB\Delta lctO$ (B), or complemented

TIGR4$\Omega spxB$-$lctO$ (C) and euthanized when moribund or at 96 h post-infection. Lung sections were stained for

cell membrane, capsule, and DNA. Confocal microscopy was used to image bronchioles, alveoli, and

pulmonary arteries and z-stack projections were obtained. Encapsulated (CPS$^+$) and de-capsulated (D-CPS)

pneumococci are indicated. A region of interest (ROI) was defined to delineate lumen and cellular

compartments. DAPI and capsule fluorescence intensity, and CPS$^+$ or D-CPS pneumococcal population density

(% Spn) were quantified in bronchioles (D), alveoli (E), and arteries (F) of TIGR4-infected mice. (G) Schematic

depicting the hypothesized transition of CPS$^+$ pneumococci from bronchioles to alveoli, involving de-

capsulation (D-CPS) for bronchiolar invasion and subsequent re-encapsulation in the alveolar epithelium. (H-J)

TIGR4 was cultured in THY (no cells), alveolar A549, or bronchial Calu-3 cells, with red blood cells (RBC), or in

THY supplemented with hemoglobin (Hb). RNA was extracted, and *cps4A* (H) and *spxB* (J) gene transcription

was analyzed. Hb release in THY-RBC cultures infected with TIGR4 (RBC Spn-infected) was assessed by

spectroscopy (I), with indicated wavelengths for oxy-hemoglobin (Heme-Fe^{2+}) and met-hemoglobin (Heme-

Fe^{3+}). (K) Heatmap visualization compares gene expression levels. Genes analyzed include those encoding

pyruvate node enzymes, pneumolysin (*ply*) and capsule locus genes. Samples are from D39 cultures grown on

THY-Hb^{3+} (Hemoglobin) vs. THY, THY-Hb^{3+} incubated for 2 h vs. 1 h and from *In vivo* TIGR4-infection model of

invasive pneumococcal disease (IPD) compared with gene expression in the nasopharynx. Analysis was

performed using the Mann Whitney test (D-F) and the non-parametric Wilcox test in (K) ns= not significant,

*$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$.

Fig. 5. ***In vivo*** **hemoglobin oxidation selects for encapsulated pneumococci.** (A-D, F-H) Lung sections from

Balb/c mice infected with TIGR4 or TIGR4Δ*spxB*Δ*lctO* were immunostained for hemoglobin, capsule, DNA

and/or CD45$^+$. Confocal microscopy z-stack projections of alveoli (A, B, and F) and pulmonary arteries (C and

D) are shown. Red blood cells (RBC), leukocytes (Leuk), encapsulated (CPS$^+$), de-capsulated (D-CPS) bacteria,

hemoglobin-bound pneumococci (Spn-Hb$^+$), and CD45$^+$ leukocytes are indicated. (E) Quantification of DNA

area within CPS$^+$ and Spn-Hb$^+$ pneumococci in alveoli using Imaris software. Confocal micrographs (F) were

used to generate (G) 3D masks for CD45$^+$ and CD45$^-$ cells, CPS$^+$ and D-CPS pneumococci using Imaris software.

(H) Nuclear area in CD45$^+$ and CD45$^-$ cells. (I) DNA area and (J) capsule area within CPS$^+$ pneumococci, in close

proximity (~1 μm) to CD45$^+$ cells, or farther and classified as alveolar pneumococci. At least three lungs from

infected animals were analyzed. Micrographs and quantitative data are presented from a representative

animal. (K) Elemental mapping of ^{56}Fe$^+$ in lung sections by LA-ICP-TOF-MS, with iron accumulation indicated

by arrows. (L-O) Human sputum stained for hemoglobin, pneumococcal capsule and DNA. (L) Confocal optical

XY middle section and corresponding XZ (underneath), and YZ (side) sections; (M) enlarged region. (N)

Overlap volume analysis of the capsule and DNA and capsule and hemoglobin. (O) Overlap volume analysis of

hemoglobin (Hb) and DNA from CPS+ and hemoglobin and DNA from non-encapsulated bacteria (D-CPS).

Statistical significance was determined using the Mann Whitney test (E, G, I, J); ns= not significant,

****p<0.0001.

Fig. 6. Hydrogen peroxide and the capsule protects pneumococci against heme toxicity. TIGR4 (A),

TIGR4Δ*spxB*Δ*lctO* (B), D39 (E), or D39Δ*spxB*Δ*lctO* (F) were incubated with or without heme (4 h). Bacterial

density was measured. Supernatants from heme challenge [(5 μM), C] or [(12.5 μM), D] were collected for

spectral analysis. (G) EF3030 or EF3030Δ*spxB*Δ*lctO* were cultured in a 96-well plate with heme-supplemented

THY and incubated overnight. NC: uninfected THY; PC: untreated THY with pneumococci. TIGR4 (J), TIGR4Δ*cps*

(K), or R6 (L) were cultured in heme supplemented THY with or without catalase (400 U/mL). Cultures were

incubated (4 h) and density measured by dilution and plating. (M) Proposed model for capsule and H$_2$O$_2$

protection against heme toxicity. Limit of detection (LOD) <50 CFU/mL. Data represent the mean ± SEM of

739 two technical replicates from three independent experiments. Statistical analysis: Mann-Whitney U test was

740 used to compare Soret peak absorbance (405 nm) between uninfected and pneumococci-infected media (B-

741 D); (A, E, F, J-L) One-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test. ns: not significant, *: $p < 0.05$, **: p

742 < 0.01.