Critical concentration of formate governs the expression of the flagellar and the pathogenicity island-1 genes in *Salmonella* Typhimurium

Debapriya Mukherjee[1], Dipshikha Chakravortty[1,2]*

[1]Department of Microbiology and Cell Biology, Division of Biological Sciences, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, India.

[2]School of Biology, Indian Institute of Science Education and Research, Thiruvananthapuram, 695551.

*Corresponding author: dipa@iisc.ac.in

   Tel: 0091 80 2293 2842

   Fax: 0091 80 2360 2697

Summary

Salmonella enterica is a Gram-negative foodborne pathogen belonging to the family *Enterobacteriaceae* that accounts for global disease burden and has become a top priority pathogen. The stealthy pathogen *Salmonella* can sense diverse cues from the host and modify the expression of its virulence factors. Formate is one of the important constituents of Short Chain Fatty Acids (SCFAs) present in the distal ileum and has previously been studied as an important signal to promote invasion in *Salmonella* Typhimurium. To unravel whether endogenous formate level is also crucial for conferring virulence in *Salmonella*, we have created genomic knockouts of *pflB* (Pyruvate-formate lyase) and *focA* (Formate transporter), the two major contributors to formate pool in *Salmonella*. Perturbing the intracellular pool of formate by deletion of *pflB* resulted in some major reprogramming like the loss of flagella and enhanced expression of pathogenicity island-1 genes. Moreover, STM *ΔpflB* was associated with a higher intracellular pH and membrane damage compared to the WT strain. Our data shows that the membrane damage seen in STM *ΔpflB* leads to the downregulation of the flagellar apparatus mediated by the extra cytoplasmic sigma factor RpoE. Moreover, this same regulon leads to the enhanced expression of pathogenicity island-1 genes, *hilA* and *prgH*. In this study, we show for the first time that endogenous formate levels are of utmost importance to maintain the optimum pH and regulate gene expression in STM. PflB might act as a switch to maintain the optimum cytosolic pH and maximize the virulence of STM under different niches.

Keywords: Short Chain Fatty Acids (SCFAs), Formate, Flagella, Intracellular pH, Membrane depolarization

Introduction

The genus *Salmonella* constitutes of Gram-negative gammaproteobacteria that infects a wide

range of human and animal hosts (1). Non-typhoidal serovars like *Salmonella* Typhimurium

are commonly associated with self-limiting diarrheal illness with less fatality. The Global

Burden of Diseases, Injuries, and Risk Factors Study (GBD) 2017 estimated a total of 95.1

million cases of *Salmonella* enterocolitis with a fatality of 50,771 individuals (2-4). Non-

typhoidal infection is mostly limited to the intestine, however, sometimes non-typhoidal

serovars can invade the sterile tissues and cause bacteremia, meningitis, and other focal

infections. This invasive non-typhoidal infections increase the percentage of case mortalities

(5).

Salmonella Typhimurium enters the body of the healthy host via contaminated food and water.

One line of defence posed by the host are the Short Chain Fatty Acids (SCFAs) of the small

intestine. SCFAs are derived from the anaerobic fermentation of non-digestible

polysaccharides, like resistant starches and dietary fibres. The main SCFAs present in the

intestine are acetate (C_2), propionate (C_3), and butyrate (C_4) (present in a ratio of 60:20:20) and

their concentrations can be as high as 10 to 100 mM. Recent studies have vastly characterized

the role of SCFAs in *Salmonella* infection (6-10). Propionate has been seen to diffuse across

the cell membrane of STM and the resulting change in the cytoplasmic pH initiated an acid

stress response and inhibited bacterial growth (11). Other studies have established the role of

butyrate in downregulating the expression of pathogenicity island-1 genes in STM and impair

bacterial invasion and translocation from intestine to the bloodstream (12-14). Also, the

decreased intracellular pH upon SCFA exposure can slow the flagellar motor and attenuate the

motility (15). Moreover, the quorum quenching ability of the organic acids make them a

lucrative antimicrobial agent and food preservative (15, 16).

Another member of the SCFAs in the intestine is formate. Previous literature has established

the role of formate in acting as a diffusible signal to stimulate the invasion of *Salmonella*

Typhimurium (17). It has also been shown that imported and unmetabolized formic acid functions as a cytoplasmic signal that binds to HilD, the master transcriptional regulator of *Salmonella* invasion, and prevents the repressive fatty acids from binding to the same. Thus, it enhances the lifetime of HilD and subsequent derepression of invasion genes (18). Also, formate utilization by the respiratory formate dehydrogenase-N (FdnGHI) and formate dehydrogenase-O (FdoGHI) are instrumental in the gut colonization by *Salmonella*. The formate utilized by STM was produced both by its endogenous enzyme pyruvate-formate lyase (PflB) as well as imported from the intestinal environment (19). However, very few studies have characterized the role of the endogenous formate in controlling the virulence and pathogenesis of *Salmonella* (20). In this study, we were initially trying to characterize the role of endogenously produced formate in the pathogenic lifestyle of STM. In the process, we have uncovered an interesting role of the formate pool in coordinating the expression of the flagellar genes and the SPI-1 genes during the intestinal colonization of *Salmonella* Typhimurium.

Results and discussion

Deletion of *pflB* gene leads to decreased percent invasion in Caco-2 cell line and is partially recovered upon supplementation of Sodium Formate

To understand the role of formate in *Salmonella* virulence and pathogenesis, we generated knockout strains of *pflB* and *focA* using one-step gene inactivation technique as described previously by Datsenko and Wanner (21). FocA was the formate transporter in *Salmonella* Typhimurium that acts as a passive export channel at high external pH and switches to an active formate importer at low pH (22). Since *focA* and *pflB* genes are in an operon, we proceeded to

understand whether deletion of one gene impacted the expression of the other gene (23). We found that deletion of the upstream *focA* gene led to a decreased expression of the downstream gene *pflB* (**Figure S2 B**). However, deletion of *pflB* increased the expression of *focA* gene (**Figure S2 A**). Deletion of either of the genes did not affect the *in-vitro* growth of *Salmonella* in complex LB media, M9 Minimal Media, and there was no observable change upon incubating the strains in M9 Minimal Media supplemented with 40 mM Sodium Formate (referred to as F from henceforth) (**Figure S1**). Similar observations were made for the double knockout strain (**Figure S1**). We proceeded to validate that deletion of *pflB* and *focA* indeed depleted the cell of its indigenous formate pool. For that purpose, we collected the lysate of logarithmic phase cultures of all the strains and quantified the formate concentration by Gas Chromatography Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS). Upon normalization with the CFU, we observed that deletion of *pflB* led to a significant decrease in the intracellular formate concentration. However, deletion of *focA* did not cause a significant change in the normalized intracellular concentration (**Figure 1A**). This raised the possibility of an alternate formate transporter. To test this, we incubated the secondary cultures of all the strains in formate supplemented media and after 3h of incubation, we assayed for the formate concentration in the spent media by GC-MS. Here, we found a significant decrease of the formate concentration in the spent media of STM *ΔfocA* compared to the control, which indicated the presence of an alternate formate importer (**Figure 1B**). Since STM *ΔfocA* retained intracellular formate like STM WT, we focused our study on STM *ΔpflB* where we were able to successfully deplete the formate pool.

Intracellular Cell Survival Assay (ICSA) in human colorectal carcinoma cell line Caco-2 revealed that STM *ΔpflB* was deficient in percent invasion which was partially recovered upon supplementation of F (**Figure 1C**). The invasion deficiency in the knockout was also recovered upon complementing the gene via an extragenous pQE60 plasmid (**Figure S2 C**). Fold

proliferation of STM *ΔpflB* and STM *ΔpflB*+F in Caco-2 was like STM WT (**Figure 1D**).

Supplementation of F did not affect the percent invasion of STM WT (**Figure 1C**). However,

STM WT supplemented with F had a decreased fold proliferation in Caco-2 (**Figure 1D**). STM

ΔpflB had a decreased percent phagocytosis in murine macrophage cell line RAW 264.7 which

was partially recovered in STM *ΔpflB*+F. Although supplementation of F led to a decreased

mean percent phagocytosis for STM WT, we found it to be statistically insignificant (**Figure**

1E). STM *ΔpflB* was hyperproliferative in RAW 264.7 cell line. STM WT+F also showed a

higher fold proliferation compared to STM WT (**Figure 1F**). To confirm whether the invasion

deficiency of STM *ΔpflB* was also observed in animal model, we orally gavaged 10^7 CFU of

STM WT and STM *ΔpflB* in 6-8 weeks old male C57BL/6 mice. Adhesion deficient STM *ΔfliC*

was used as a control. 6h post infection, we found a reduced bacterial burden in mouse intestine

for STM *ΔpflB*, which was also associated with an enhanced fecal shedding compared to STM

WT (**Figure 1 G, H, I**). These observations were in line with the control STM *ΔfliC* used in

this study (**Figure 1 H, I**). Deletion of *fliC* from STM makes it adhesion deficient and leads to

its faster clearance from the host body (24).

STM *ΔpflB* was deficient in flagella and the deficiency was recovered upon

supplementation of formate

Salmonella Typhimurium uses adhesins like flagella to adhere to host cells during infection

(25-27). Following successful adhesion, it uses *Salmonella* Pathogenicity Island-1 (SPI-1)

arsenals to invade non-phagocytic epithelial cells (28-30). Our previous data showed that STM

ΔpflB is deficient in percent invasion in Caco-2 cell line with partial recovery upon

supplementation of formate. Quite interestingly, we found that STM *ΔpflB* had a higher

expression of *prgH*, which encodes the apparatus protein of SPI-1. The expression was further

enhanced in STM *ΔpflB*+F. Alongside, STM WT+F had a significantly higher expression of *prgH* compared to STM WT (**Figure 2A**). This data was in line with the findings of Huang *et al* (17). Interestingly we found that STM *ΔpflB* had a reduced expression of *fliC* with a significant recovery in +F conditions. Formate supplementation also reduced the expression of *fliC* in STM WT compared to untreated control (**Figure 2B**). The flagella deficiency of STM *ΔpflB* was confirmed by Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM). We also found that the flagellar apparatus was intact in the formate transporter *focA* knockout (**Figure 2C**). The quantification of normalized MFI in confocal microscopy and the adhesion assay performed in Caco-2 cell line validated the flagella deficiency upon depleting the cell off its formate pool (**Figure 2D, E, F**). As expected, STM *ΔfocAΔpflB* was also deficient in flagella with a subsequent recovery when incubated in presence of F. (**Figure S3 A, B, C**). These data indicated that the flagellar expression is driven by the end-product formate and not the enzyme PflB.

Further, we incubated the secondary cultures of STM WT and STM *ΔpflB* in variable concentrations of formate. Quite interestingly, we found that formate can significantly inhibit the expression of *fliC* starting from a concentration of 1 mM. However, a concentration of 0.125 mM was sufficient to significantly recover the attenuated *fliC* expression in STM *ΔpflB* (**Figure S5 A**). 10 mM formate was able to significantly upregulate the expression of *hilA,* the master regulator of SPI-1, in both the strains (**Figure S5 B**).

To understand the specificity of formate in controlling this phenomenon, we incubated the secondary cultures of STM WT and STM *ΔpflB* with 40 mM of acetate, propionate, and butyrate. We found that observations with acetate supplementation were in line with the ones obtained upon F supplementation (**Figure S6 B**). This can be explained by the fact that pyruvate is hydrolyzed into formate and acetyl CoA by the PflB enzyme. A part of this acetyl CoA can be converted to acetate (23, 31). This shows that PflB enzyme can regulate the flagella

synthesis machinery by maintaining the pool of its end products formate and acetyl CoA. In STM WT, where the *pflB* gene is intact, formate and acetate downregulate *fliC* expression, showing that critical concentration of both the metabolites are important in regulating flagellar expression and the phenomenon is independent of the PflB enzyme.

STM *ΔpflB* caused attenuated infection in *in-vivo* mouse model when introduced via the oral route

To further understand the role of *pflB* in STM pathogenesis, we extended our study to the *in-vivo* mouse model. We orally gavaged 10^7 CFU of bacteria in 6-8 weeks old male C57BL/6 mice and euthanized the mice 5 days post infection (dpi) to determine the bacterial burden in the liver, the spleen, and the brain (**Figure 2G, H**). We found a significantly reduced bacterial burden in the liver and the spleen when infected with STM *ΔpflB* as compared to infection with STM WT (**Figure 2G, H**). We also found that C57BL/6 mice infected with STM *ΔpflB* had a better survival rate as compared to mice infected with STM WT (**Figure 2I**). In line with our previous findings, we observed that oral gavaging of STM *ΔfocA* led to similar bacterial burden in the liver and the spleen as STM WT 5dpi. STM *ΔfocAΔpflB* showed lesser organ burden in the liver and spleen of C57 mice model (**Figure S3 D, E**).

We subjected C57BL/6 mice to an intra-peritoneal infection with 10^3 CFU of both the WT and the knockout strains. Under these conditions, we observed no significant change in the organ burden of STM WT and STM *ΔpflB* 3dpi (**Figure S4A, B, C, D**). All these data suggested that the reduced organ burden of STM *ΔpflB* upon oral gavaging is due to its attenuated adhesion in the gastrointestinal tract, which promoted a faster clearance from the host body.

STM *ΔpflB* had a higher intracellular pH and higher membrane depolarization, both of which were recovered upon formate supplementation

Previous studies in *Escherichia coli* had suggested that formate translocation across the FocA channel and metabolism via the FHL-1 (Formate Hydrogen Lyase-1) Complex plays an important role in maintaining the pH homeostasis of the cell during anaerobic growth or fermentation (31-37). This led us to think whether formate synthesis during aerobic growth of *Salmonella* Typhimurium can also play a role in maintaining the intracellular pH (ipH). Also, weak acids like acetate and benzoate cross through the cell membrane in neutral form, and thereby dissociate to lower the ipH (38). From this, we can also expect the endogenous acetate pool to have a role in maintaining the ipH. To determine the change of intracellular pH with the alteration of pH in the surrounding media, we incubated STM WT and STM *ΔpflB* (+/- F) in phosphate buffers of pH 5.5, 6, and 7. Post incubation, a pH-sensitive dye BCECF-AM was used to stain the cells. A higher 488/405 nm ratio for STM *ΔpflB* at all the pH conditions suggested a higher ipH of the knockout strain with respect to the WT strain. More importantly, F and acetate supplementation helped to reduce the higher ipH in STM *ΔpflB* but did not have any role in altering the ipH of STM WT in all the pH conditions tested (**Figure 3A, Figure S6 C, D**). To further validate this data, we had transformed STM WT and STM *ΔpflB* with the plasmid pBAD-pHuji that encodes pH sensitive red fluorescent protein. The higher ipH in STM *ΔpflB*/pBAD-pHuji showed that *pflB* plays an important role in maintaining the cytosolic pH in *Salmonella* Typhimurium. As observed post BCECF-AM staining, F did not have any effect on the ipH of STM WT/pBAD-pHuji (**Figure 3B**). This data opens the possibility that extracellular and intracellular formate pool might regulate the expression of *fliC* and *hilA* by independent mechanisms.

Disrupted pH homeostasis is one of the reasons behind membrane depolarization in biological systems (39). Therefore, we decided to look at the membrane potential of all the strains with

or without F supplementation. Exponential culture of STM *ΔpflB* in LB showed a higher DiBAC$_4$ positive population corresponding to higher membrane depolarization. F supplementation in STM *ΔpflB* successfully reduced the membrane depolarization. However, F did not have a role in the membrane polarization in STM WT (**Figure 3D, E**). Similar observations were made upon staining the cells with the DNA-binding fluorescent dye bisbenzimide (**Figure 3C**). Further, the extent of membrane depolarization in STM *ΔpflB* was reduced when the stationary phase bacteria was subcultured into acidic F media (pH 5) (**Figure 3E**). The H$^+$ ions of F media might act to compensate for the disrupted cytosolic acidification in *pflB* knockout strain and thereby help in reversing the membrane depolarization. From these data, we can conclude that intracellular formate pool plays pivotal role in maintaining the ipH of *Salmonella* Typhimurium and therefore helps in sustaining the polarization of the cell membrane.

We wanted to find out whether the higher ipH in *pflB* knockout is responsible for the disrupted synthesis of flagellar apparatus. We found that incubation STM *ΔpflB* in acidic LB medium (pH 6) led to an increase in *fliC* transcript (**Figure S6 A**). Hence, we reached the conclusion that higher ipH is responsible for the downstream effects.

STM *ΔpflB* had a higher transcript level of *csrB*, raising the possibility of flagella inhibition via the *csr* sRNA system

To understand how formate regulates the flagellar operon, we checked the transcript level of some of the class I (*flhD*), class II (*flgA, fliA*), class II (*flgK, motA*) genes (**Figure 4A**) (40-48). We found that inhibition of flagellar operon in formate deficient *pflB* knockout strain is initiated from the class I genes or prior to that. Transcription of the *flhDC* promoter is regulated by factors like OmpR, Crp, HdfR, H-NS, QseBC, FliA, LrhA, etc(42, 49-51). One of the vastly

studied mechanisms of post-transcriptional regulation of *flhDC* is the one mediated by *csr*

system. The Csr system is made up of the RNA-binding protein CsrA and the small regulatory

RNAs (sRNAs) *csrB* and *csrC* (52). CsrA is a 61 amino acid long protein that binds mRNA of

the target genes and thereby prevents or promotes translation (53). CsrA can bind to the *flhD*

transcript and stabilize it from 5`-end directed RNase E cleavage (54). The activity of CsrA

protein is antagonized by small regulatory RNAs *csrB* and *csrC*. A single *csrB* RNA molecule

can bind up to 18 CsrA molecules, whereas a single *csrC* molecule can bind up to 9 CsrA

molecules (55-57). In *S*. Typhimurium, CsrA has been seen to regulate motility, virulence,

carbon storage, and secondary metabolism (58, 59). The transcription of *csrB* and *csrC* is

controlled by the orthologues of BarA/SirA two component systems (TCS) in *E. coli* and *S*.

Typhimurium (60-63).

We observed that there was an increase in the *csrB* transcript levels in STM *ΔpflB* that reduced

in STM *ΔpflB*+F (**Figure 4B**). Since *csrB* directly interacts with CsrA and prevents the activity

of the latter, we decided to clone *csrA* in an extragenous plasmid pQE60 and transform the

recombinant plasmid in STM *ΔpflB*. IPTG-mediated overexpression of *csrA* led to a partial

recovery of the attenuated expression of *fliC* in STM *ΔpflB* (**Figure 4C**). CsrA is known to bind

to *flhD* transcript and stabilize the same. However, an abundance of CsrA molecules in the cell

might stabilize the *flhD* transcript to an extent that translation is prevented. This explains why

overexpression of *csrA* in STM WT resulted in a reduced expression of *fliC*. This finding was

supported by adhesion assay in Caco-2 cell line, where we found that STM *ΔpflB*/p: *csrA* had

an improved percent adhesion compared to STM *ΔpflB* (**Figure 4D**). The improvement in

flagellar number upon overexpressing *csrA* in STM *ΔpflB* was visualized and quantified by

TEM and confocal microscopy as well (**Figure 4E, F, G, H**).

The extra cytoplasmic sigma factor RpoE increases the expression of *csrB* and therefore restricts the expression of *fliC*

In *E. coli*, RpoE (σ^E) is an extra cytoplasmic stress factor that is required for viability and regulating cellular response to membrane stress (64). The membrane bound anti-sigma factor RseA binds to σ^E in conjunction with the periplasmic protein RseB (65, 66). In absence of any envelope stress, the binding of RseA to σ^E prevents the latter from interacting with the RNA polymerase (66-69). Upon envelope stress, the proteolytically unstable RseA is degraded rapidly and releases abundant σ^E molecules in the cellular to mediate its downstream functions like activation of gene products involved in biogenesis, transport, and/or assembly of lipopolysaccharides (LPS), phospholipids, and outer membrane proteins (OMPs) that constitute the outer membrane (OM), and the proteases and chaperones that maintain or repair the OM integrity (66). Recent studies have shown that σ^E also activates the transcription of *csrB/C* sRNAs indirectly from σ^{70} promoters (70, 71). These studies have been performed in *E. coli*. Deletion of *rpoE* from STM showed the reduction in transcription level of *csrB* (~0.588). This indicated that a similar mechanism might be functional in STM as well (**Figure 5A**).

In our previous data, we had shown that formate produced by PflB maintains the ipH of the cell. Therefore, deletion of the gene perturbs the ipH and leads to membrane depolarization. We hypothesized that the membrane stress in STM *ΔpflB* can lead to the degradation of RseA and the free σ^E can promote the transcription of *csrB*. Our data showed that the enhanced *csrB* expression in STM *ΔpflB* was reduced multiple folds in STM *ΔpflBΔrpoE* (**Figure 5A**). We also found that the low expression of *flhD* and *fliC* in STM *ΔpflB* was reversed in STM *ΔpflBΔrpoE* (**Figure 5B**). This reversal of flagella deficiency further reflected in the improved percent adhesion of STM *ΔpflBΔrpoE* as compared to STM *ΔpflB* in Caco-2 cell line (**Figure**

5C). TEM and confocal microscopy further confirmed this observation (**Figure 5D, E, F, G**). Thus, we could understand that the attenuated flagella synthesis in STM *ΔpflB* was mediated via the extra cytoplasmic stress factor σ^E.

Formate maintains the switch between the flagellar expression and SPI-1 gene expression in intestine of the C57BL/6

In our previous data, we had shown that STM *ΔpflB* shown a higher abundance of *prgH* transcript. We wanted to see if this enhanced expression of SPI-1 gene was regulated by this same loop. Hence, we studied the transcript level of *hilA* and *prgH* genes of SPI-1. We found that the increased expression of *hilA* and *prgH* in STM *ΔpflB* was reduced in STM *ΔpflBΔrpoE* (**Figure 6A**). This proved that the intracellular formate regulates the switch from flagellar expression to SPI-1 gene expression.

Previous results in our study had shown that F supplementation enhances the expression of *prgH* in STM WT and STM *ΔpflB* (**Figure 2A**). Flagellar motility and invasion in epithelial cells are controlled by the BarA/SirA Two-component system (TCS) (62). As expected, STM *ΔsirA* had a low level of *hilA* and *prgH* expression and F supplementation in STM *ΔsirA* produced no significant change in the expression of the two genes. Deletion of *sirA* in STM *ΔpflB* abolished any significant upregulation in *hilA* and *prgH* levels upon F supplementation (**Figure 6B**). This shows that the extracellular formate influences the virulence and pathogenesis of *Salmonella* via the BarA/SirA TCS. Interestingly, we observed that STM *ΔpflBΔsirA* continued to show a recovery in the *fliC* transcript level under F supplementation. This proves that intracellular formate regulates the pathogenesis of *Salmonella* independent of the BarA/SirA TCS (**Figure 6C**). Hence, if the intracellular pool of formate is maintained by *pflB* gene, extracellular formate influences the expression of the SPI-1 genes via the BarA/SirA

TCS. However, if the intracellular pool of formate is perturbed, the resulting membrane damage promotes the RpoE mediated overexpression of *csrB*, associated with decrease in *fliC* transcript level and enhanced *hilA prgH* expression.

To understand the physiological relevance of this phenomenon, we studied the expression levels of *pflB* in different parts of the intestine as flagella and SPI-1 are highly instrumental in the intestinal phase of *Salmonella* infection. We found that *pflB* expression reduced from duodenum to the ileum (**Figure 6D**). This led us to hypothesize that *Salmonella* downregulates its *pflB* gene as it approaches its site of invasion- the distal ileum. Downregulation of *pflB* gene can create a partial deficiency of formate in the bacterial cell, eliciting in a membrane depolarization effect, thereby promoting the activity of σ^E, enhancing the abundance of *csrB* molecules, and downregulating the transcription of flagellar operon with the upregulation of the expression of SPI-1 gene cascade. We performed obtained sections of duodenum and ileum from mice infected with STM WT and STM *ΔpflB* and stained with anti-SipC antibody to determine the levels of the SPI-1 effector protein (**Figure 6F**). We further normalized the fluorescence from secondary antibody specific for Rabbit-generated Anti-SipC antibody with the mCherry fluorescence of the bacteria, transformed with pFPV: *mCherry*. We found that the normalized MFI increased from duodenum to ileum for the STM WT infected mice. Whereas there was a decrease in the normalized MFI from duodenum to ileum in the STM *ΔpflB* infected mice (**Figure 6E**). These data show that indeed the formate pool maintained by PflB enzyme negatively regulates the expression of SPI-1 genes and depletion of the former can be a strategy for *Salmonella* Typhimurium to maximize the expression of the latter in the ileum.

Conclusion

Salmonella harbours a cascade of genes and regulatory factors that maintains the switch

between the different aspects of its extracellular and intracellular lifestyle (72). Multiple studies

in *Salmonella* Typhimurium have affirmed the regulatory overlap between the flagellar

secretion system and the SPI-1. The flagellar protein FliZ is known to post-translationally

activate the master regulator of flagella synthesis, i.e.., FlhD. Kage *et al* have shown that FliZ

can also regulate HilD, one of the regulators of SPI-1, at the transcriptional level (73, 74). HilD

has been found to directly bind to the promoter region of *flhDC* upstream of the P5

transcriptional start site and activate its expression (75). Other studies have shown that the

expression of SPI-1 can negatively influence the expression of flagellar genes, and this

facilitates the pathogenicity and virulence of *Salmonella*. A *fliZ* mutation decreased the

expression of *hilA* by 2-fold, whereas *sirA* knockout showed decreased the expression of *hilA*

by 10-fold and increased expression of flagella by 100-fold (76-79). Moreover, a latest study

by Saleh *et al* have shown that HilD activation can trigger a SPI-1 dependent induction of the

stringent response and considerable decrease in the Proton Motive Force (PMF). Although

flagellation was unaffected, HilD-induction produced motility defect in *S*. Typhimurium (80).

All these studies have shown that *Salmonella* can modulate between its flagella synthesis and

SPI-1 gene expression to achieve efficient adhesion and delivery of SPI-1 effectors. There can

be multiple advantages of downregulating flagella and upregulating the expression of SPI-1

genes. Firstly, downregulation of flagella will prevent the bacteria from swimming away from

a cell primed for invasion. Secondly, the flagellar apparatus is immunogenic and

downregulating the flagella can be a strategy to subvert the host's immune responses (81-83).

Thirdly, simultaneous production of the two apparatus might lead to an interference between

the both and manifest itself as misappropriate secretion of flagellin and the SPI-1 effectors (84).

In our study, we have knocked out the gene encoding pyruvate-formate lyase enzyme and hence

were successful to deplete the cell off its native formate pool. Although the knockout strain did

show an enhanced expression of SPI-1 gene *prgH*, it had a reduction in the transcript level of

fliC. This reflected in an attenuated invasion as well as adhesion in the human epithelial cell

line. The deficiencies were partially recovered with the supplementation of 40 mM F. This also

explains why it was hyperproliferative in the RAW 264.7 macrophage cell line (85). We have

also found that STM *ΔpflB* was unable to maintain its intracellular pH to as par STM WT,

which elicited in a membrane depolarization phenotype. Perturbations in the membrane

degraded RseA and caused the sigma factor RpoE to enhance the expression of *csrB*. Since

csrB is known to bind and inhibit CsrA protein, we speculated that the enhanced *csrB* transcript

level resulted in a reduced *fliC* expression. Overexpression of *csrA* via an extragenous plasmid

led to a partial recovery in the expression of *fliC* and this supported our speculation. Moreover,

deletion of *rpoE* in STM *ΔpflB* which could successfully alter the flagella deficient phenotype

in the further affirmed our hypothesis. This proved that the extra cytoplasmic sigma factor

RpoE was mediating the downstream effects in response to the cell membrane stress.

In all our experiments, we had also observed that F supplementation caused a reduced flagellar

expression in STM WT. Quite interestingly, supplementation of formate did not influence the

intracellular pH or the membrane potential of STM WT. This led us to hypothesize that

extracellular formate impacted the pathogenicity of STM differently from intracellular formate

synthesis pathway. Huang *et al* have shown that extracellular formate acts as a diffusible signal

to promote invasion. However, this was independent of the BarA/SirA Two Component

System. Also, they have commented that this was independent of *csrB* that is directly regulated

by the action of the response regulator SirA. In our study, we have also found that STM WT+F

had a higher expression of SPI-1 genes (17). In contrast with the previous literature, we have

found that the *csrB* transcript level was higher in STM WT+F as compared to STM WT. It is

highly likely that the elevated *csrB* levels were successfully able to bind to the free CsrA

molecules and prevent them from stabilising the *flhD* transcript, thereby bringing about a

reduced *fliC* expression. This shows that formate is an essential metabolite of *Salmonella* and

critical concentration of formate act to determine whether it will act through the TCS or by

regulating the ipH of the cell.

Salmonella Typhimurium has been vastly studied to alter its metabolism according to the

requisites inside the host. For example, butyrate in small intestine promotes the β-oxidation in

intestinal epithelial cells, which depletes the oxygen at the epithelial interface (86). During

Salmonella infection, neutrophils transmigrating to the intestine introduce ROS and RNS, that

lead to the generation of tetrathionate and nitrate in the lumen (87, 88). Moreover, inflammation

depletes the intestinal lumen off the butyrate-producing bacteria and the intestinal epithelium

shifts to lactate fermentation (89). Loss of local oxygen consumption leads to oxygen diffusing

in the otherwise anaerobic intestinal lumen (89, 90). *Salmonella* switches to an oxidative

central metabolism using oxygen, nitrate, and tetrathionate as terminal electron acceptors and

this strategy helps it to efficiently degrade the poorly fermentable sources like the host-derived

lactate (91-96). Previously, it has been shown that spatially distinct *Salmonella* populations in

the mucous layer and the intestinal lumen vary in their energy metabolism. Transcription of

pyruvate-formate lyase and formate dehydrogenases were comparatively higher in the mucous

layer as compared to the population in the lumen (19). The study had shown that formate

metabolism conferred an enhanced fitness advantage in the mucous layer. In our study we have

seen that the transcription of the *pflB* is highest at the large intestine, and it gradually subsides

in the small intestine, ie., the site of *Salmonella* infection. It is highly likely that *Salmonella*

modulates the expression of *pflB* in response to signals perceived from the local

microenvironment of the gut. Thereby, we propose a model of *Salmonella* invasion where it

downregulates the *pflB* gene and perturbs the intracellular formate pool once it reaches its site

of infection. Therefore, it creates a partial membrane depolarization, which downregulates the

flagellar apparatus and promotes the invasion of STM into epithelial cells by induced

expression of the SPI-1 apparatus. The cues and the genetic factors that control this modulation

have not been understood. Overall, our study adds up to the knowledge of understanding how

intracellular metabolism in *Salmonella* can govern the virulence attributes of the pathogen and

reflects upon the possibility of more such interactions for future research.

Acknowledgements

We express our heartfelt gratitude to the financial support from Department of Biotechnology

(DBT), Ministry of Science and Technology; Department of Science and Technology (DST),

Ministry of Science and Technology. DC acknowledges DAE for the SRC outstanding

investigator award and funds, ASTRA Chair Professorship and TATA Innovation fellowship

funds. The authors jointly acknowledge the DBT-IISc Partnership Program. Infrastructure

support from ICMR (Center for Advanced Study in Molecular Medicine), DST (FIST), and

UGC-CAS (special assistance) is acknowledged. DM acknowledges IISc fellowship.

We acknowledge the Departmental Real-Time Facility, Departmental Confocal Microscopy

facility, Divisional Electron Microscopy Facility, Divisional Mass Spectrometry Facility,

Divisional Flow Cytometry Facility, Central Animal Facility at IISc for providing us

opportunity for experimentation. Mr. Sumitlal K and Ms. Navya have helped in image

acquisition in Confocal Microscopy. Dr. Sushma and Keerthana helped in image acquisition in

Transmission Electron Microscopy. Dr. Muralidhar and Dr. Sunitha helped in formate

quantitation studies using Gas Chromatography Mass Spectrometry. Ms. Lipika and Ms.

Dhanusha helped in data acquisition from Flow Cytometry. Dr. Akshay Datey is acknowledged

for his initial supervision in the study.

Author Contributions

DM and DC have conceived the study and designed the experiments. DM has performed all the experiments and participated in acquiring the data. DM has analysed the data, constructed the figures, and wrote the original draft of the manuscript. DM and DC have participated in the proofreading and editing of the manuscript. DC has supervised the study and helped in fund acquisition. All the authors have read and approved the manuscript.

Declaration of interest

Authors declare no conflict of interest.

Figure Legends

Figure 1

Figure 1: Deletion of *pflB* gene leads to decreased percent invasion in Caco-2 cell line and is partially recovered upon supplementation of Sodium Formate

A. GC-MS mediated quantification of intracellular formate in STM WT, STM *ΔpflB*, STM *ΔfocA*, STM *ΔfocAΔpflB*. Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=3, n=6.

B. GC-MS mediated quantification of residual formate in the spent media post incubation by STM WT, STM *ΔpflB*, STM *ΔfocA*, STM *ΔfocAΔpflB*. Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=3, n=3.

C. Percent invasion of STM WT, STM *ΔpflB* (+/-F) in Caco-2 cell line. Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=3, n=3.

D. Fold proliferation of STM WT, STM *ΔpflB* (+/-F) in Caco-2 cell line. Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=3, n=3.

E. Percent phagocytosis of STM WT, STM *ΔpflB* (+/-F) in RAW 264.7 cell line. Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=3, n=3.

F. Fold proliferation of STM WT, STM *ΔpflB* (+/-F) in RAW 264.7 cell line. Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=3, n=3.

G. Schematic showing the protocol followed for invasion assay in C57BL/6 mice

H. Bacterial burden in the intestine post 6h of infecting the mice with STM WT and STM *ΔpflB* via oral gavaging. Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=2, n=5.

I. Bacterial burden in the feces of mice post 6h of infection with STM WT and STM *ΔpflB* via oral gavaging. Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=2, n=5.

(Unpaired Student's t-test for column graphs, Two-way Anova for grouped data, Mann-Whitney U-test for animal experiment data (**** $p < 0.0001$, *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p<0.01$, * $p<0.05$))

Figure 2

Figure 2: STM *ΔpflB* was deficient in flagella and the deficiency was recovered upon supplementation of formate

A. RT-qPCR mediated study of expression profile of *prgH* in the logarithmic phase cultures of STM WT, STM *ΔpflB* (+/-F). Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=3, n=3.

B. RT-qPCR mediated study of expression profile of *fliC* in the logarithmic phase cultures of STM WT, STM *ΔpflB* (+/-F). Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=2, n=3.

C. TEM assisted visualization of the flagellar structures in STM WT, STM *ΔpflB*, STM *ΔfocA*, STM *ΔfliC*

D. Confocal microscopy assisted visualization of the flagellar structures in STM WT, STM *ΔpflB* (+/-F). Images are representative of N=2, n=5.

E. Normalized Median Fluorescence Intensity (MFI), i.e.., MFI of Secondary antibody for Rabbit generated Anti-fli antibody/ MFI for DAPI in confocal microscopy assisted visualization of the flagellar structures in STM WT, STM *ΔpflB* (+/-F). Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=2, n=5.

F. Percent adhesion of STM WT, STM *ΔpflB*, STM *ΔfliC*(+/-F) in Caco-2 cell line. Data is

represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=5, n=3.

G. Organ burden of STM WT and STM *ΔpflB* in spleen 5 days post oral gavaging. Data is

represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=3, n=5.

H. Organ burden of STM WT and STM *ΔpflB* in liver 5 days post oral gavaging. Data is

represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=3, n=5.

I. Survival rates of C57BL/6 mice post infection with STM WT and STM *ΔpflB* through

oral route.

(Unpaired Student's t-test for column graphs, Two-way Anova for grouped data, Mann-

Whitney U-test for animal experiment data (**** $p < 0.0001$, *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p<0.01$, *

$p<0.05$))

Figure 3

498   **Figure 3: STM *ΔpflB* had a higher intracellular pH and higher membrane depolarization,**

499   **both of which were recovered upon formate supplementation**

A. BCECF-AM dye mediated elucidation of the relative ipH in the logarithmic cultures of STM WT, STM $\Delta pflB$ (+/-F) in phosphate buffers of pH 5.5, 6, and 7. Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=4, n=4.

B. Elucidation of the ipH in the logarithmic cultures of STM WT/pBAD-pHuji and STM $\Delta pflB$/pBAD-pHuji (+/-F). Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=4, n=3.

C. Bisbenzimide assay to quantify the membrane damage in the logarithmic cultures of STM WT, STM $\Delta pflB$, STM $\Delta fliC$ (+/-F). Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=6, n=5.

D. Representative FACS percent positive and histogram profiles of DiBAC$_4$ staining in the logarithmic cultures of STM WT, STM $\Delta pflB$, STM $\Delta fliC$ (+/-F). Data is representative of N=4, n=3.

E. Flow cytometry obtained quantification of percent- DiBAC$_4$ positive cells in the logarithmic cultures of STM WT, STM $\Delta pflB$, STM $\Delta fliC$ (+/-F) incubated in LB media (pH 7.2) and F-media (pH 5.5). Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=4, n=3.

(Unpaired Student's t-test for column graphs, Two-way Anova for grouped data, Mann-Whitney U-test for animal experiment data ($****$ $p < 0.0001$, $***$ $p < 0.001$, $**$ $p<0.01$, $*$ $p<0.05$))

Figure 4: STM *ΔpflB* had a higher transcript level of *csrB*, raising the possibility of flagella inhibition via the *csr* sRNA system

A. RT-qPCR mediated expression profile of the flagellar operon genes *flhD*, *flgA*, *flgK*, *fliA*, *motA* in the logarithmic cultures of STM WT, STM *ΔpflB (+/-F)*. Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=3, n=3.

B. RT-qPCR mediated expression profile of the sRNA *csrB* in the logarithmic cultures of STM WT, STM *ΔpflB (+/-F)*. Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=6, n=3.

C. RT-qPCR mediated expression profile of the flagellar operon genes *flhD* and *fliC* in the logarithmic cultures of STM WT and STM *ΔpflB* transformed with an pQE60*: csrA* under an IPTG-inducible system. Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=3, n=3.

D. Percent adhesion of STM WT/pQE60*: csrA* and STM *ΔpflB*/pQE60*: csrA* in Caco-2 cell line. Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=3, n=3.

E. TEM assisted visualization of the flagellar structures in STM WT/pQE60*: csrA*, STM *ΔpflB*/pQE60*: csrA*. Data is representative of N=2, n=10.

F. Quantification of number of flagella/bacteria in each image obtained by TEM for the logarithmic cultures of STM WT/pQE60: *csrA*, STM *ΔpflB*/pQE60: *csrA*. Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=2, n=10.

G. Confocal microscopy assisted visualization of the flagellar structures in STM WT/pQE60: *csrA*, STM *ΔpflB*/pQE60: *csrA*. Images are representative of N=2, n=10.

H. Normalized Median Fluorescence Intensity (MFI), i.e.., MFI of Secondary antibody for Rabbit generated Anti-fli antibody/ MFI for DAPI in confocal microscopy assisted visualization of the flagellar structures in STM WT/pQE60: *csrA*, STM *ΔpflB*/pQE60: *csrA*. Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=2, n=10

(Unpaired Student's t-test for column graphs, Two-way Anova for grouped data, Mann-Whitney U-test for animal experiment data (**** $p < 0.0001$, *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$))

Figure 5

Figure 5: The extra cytoplasmic sigma factor RpoE increases the expression of *csrB* and therefore restricts the expression of *fliC*

A. RT-qPCR mediated expression profile of the sRNA *csrB* in the logarithmic cultures of STM WT, STM *ΔpflB*, STM *ΔrpoE*, STM *ΔpflBΔrpoE*. Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=4, n=3.

B. RT-qPCR mediated expression profile of the flagellar operon genes *flhD* and *fliC* in the logarithmic cultures of STM WT, STM *ΔpflB*, STM *ΔrpoE*, STM *ΔpflBΔrpoE*. Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=2, n=3.

C. Percent adhesion of STM WT, STM *ΔpflB*, STM *ΔrpoE*, STM *ΔpflBΔrpoE* in Caco-2 cell line. Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=2, n=3.

D. TEM assisted visualization of the flagellar structures in STM WT, STM *ΔpflB*, STM *ΔrpoE*, STM *ΔpflBΔrpoE*. Data is representative of N=2, n=10.

E. Quantification of number of flagella/bacteria in each image obtained by TEM for the logarithmic cultures of STM WT, STM *ΔpflB*, STM *ΔrpoE*, STM *ΔpflBΔrpoE*. Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=2, n=10.

F. Confocal microscopy assisted visualization of the flagellar structures in STM WT, STM *ΔpflB*, STM *ΔrpoE*, STM *ΔpflBΔrpoE*. Images are representative of N=2, n=10.

G. Normalized Median Fluorescence Intensity (MFI), i.e.., MFI of Secondary antibody for Rabbit generated Anti-fli antibody/ MFI for DAPI in confocal microscopy assisted visualization of the flagellar structures in STM WT, STM *ΔpflB*, STM *ΔrpoE*, STM *ΔpflBΔrpoE*. Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=2, n=10.

(Unpaired Student's t-test for column graphs, Two-way Anova for grouped data, Mann-Whitney U-test for animal experiment data (**** $p < 0.0001$, *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p<0.01$, * $p<0.05$))

Figure 6

Figure 6: PflB maintains the switch between the flagellar expression and SPI-1 gene expression in intestine of the C57BL/6

A. RT-qPCR mediated expression profile of the SPI-1 genes *hilA* and *prgH* in the logarithmic cultures of STM WT, STM *ΔpflB*, STM *ΔrpoE*, STM *ΔpflBΔrpoE*. Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=4, n=3.

B. RT-qPCR mediated expression profile of *fliC* gene in the logarithmic cultures of STM WT, STM *ΔpflB*, STM *ΔrpoE*, STM *ΔpflBΔrpoE*. Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=3, n=3.

C. RT-qPCR mediated expression profile of *pflB* gene in the duodenum and ileum of the intestine of C57BL/6 mice. Data is represented as Mean+/-SEM of N=3, n=3.

D. Confocal microscopy assisted visualization of the SPI-1 effector SipC protein in the duodenum and ileum of mice infected with STM WT and STM *ΔpflB*. Images are representative of n=7.

E. Normalized Median Fluorescence Intensity (MFI), i.e.., MFI of Secondary antibody for Rabbit generated Anti-SipC antibody/ MFI for mCherry fluorescence from STM

588   WT/pFPV and STM *ΔpflB/* pFPV in confocal microscopy. Data is represented as

589   Mean+/-SD of n=7.

590   (Unpaired Student's t-test for column graphs, Two-way Anova for grouped data, Mann-

591   Whitney U-test for animal experiment data (**** $p < 0.0001$, *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p<0.01$, *

592    $p<0.05$))

Figure 8

595   **Figure 7: Regulation of flagellar machinery and SPI-1 apparatus by intracellular formate**

596   Intracellular formate maintains the ipH of the cell. Perturbations in the formate pool bring about

597   membrane depolarization, causing the migration of RpoE to csrB promoter. Overexpression of

598   csrB upregulates the SPI-1 machinery and causes depletion of free CsrA molecules. The latter

599   leads to a flagella deficient cell.

STAR Methods

Bacterial strains and plasmids

The wild-type *Salmonella enterica* subspecies *enterica* serovar Typhimurium strain 14028S used in this study was a kind gift from Professor Michael Hensel, Max Von Pettenkofer-Institute for Hygiene und Medizinische Mikrobiologie, Germany. The knockout and complement strains were generated for this study. The glycerol stocks of the bacterial strains were stored in -80°C and revived on fresh Luria-Bertani (LB) Agar (HiMedia) plates supplemented with appropriate antibiotics (50 µg/ml Kanamycin, 50 µg/ml Ampicillin, 25 µg/ml Chloramphenicol) when required. A single colony was inoculated into a fresh LB tube supplemented with antibiotics whenever required and incubated at 37°C under shaking conditions (170 rpm) to obtain an overnight culture of the bacterial strains. Strains harbouring pKD46 plasmid were incubated overnight at 30°C under shaking conditions (170 rpm). A complete list of bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study has been given below in Table A.

Table A:

Strains/ plasmids	Characteristics	Source/ Information
Salmonella enterica subspecies *enterica* serovar Typhimurium strain 14028S	Wild type (WT)	Gift from Prof. M. Hensel
S. Typhimurium *ΔfocA*	Chl^R	This study
S. Typhimurium *ΔpflB*	Kan^R	This study
S. Typhimurium *ΔpflB*/pQE60	Kan^R, Amp^R	This study

S. Typhimurium *ΔpflB*/pQE60: *pflB*	Kan^R, Amp^R	This study
S. Typhimurium *ΔfocAΔpflB*	Kan^R, Chl^R	This study
S. Typhimurium *ΔfliC*	Kan^R	Laboratory stock
S. Typhimurium/pQE60: *csrA*	Amp^R	This study
S. Typhimurium *ΔpflB*/pQE60: *csrA*	Kan^R, Amp^R	This study
S. Typhimurium *ΔpflBΔrpoE*	Kan^R, Chl^R	This study
S. Typhimurium *ΔpflBΔsirA*	Kan^R, Chl^R	This study
pKD4	Plasmid with FRT flanked Kanamycin-resistant cassette	
pKD3	Plasmid with FRT flanked Chloramphenicol-resistant cassette	
pKD46	Plasmid expressing λ-red recombinase system, Amp^R	
pQE60 vector	Low copy number plasmid, Amp^R	Laboratory stock
pBAD:pHuji	Amp^R	Addgene
pFPV:mCherry	Amp^R	Laboratory stock

Construction of the knockout strains of *Salmonella*

The knockout strains of *Salmonella* were generated by following the one-step chromosomal gene inactivation technique as described by Datsenko and Wanner (21). Briefly, STM (WT) was transformed with pKD46 plasmid expressing λ-red recombinase system under Arabinose-inducible plasmid. The transformed cells were selected in LB plates supplemented with 50 µg/ml Ampicillin. For generating the knockout strains, a single colony of STM (WT)/ pKD46 was inoculated in a fresh LB tube supplemented with 50 µg/ml Ampicillin and 50 mM Arabinose and incubated at 30˚C overnight under shaking conditions (170 rpm). The overnight culture was sub-cultured in fresh LB tubes and incubated for 2.5 h under similar conditions to obtain an OD_{600} of 0.35-0.4. Electrocompetent STM (WT)/pKD46 was prepared by washing the bacterial pellet with chilled and autoclaved MilliQ and 10% Glycerol. Kanamycin (Kan^R, 1.5 kb cassette) resistance cassette and Chloramphenicol (Chl^R, 1.1 kb cassette) were amplified from pKD4 and pKD3 plasmids using the knockout primers. The amplified Kan^R and Chl^R cassettes were electroporated in STM (WT)/pKD46. The transformed cells were selected on LB Agar plate using appropriate antibiotics (Kanamycin, Chloramphenicol). The knockout colonies were confirmed by using gene-specific intragenic primers, knockout confirmatory primers, and antibiotic-cassette specific primers.

The double knockout strains were generated by briefly modifying the one-step chromosomal gene inactivation method as described by Datsenko and Wanner. Briefly, STM *ΔpflB* was transformed with pKD46 plasmid. Overnight culture of the transformed strain was sub-cultured into fresh LB tube supplemented with 50 mM Arabinose and 50 µg/ml Ampicillin and incubated for 2.5 h at 30˚C (170 rpm) till it reached an OD_{600} of 0.3-0.4. Chloramphenicol gene cassette (1.1 kb) flanked with homologous regions of *focA* was electroporated into electrocompetent STM *ΔpflB*/pKD46 to generate STM *ΔfocAΔpflB*. The double-knockout strains were selected on LB Agar supplemented with Kanamycin (50 µg/ml) and Chloramphenicol (25 µg/ml). The double knockout colonies were further confirmed with

643　knockout confirmatory and gene specific intragenic primers. Primers used for knockout

644　generation have been enlisted in Table B.

Construction of complemented and overexpression strains of *Salmonella*

The genes *pflB* and *csrA* were amplified from the genomic DNA of the wild-type *Salmonella*

by using their respective cloning primers. The colony PCR products and the empty pQE60

cloning vector were subjected to restriction digestion with BamHI-HF (NEB) and HindIII-HF

(NEB) at 37˚C for 1 hour. The double-digested insert and vector were further purified and

subjected to ligation by T4 DNA Ligase (NEB) at 16˚C overnight. The ligated product was

further transformed into *Escherichia coli* TG1 by heat shock method. Cloning was confirmed

by double digestion of the recombinant plasmid. The recombinant plasmid was transformed

into *Salmonella* strains to generate complemented and overexpression strains. Primers used for

complement strain generation have been enlisted in Table B.

RNA Isolation and RT-qPCR

Logarithmic culture of bacterial cells was centrifuged at 6,000 rpm at 4˚C and the pellet was

resuspended in TRIzol reagent. It was stored at -80˚C till further use. RNA was isolated from

the lysed supernatants by using the chloroform-isopropanol method. The RNA pellet was

washed using 70% Ethanol and it was resuspended in 30 µl of DEPC treated MilliQ. RNA

concentration was measured in NanoDrop (Thermo Fischer Scientific) and the quality was

assessed on a 2% agarose gel. Following this, 2 µg RNA was subjected to DNase treatment in

presence of DNase TURBO (Thermo Fischer Scientific) at 37˚C for 30 mins. The DNase was

inactivated by addition of 5 mM Na_2EDTA (Thermo Fischer Scientific), followed by incubation

at 65˚C for 10 mins. The cDNA synthesis was performed using the PrimeScript RT reagent kit

of Takara (CAT RR037A), following the manufacturer's protocol. Quantitative Real Time PCR

was performed using TB Green RT-qPCR kit (Takara) in Quant 5 Real-Time PCR system.

Intragenic primers were used to study the expression of the genes. The gene expression level

was normalized with the expression of 16S rRNA. The primer sequences are mentioned in

Table B.

TABLE B:

PRIMER NAME	SEQUENCE (5'-3')
16S rRNA RT FP	GTGAGGTAACGGCTCACCAA
16S rRNA RT RP	TAACCGCAACACCTTCCTCC
hilA RT FP	GCCGGTGACCATTACGAAGA
hilA RT RP	AAGAGAGAAGCGGGTTGGTG
prgH RT FP	CGTTTTCAGGTGTTGCCAGG
prgH RT RP	TACGCGGCTCATCGAAATGA

flhD RT FP	CGCCTCGGTATCAACGAAGA
flhD RT RP	CACTTCATTGAGCAGACGCG
fliC RT FP	CTAAACAAACTGGGTGGCGC
fliC RT RP	GCACCCAGGTCAGAACGTAA
flgA RT FP	ATTATGTCGCCGTTGCC
flgA RT RP	TGACCTGTACTCGTTGC
flgK RT FP	AACCACCGATCAGTATC
flgK RT RP	TCGTCAGGTTATAGGTG
fliA RT FP	GCTGGATGAATTACGCA
fliA RT RP	CCACTCATCGTAAGAGA
motA RT FP	TTGCTGGCGTTGCTCTA
motA RT RP	GATGATCAGGCGCAGAT

csrB RT FP	CGTACAACGAAGCGAACGTC
csrB RT RP	TGTGACCTTACGGCCTGTTC
focA KO FP	ACACCGTAATTGCATAAAAGCCATGCGACTTACGGGCCTACATATGAATATCCTCCTTAG
focA KO RP	ATGCTCGTTACCACGCAGGTAAATGACCCAGTATGTCAACGTGTAGGCTGGAGCTGCTTC
pflB KO FP	ATGTCCGAGCTTAATGAAAAGTTAGCCACAGCCTGGGAACATATGAATATCCTCCTTAG
pflB KO RP	TACATGGTCTGCGTGAAGGTACGAGTAATAACGTCCTGCTGTGTAGGCTGGAGCTGCTTC
focA RT FP	CGGAAAGCCACATCAGTAAC
focA RT RP	ATCGGGGGTATCTGTTTCTC
pflB RT FP	ATAACGTCCTGCTGCTGTTC
pflB RT RP	ATGGTTACTTCCACCACGAA
pflB cloning FP	CGCGGATCCATGTCCGAGCTTAATGA

pflB cloning RP	CCCAAGCTTCAGTCAAACCCATTACA
rpoE KO FP	GGTTTGGGGAGACATTACCTCGGATGAGCGAGCAGTTACATATGAATATCCTCCTTAG
rpoE KO RP	CCTAATACCTTTTCCAGTATCCCGCTATCGTCAACGGTGTAGGCTGGAGCTGCTTC
sirA KO FP	CTATCAGTAGCGTTATCCCTATTCTGGAGATATTCCTTTGCATATGAATATCCTCCTTAG
sirA KO RP	ATACGATAGCGATAGCTGTTCACCGTTTTAGGACTGAGATGTGTAGGCTGGAGCTCTTC
csrA cloning FP	CGCGGATCCATGCTGATTCTGACTCG
csrA cloning RP	CCCAAGCTTTTAGTAACTGGACTGCTGG

Eukaryotic cell lines and growth conditions

676 The HeLa, Caco-2, HepG2, RAW 264.7 cell lines were maintained in Dulbecco's Modified

677 Eagle's Medium (DMEM, Sigma-Aldrich), supplemented with 10% Fetal Calf Serum (FCS,

678 Gibco) at 37˚C, in the presence of 5% CO_2.

Gentamicin Protection Assay and Intracellular Cell Survival Assay

Caco-2 and RAW 264.7 cells were seeded into tissue culture treated 24-well plates. For

infection in epithelial cell Caco-2, the overnight cultures of STM WT, STM *ΔpflB*, STM

ΔpflB/pQE60: *pflB*, and STM *ΔfocAΔpflB* were subcultured into fresh LB tubes supplemented

with or without 40 mM Sodium Formate (Sigma). For infection in the macrophage cell line

RAW 264.7, the overnight cultures of the bacterial strains were used. Both the cell lines were

infected at an MOI of 10. After centrifuging the cells at 1000 rpm for 10 mins, the cells were

incubated at 37˚C for 25 mins in the presence of 5% CO_2. The cells were then washed with 1X

Phosphate Buffer Saline (PBS) to remove the extracellular unadhered and loosely adhered

bacteria before addition of media containing 100 µg/ml of gentamicin. After incubation for 1

hour, the cells were washed with 1X PBS and were subjected to 25 µg/ml of gentamicin

treatment till the time of lysis. The cells were lysed at 2h and 16h post-infection with 0.1%

Triton X-100 and the lysates were plated on *Salmonella-Shigella* (SS) Agar along with the pre-

inoculum. The percent invasion and the fold proliferation were calculated using the following

formulae:

Percent invasion/phagocytosis= [C.F.U at 2h/ C.F.U of Pre-Inoculum] *100

Fold proliferation= [C.F.U at 16h/ C.F.U of 2h]

Adhesion assay

The adhesion assay was performed by modifying the previously reported protocol (97). Briefly,

Caco-2 cells were seeded into tissue culture treated 24-well plates. The 12h-old overnight

cultures of STM WT, STM *ΔpflB*, and STM *ΔfliC* were sub cultured into fresh LB tubes

supplemented with or without 40 mM Sodium Formate (Sigma). The cells were infected with

the logarithmic phase of these bacterial strains at an MOI of 10. The cells were centrifuged at

1000 rpm for 10 mins. Following this, the cells were incubated at 37˚C for 10 mins in the

presence of 5% CO_2. The cells were then washed with 1X Phosphate Buffer Saline (PBS) twice

to remove the extracellular unadhered and loosely adhered bacteria. The cells were lysed with

0.1% Triton X-100 and the lysates were plated on *Salmonella-Shigella* (SS) Agar along with

the pre-inoculum. The percent adhesion was calculated using the following formula:

Percent adhesion= [C.F.U at 10 mins Post Infection/ C.F.U of Pre-Inoculum] *100

TEM

Transmission Electron Microscopy was performed by modifying the protocol by Marathe *et al*

(98). Briefly, overnight cultures of STM WT, STM *ΔpflB*, STM *ΔfocA*, STM *ΔfocAΔpflB*, STM

WT*/csrA,* STM *ΔpflB/csrA,* STM *ΔrpoE*, and STM *ΔpflBΔrpoE* were sub cultured (1:100) (+/-

F) into fresh LB tubes and incubated at 37C for 2.5- 3 hours under shaking conditions. Next,

the samples were washed twice with 1X PBS and finally resuspended in 50 µl of 1X PBS. 5 µl

of this sample was placed on glow-discharged Cu-grid followed by air-drying. The bacteria

were negatively stained with 1% uranyl acetate. The samples were air-dried followed by

imaging with Transmission Electron Microscopy (JEM-100 CX II; JEOL).

Confocal Microscopy

Confocal Microscopy was performed by modifying the protocol by Marathe *et al* (98). Briefly,

12h old stationary phase cultures of STM WT, STM *ΔpflB*, STM *ΔfocAΔpflB*, STM WT*/csrA,*

STM *ΔpflB/csrA,* STM *ΔrpoE*, STM *ΔpflBΔrpoE,* (+/-F) were subcultured (1:100) into fresh

LB tubes and incubated at 37C for 2.5- 3 hours under shaking conditions till it reached the

logarithmic phase. Following this, 100 µl of the log phase culture was spotted onto sterile

coverslips and were air-dried overnight. Once the samples were completely dried, 3.5%

Paraformaldehyde (PFA) was added to the coverslips to fix the samples. The PFA was washed away by using 1X PBS and the Rabbit raised Anti-Fli primary antibody (1:100 dilution in 2.5% BSA solution, Difco) was used to stain the fixed samples for 3h at room temperature. After washing away the primary antibody with 1X PBS, the samples were incubated with the secondary antibody Alexa-488 conjugated Anti-Rabbit antibody (Sigma) for 45 mins at room temperature. Immediately prior to mounting of the coverslip onto a clean glass slide, the samples were stained with 4`,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) for 5 mins. Transparent nail paint was used to seal the coverslips. All the images were obtained with Zeiss 880 and were analysed using Zeiss ZEN Black 2012 Software.

Gas Chromatography Mass Spectrometry

GC-MS was performed by modifying the protocol by Hughes *et al* (99). Briefly, overnight cultures of STM WT, STM *ΔpflB*, STM *ΔfocA*, STM *ΔfocAΔpflB* were sub cultured (1:100) into 100 ml of LB Broth. After 2.5-3h of incubation at 37˚C under shaking conditions, 50 ml of the individual cultures was centrifuged at 6,000 rpm for 10 mins. The pellet was washed twice with 1X PBS to remove the remnants of the media. Finally, the pellet was resuspended in 1 ml of 1X PBS, and the suspension was sonicated to lyse the bacterial cells. The cell debris were removed by centrifugation. Prior to sonication, the CFU in the pellet had been recorded by plating.

Sodium formate (Sigma) was used as an external standard. External standards and biological samples were derivatized prior to the Mass Spectrometry. 2 M hydrochloric acid was added in a 1:1 ratio to the samples to protonate formate. Liquid-liquid extraction was done which extracted formic acid into ethyl acetate (Sigma-Aldrich). To remove any remaining water, the ethyl acetate extract was passed through a column of anhydrous sodium sulfate (Sigma-

Aldrich). The ethyl acetate extract of formic acid was then incubated at 80 ºC for 1 h with the derivatization reagent N, O-Bis(trimethylsilyl)trifluoro acetamide (Sigma Aldrich) with 1% Chlorotrimethylsilane (Fluka). The derivatized samples were then transferred to autosampler vials for analysis by Gas Chromatography Mass Spectrometry (Agilent technologies, 7890A GC, 5975C MS). The injection temperature was set to 200 °C and the injection split ratio was 1:40 with an injection volume of 1 µL. The oven temperature set to start at 40 °C for 4 min, with an increase to 120 °C at 5 °C per min and to 200 °C at 25 °C per min with a final hold at this temperature for 3 min. Helium carrier gas had a flow rate of 1.2mL/min with constant flow mode. A 30 m × 0.25 mm × 0.40 µm DB-624 column from Agilent was used. The interface temperature set to 220 °C. The electron impact ion source temperature was at 230 °C, with an ionization energy of 70 eV and 1235EM volts. For qualitative experiments, selected ion monitoring (single quadrupole mode) of 103 m/z scan had been performed. The retention time for formate and deuterated formate was 5.9 min. The target and reference (qualifier) ions for formate were m/z = 103 and m/z = 75, respectively. The formate concentration of each sample was interpolated from a standard curve with the known standards. It was normalized with the CFU values of each sample to obtain the intracellular formate concentration/CFU.

To determine the formate transportation into the cell, we sub cultured overnight cultures of STM WT, STM *ΔpflB*, STM *ΔfocA*, STM *ΔfocAΔpflB* into fresh LB tubes. During the subculture, Sodium Formate was supplemented into each tube to maintain a concentration of 1M. Post 2.5-3h of incubation at 37˚C under shaking conditions, the bacterial cells were removed from the media by centrifuging the culture twice at 6,000 rpm for 10 mins. A 2 µm filter was used to remove any other bacterial cells left in the spent media. Following this, similar protocol as mentioned above was used to quantify the residual formate in the spent media. It was compared to the media where bacterial cells had not been sub cultured.

Bisbenzimide Assay

Bisbenzimide assay was performed by modifying the protocol by Roy Chowdhury *et al* (100). Briefly, overnight cultures of STM WT, STM *ΔpflB*, STM *ΔfliC* were subcultured into fresh LB tubes(+/-F). Logarithmic phase cultures of each condition was taken and the OD_{600} was adjusted to 0.1. To 180 µl of this bacterial suspension, 20 µl of Bisbenzimide dye (10µg/ml) was added. It was incubated at 37˚C for 10 mins. The intracellular DNA-bound bisbenzimide was quantified in a TECAN 96 well microplate reader using a 346 nm excitation and 460 nm emission filter.

Staining with DiBAC₄

Bisbenzimide assay was performed by modifying the protocol by Roy Chowdhury *et al* (101). Membrane potential or membrane porosity was quantified by using a membrane potential sensitive fluorescent dye bis-(1,3-dibutyl barbituric acid)- trimethylene oxonol (Invitrogen). For this purpose, overnight culture of STM WT, STM *ΔpflB*, STM *ΔfliC* was subcultured with or without the supplementation of 40 mM Sodium Formate (Sigma). Around 4.5*107 cells of the logarithmic phase culture were incubated with 1 µg/ml of DiBAC4 dye at 37˚C for 30 mins. The percent DiBAC₄-positive cells and the Median Fluorescence Intensity (MFI) of DiBAC₄ was determined by flow cytometry (BD FACSVerse by BD Biosciences-US).

BCECF-AM Staining

Bisbenzimide assay was performed by modifying the protocol by Roy Chowdhury *et al* (100). The acidification of the cytosol with the change in pH of extracellular conditions was detrimental determined using a cell-permeable dual excitation ratiometric dye 2',7'-Bis-(2-

Carboxyethyl)-5- (and-6)-Carboxyfluorescein, Acetoxymethyl Ester (BCECF-AM). Briefly,

the logarithmic phase cultures of STM WT, STM $\Delta pflB$ (+/-F) were resuspended in buffers of

different pH (5,5.5,6,7). They were incubated for 2 hours at 37˚C prior to addition of 1 mg/ml

BCECF-AM to make a final concentration of 20 μM. The cells were incubated with the dye

for 30 minutes. Post-incubation, the cells were analyzed by flow cytometry (BD FACSVerse

by BD Biosciences, US) with 488 nm and 405 nm excitation and 535 nm excitation channels.

The MFI of the bacterial cells at 488 nm and 405 nm was obtained from BD FACSuite software

and the ratio of 488/405 was utilised to determine the cytosolic acidification in response to

changing pH conditions.

Intracellular pH measurement by pHuji plasmid

STM WT and STM $\Delta pflB$ were transformed with the plasmid pBAD:pHuji (Plasmid #61555)

that encodes a pH sensitive red fluorescent protein pHuji (102, 103). The logarithmic cultures

of STM WT/pBAD:pHuji and STM $\Delta pflB$/pBAD:pHuji (+/-F) were incubated in phosphate

buffers of pH 5,6,7,8,9 in presence of 40 μM Sodium Benzoate to equilibrate the intracellular

pH with the extracellular one. The resultant fluorescent intensity was plotted as a function of

pH and was fitted to obtain a standard curve. The fluorescence values obtained from LB-grown

cultures of the bacterial cells (+/- F) was interpolated in the standard curve to obtain then

intracellular pH of the bacterial cells *in-vitro*.

Ethics statement for Animal Experiments

All the animal experiments have been approved by the Institutional Animal Ethics Clearance

Committee (IAEC), Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore. The registration number is

48/1999/CPCSEA. The guidelines formulated by the Committee for the Purpose of Control

and Supervision of Experiments on Animals (CPCSEA) were strictly followed. The ethical

clearance number for this study is CAF/Ethics/853/2021.

Mice Survival Assay

6-8 weeks old male C57BL/6 mice and Balb/c mice were acquired from the specific-pathogen

free conditions of Central Animal Facility, IISc. To draw a comparison between the mortality

rate of WT and mutant strains, the mice (n=10) were orally gavaged with 10^8 cells from the

stationary phase culture of each. After infection, the mice were monitored every day for

survival, and the data was represented as percent survival.

Determination of bacterial burden in different organs

To understand the organ burden of the WT and mutant strain post infection in mice, 10^7 cells

from the overnight culture of the bacterial strains were orally gavaged into 6-8 weeks old

C57BL/6 mice. 5 days post infection, the mice were ethically euthanized, and the liver, spleen,

and brain were acquired. The organs were homogenized, and appropriate dilutions of the

homogenate was plated on *Salmonella-Shigella* (SS Agar). The data was represented was

$\log_{10}$CFU/gm-wt.

Invasion Assay in mice

Invasion assay in mice was performed by modifying the protocol by Chandra *et al* (104)*.

Briefly, 10^7 cells from the overnight culture of the bacterial cells were orally gavaged into 6-8

weeks old male C57BL/6 mice. 6 hours post infection, the mice were ethically euthanized, and

the intestine was acquired. It was homogenized, and appropriate dilutions of the homogenate

was plated on *Salmonella-Shigella* (SS Agar). Corresponding fecal matter was also collected

and it was also plated post homogenization. The data was represented was $\log_{10}$CFU/gm-wt.

Intraperitoneal infection of mice

Intraperitoneal infection of mice was performed with 10^3 CFU from the overnight cultures of

WT and mutant strains. 2 days post infection, the mice were ethically euthanized, and the liver,

and the spleen were obtained. The organ burden of the bacterial strains was determined by the

same protocol as above.

Statistical Analysis

Each experiment has been repeated 1 to 8 times independently as mentioned in the figure

legends. The statistical analyses were performed by two-way Student's t-test or two-way

ANOVA multiple comparison test as denoted in the figure legends. The data obtained from the

mice experiments were analyzed using the Mann-Whitney U test. The p values below 0.05

were considered significant. The results are indicated as Mean $\pm$ SD or Mean $\pm$ SEM as

mentioned in the figure legends. All the data were plotted and analysed using GraphPad Prism

8.4.2.

References

1.   Galanis E, Lo Fo Wong DM, Patrick ME, Binsztein N, Cieslik A, Chalermchikit T, et al. Web-
based surveillance and global Salmonella distribution, 2000-2002. Emerg Infect Dis. 2006;12(3):381-
8.
2.   Collaborators GBDCoD. Global, regional, and national age-sex-specific mortality for 282
causes of death in 195 countries and territories, 1980-2017: a systematic analysis for the Global
Burden of Disease Study 2017. Lancet. 2018;392(10159):1736-88.

3.   DALYs GBD, Collaborators H. Global, regional, and national disability-adjusted life-years
(DALYs) for 359 diseases and injuries and healthy life expectancy (HALE) for 195 countries and
territories, 1990-2017: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2017. Lancet.
2018;392(10159):1859-922.
4.   Disease GBD, Injury I, Prevalence C. Global, regional, and national incidence, prevalence, and
years lived with disability for 354 diseases and injuries for 195 countries and territories, 1990-2017: a
systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2017. Lancet. 2018;392(10159):1789-858.
5.   Crump JA, Sjolund-Karlsson M, Gordon MA, Parry CM. Epidemiology, Clinical Presentation,
Laboratory Diagnosis, Antimicrobial Resistance, and Antimicrobial Management of Invasive
Salmonella Infections. Clin Microbiol Rev. 2015;28(4):901-37.
6.   Maslowski KM, Vieira AT, Ng A, Kranich J, Sierro F, Yu D, et al. Regulation of inflammatory
responses by gut microbiota and chemoattractant receptor GPR43. Nature. 2009;461(7268):1282-6.
7.   Tan J, McKenzie C, Potamitis M, Thorburn AN, Mackay CR, Macia L. The role of short-chain
fatty acids in health and disease. Advances in immunology. 2014;121:91-119.
8.   Thorburn AN, Macia L, Mackay CR. Diet, metabolites, and "western-lifestyle" inflammatory
diseases. Immunity. 2014;40(6):833-42.
9.   Huffnagle GB. Increase in dietary fiber dampens allergic responses in the lung. Nat Med.
2014;20(2):120-1.
10.   Machado MG, Sencio V, Trottein F. Short-Chain Fatty Acids as a Potential Treatment for
Infections: a Closer Look at the Lungs. Infect Immun. 2021;89(9):e0018821.
11.   Jacobson A, Lam L, Rajendram M, Tamburini F, Honeycutt J, Pham T, et al. A Gut Commensal-
Produced Metabolite Mediates Colonization Resistance to Salmonella Infection. Cell Host Microbe.
2018;24(2):296-307 e7.
12.   Boyen F, Haesebrouck F, Vanparys A, Volf J, Mahu M, Van Immerseel F, et al. Coated fatty
acids alter virulence properties of Salmonella Typhimurium and decrease intestinal colonization of
pigs. Vet Microbiol. 2008;132(3-4):319-27.
13.   Gantois I, Ducatelle R, Pasmans F, Haesebrouck F, Hautefort I, Thompson A, et al. Butyrate
specifically down-regulates salmonella pathogenicity island 1 gene expression. Appl Environ
Microbiol. 2006;72(1):946-9.
14.   Lawhon SD, Maurer R, Suyemoto M, Altier C. Intestinal short-chain fatty acids alter
Salmonella typhimurium invasion gene expression and virulence through BarA/SirA. Mol Microbiol.
2002;46(5):1451-64.
15.   Lamas A, Regal P, Vázquez B, Cepeda A, Franco CM. Short chain fatty acids commonly
produced by gut microbiota influence Salmonella enterica motility, biofilm formation, and gene
expression. Antibiotics. 2019;8(4):265.
16.   Amrutha B, Sundar K, Shetty PH. Effect of organic acids on biofilm formation and quorum
signaling of pathogens from fresh fruits and vegetables. Microb Pathog. 2017;111:156-62.
17.   Huang Y, Suyemoto M, Garner CD, Cicconi KM, Altier C. Formate acts as a diffusible signal to
induce Salmonella invasion. J Bacteriol. 2008;190(12):4233-41.
18.   Chowdhury R, Pavinski Bitar PD, Chapman HM, Altier C. Salmonella Invasion Is Controlled by
Competition among Intestinal Chemical Signals. mBio. 2023;14(2):e0001223.
19.   Winter MG, Hughes ER, Muramatsu MK, Jimenez AG, Chanin RB, Spiga L, et al. Formate
oxidation in the intestinal mucus layer enhances fitness of Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium.
mBio. 2023;14(4):e0092123.
20.   Abernathy J, Corkill C, Hinojosa C, Li X, Zhou H. Deletions in the pyruvate pathway of
Salmonella Typhimurium alter SPI1-mediated gene expression and infectivity. J Anim Sci Biotechnol.
2013;4(1):5.
21.   Datsenko KA, Wanner BL. One-step inactivation of chromosomal genes in Escherichia coli K-
12 using PCR products. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2000;97(12):6640-5.
22.   Lu W, Du J, Wacker T, Gerbig-Smentek E, Andrade SL, Einsle O. pH-dependent gating in a FocA
formate channel. Science. 2011;332(6027):352-4.

23. Dong R, Liang Y, He S, Cui Y, Shi C, He Y, et al. DsrA Modulates Central Carbon Metabolism and
Redox Balance by Directly Repressing pflB Expression in Salmonella Typhimurium. Microbiol Spectr.
2022;10(1):e0152221.
24. Parker CT, Guard-Petter J. Contribution of flagella and invasion proteins to pathogenesis of
Salmonella enterica serovar enteritidis in chicks. FEMS Microbiol Lett. 2001;204(2):287-91.
25. Haiko J, Westerlund-Wikstrom B. The role of the bacterial flagellum in adhesion and
virulence. Biology (Basel). 2013;2(4):1242-67.
26. Rossez Y, Wolfson EB, Holmes A, Gally DL, Holden NJ. Bacterial flagella: twist and stick, or
dodge across the kingdoms. PLoS Pathog. 2015;11(1):e1004483.
27. Gut AM, Vasiljevic T, Yeager T, Donkor ON. Salmonella infection - prevention and treatment
by antibiotics and probiotic yeasts: a review. Microbiology (Reading). 2018;164(11):1327-44.
28. Agbor TA, McCormick BA. Salmonella effectors: important players modulating host cell
function during infection. Cell Microbiol. 2011;13(12):1858-69.
29. Finlay BB, Ruschkowski S, Dedhar S. Cytoskeletal rearrangements accompanying salmonella
entry into epithelial cells. J Cell Sci. 1991;99 (Pt 2):283-96.
30. Zhou D, Galan J. Salmonella entry into host cells: the work in concert of type III secreted
effector proteins. Microbes Infect. 2001;3(14-15):1293-8.
31. Kammel M, Pinske C, Sawers RG. FocA and its central role in fine-tuning pH homeostasis of
enterobacterial formate metabolism. Microbiology (Reading). 2022;168(10).
32. Suppmann B, Sawers G. Isolation and characterization of hypophosphite-resistant mutants of
Escherichia coli: identification of the FocA protein, encoded by the pfl operon, as a putative formate
transporter. Molecular Microbiology. 1994;11(5):965-82.
33. Kammel M, Sawers RG. The FocA channel functions to maintain intracellular formate
homeostasis during Escherichia coli fermentation. Microbiology. 2022;168(4).
34. Beyer L, Doberenz C, Falke D, Hunger D, Suppmann B, Sawers RG. Coordination of FocA and
pyruvate formate-lyase synthesis in Escherichia coli demonstrates preferential translocation of
formate over other mixed-acid fermentation products. J Bacteriol. 2013;195(7):1428-35.
35. Wiechert M, Beitz E. Mechanism of formate-nitrite transporters by dielectric shift of
substrate acidity. EMBO J. 2017;36(7):949-58.
36. Lyu M, Su CC, Kazura JW, Yu EW. Structural basis of transport and inhibition of the
Plasmodium falciparum transporter PfFNT. EMBO reports. 2021;22(3):e51628.
37. Helmstetter F, Arnold P, Hoger B, Petersen LM, Beitz E. Formate-nitrite transporters carrying
nonprotonatable amide amino acids instead of a central histidine maintain pH-dependent transport.
J Biol Chem. 2019;294(2):623-31.
38. Minamino T, Imae Y, Oosawa F, Kobayashi Y, Oosawa K. Effect of intracellular pH on rotational
speed of bacterial flagellar motors. J Bacteriol. 2003;185(4):1190-4.
39. Putnam RW. Chapter 17 - Intracellular pH Regulation. In: Sperelakis N, editor. Cell Physiology
Source Book (Fourth Edition). San Diego: Academic Press; 2012. p. 303-21.
40. Kutsukake K, Ide N. Transcriptional analysis of the flgK and fliD operons of Salmonella
typhimurium which encode flagellar hook-associated proteins. Mol Gen Genet. 1995;247(3):275-81.
41. Gillen KL, Hughes KT. Transcription from two promoters and autoregulation contribute to the
control of expression of the Salmonella typhimurium flagellar regulatory gene flgM. J Bacteriol.
1993;175(21):7006-15.
42. Ikebe T, Iyoda S, Kutsukake K. Structure and expression of the fliA operon of Salmonella
typhimurium. Microbiology (Reading). 1999;145 (Pt 6):1389-96.
43. Ohnishi K, Kutsukake K, Suzuki H, Iino T. Gene fliA encodes an alternative sigma factor
specific for flagellar operons in Salmonella typhimurium. Mol Gen Genet. 1990;221(2):139-47.
44. Karlinsey JE, Tanaka S, Bettenworth V, Yamaguchi S, Boos W, Aizawa SI, et al. Completion of
the hook-basal body complex of the Salmonella typhimurium flagellum is coupled to FlgM secretion
and fliC transcription. Mol Microbiol. 2000;37(5):1220-31.

45.   Ohnishi K, Kutsukake K, Suzuki H, Lino T. A novel transcriptional regulation mechanism in the
flagellar regulon of Salmonella typhimurium: an antisigma factor inhibits the activity of the flagellum-
specific sigma factor, sigma F. Mol Microbiol. 1992;6(21):3149-57.
46.   Fraser GM, Hirano T, Ferris HU, Devgan LL, Kihara M, Macnab RM. Substrate specificity of
type III flagellar protein export in Salmonella is controlled by subdomain interactions in FlhB. Mol
Microbiol. 2003;48(4):1043-57.
47.   Hirano T, Minamino T, Namba K, Macnab RM. Substrate specificity classes and the
recognition signal for Salmonella type III flagellar export. J Bacteriol. 2003;185(8):2485-92.
48.   Frye J, Karlinsey JE, Felise HR, Marzolf B, Dowidar N, McClelland M, et al. Identification of
new flagellar genes of Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium. J Bacteriol. 2006;188(6):2233-43.
49.   Kutsukake K. Autogenous and global control of the flagellar master operon, flhD, in
Salmonella typhimurium. Mol Gen Genet. 1997;254(4):440-8.
50.   Tanabe Y, Wada T, Ono K, Abo T, Kutsukake K. The transcript from the sigma(28)-dependent
promoter is translationally inert in the expression of the sigma(28)-encoding gene fliA in the fliAZ
operon of Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium. J Bacteriol. 2011;193(22):6132-41.
51.   Ko M, Park C. H-NS-Dependent regulation of flagellar synthesis is mediated by a LysR family
protein. J Bacteriol. 2000;182(16):4670-2.
52.   Vakulskas CA, Potts AH, Babitzke P, Ahmer BM, Romeo T. Regulation of bacterial virulence by
Csr (Rsm) systems. Microbiol Mol Biol Rev. 2015;79(2):193-224.
53.   Romeo T. Global regulation by the small RNA-binding protein CsrA and the non-coding RNA
molecule CsrB. Mol Microbiol. 1998;29(6):1321-30.
54.   Yakhnin AV, Baker CS, Vakulskas CA, Yakhnin H, Berezin I, Romeo T, et al. CsrA activates flhDC
expression by protecting flhDC mRNA from RNase E-mediated cleavage. Mol Microbiol.
2013;87(4):851-66.
55.   Liu MY, Gui G, Wei B, Preston JF, 3rd, Oakford L, Yuksel U, et al. The RNA molecule CsrB binds
to the global regulatory protein CsrA and antagonizes its activity in Escherichia coli. J Biol Chem.
1997;272(28):17502-10.
56.   Weilbacher T, Suzuki K, Dubey AK, Wang X, Gudapaty S, Morozov I, et al. A novel sRNA
component of the carbon storage regulatory system of Escherichia coli. Mol Microbiol.
2003;48(3):657-70.
57.   Dubey AK, Baker CS, Romeo T, Babitzke P. RNA sequence and secondary structure participate
in high-affinity CsrA-RNA interaction. RNA. 2005;11(10):1579-87.
58.   Altier C, Suyemoto M, Lawhon SD. Regulation of Salmonella enterica serovar typhimurium
invasion genes by csrA. Infect Immun. 2000;68(12):6790-7.
59.   Lawhon SD, Frye JG, Suyemoto M, Porwollik S, McClelland M, Altier C. Global regulation by
CsrA in Salmonella typhimurium. Mol Microbiol. 2003;48(6):1633-45.
60.   Suzuki K, Wang X, Weilbacher T, Pernestig AK, Melefors O, Georgellis D, et al. Regulatory
circuitry of the CsrA/CsrB and BarA/UvrY systems of Escherichia coli. J Bacteriol. 2002;184(18):5130-
40.
61.   Suzuki K, Wang X, Weilbacher T, Pernestig A-K, Melefors O, Georgellis D, et al. Regulatory
circuitry of the CsrA/CsrB and BarA/UvrY systems of Escherichia coli. Journal of bacteriology.
2002;184(18):5130-40.
62.   Teplitski M, Goodier RI, Ahmer BM. Pathways Leading from BarA/SirA to Motility
andVirulence Gene Expression in Salmonella. Journal of bacteriology. 2003;185(24):7257-65.
63.   Weilbacher T, Suzuki K, Dubey AK, Wang X, Gudapaty S, Morozov I, et al. A novel sRNA
component of the carbon storage regulatory system of Escherichia coli. Molecular microbiology.
2003;48(3):657-70.
64.   Hayden JD, Ades SE. The extracytoplasmic stress factor, sigmaE, is required to maintain cell
envelope integrity in Escherichia coli. PLoS One. 2008;3(2):e1573.

65.	Ahuja N, Korkin D, Chaba R, Cezairliyan BO, Sauer RT, Kim KK, et al. Analyzing the interaction
of RseA and RseB, the two negative regulators of the sigmaE envelope stress response, using a
combined bioinformatic and experimental strategy. J Biol Chem. 2009;284(8):5403-13.
66.	Lima S, Guo MS, Chaba R, Gross CA, Sauer RT. Dual molecular signals mediate the bacterial
response to outer-membrane stress. Science. 2013;340(6134):837-41.
67.	De Las Penas A, Connolly L, Gross CA. The sigmaE-mediated response to extracytoplasmic
stress in Escherichia coli is transduced by RseA and RseB, two negative regulators of sigmaE. Mol
Microbiol. 1997;24(2):373-85.
68.	Missiakas D, Mayer MP, Lemaire M, Georgopoulos C, Raina S. Modulation of the Escherichia
coli sigmaE (RpoE) heat-shock transcription-factor activity by the RseA, RseB and RseC proteins. Mol
Microbiol. 1997;24(2):355-71.
69.	Campbell EA, Tupy JL, Gruber TM, Wang S, Sharp MM, Gross CA, et al. Crystal structure of
Escherichia coli sigmaE with the cytoplasmic domain of its anti-sigma RseA. Mol Cell.
2003;11(4):1067-78.
70.	Pannuri A, Vakulskas CA, Zere T, McGibbon LC, Edwards AN, Georgellis D, et al. Circuitry
Linking the Catabolite Repression and Csr Global Regulatory Systems of Escherichia coli. J Bacteriol.
2016;198(21):3000-15.
71.	Yakhnin H, Aichele R, Ades SE, Romeo T, Babitzke P. Circuitry Linking the Global Csr- and
sigma(E)-Dependent Cell Envelope Stress Response Systems. J Bacteriol. 2017;199(23).
72.	Fabrega A, Vila J. Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium skills to succeed in the host:
virulence and regulation. Clin Microbiol Rev. 2013;26(2):308-41.
73.	Kage H, Takaya A, Ohya M, Yamamoto T. Coordinated regulation of expression of Salmonella
pathogenicity island 1 and flagellar type III secretion systems by ATP-dependent ClpXP protease. J
Bacteriol. 2008;190(7):2470-8.
74.	Saini S, Brown JD, Aldridge PD, Rao CV. FliZ Is a posttranslational activator of FlhD4C2-
dependent flagellar gene expression. J Bacteriol. 2008;190(14):4979-88.
75.	Singer HM, Kuhne C, Deditius JA, Hughes KT, Erhardt M. The Salmonella Spi1 virulence
regulatory protein HilD directly activates transcription of the flagellar master operon flhDC. J
Bacteriol. 2014;196(7):1448-57.
76.	Eichelberg K, Galan JE. The flagellar sigma factor FliA (sigma(28)) regulates the expression of
Salmonella genes associated with the centisome 63 type III secretion system. Infect Immun.
2000;68(5):2735-43.
77.	Iyoda S, Kamidoi T, Hirose K, Kutsukake K, Watanabe H. A flagellar gene fliZ regulates the
expression of invasion genes and virulence phenotype in Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium.
Microb Pathog. 2001;30(2):81-90.
78.	Lucas RL, Lostroh CP, DiRusso CC, Spector MP, Wanner BL, Lee CA. Multiple factors
independently regulate hilA and invasion gene expression in Salmonella enterica serovar
typhimurium. J Bacteriol. 2000;182(7):1872-82.
79.	Goodier RI, Ahmer BM. SirA orthologs affect both motility and virulence. J Bacteriol.
2001;183(7):2249-58.
80.	Saleh DO, Horstmann JA, Giralt-Zuniga M, Weber W, Kaganovitch E, Durairaj AC, et al. SPI-1
virulence gene expression modulates motility of Salmonella Typhimurium in a proton motive force-
and adhesins-dependent manner. PLoS Pathog. 2023;19(6):e1011451.
81.	Gewirtz AT, Rao AS, Simon PO, Jr., Merlin D, Carnes D, Madara JL, et al. Salmonella
typhimurium induces epithelial IL-8 expression via Ca(2+)-mediated activation of the NF-kappaB
pathway. J Clin Invest. 2000;105(1):79-92.
82.	McSorley SJ, Cookson BT, Jenkins MK. Characterization of CD4+ T cell responses during
natural infection with Salmonella typhimurium. J Immunol. 2000;164(2):986-93.
83.	Takahashi A, Wada A, Ogushi K, Maeda K, Kawahara T, Mawatari K, et al. Production of beta-
defensin-2 by human colonic epithelial cells induced by Salmonella enteritidis flagella filament
structural protein. FEBS Lett. 2001;508(3):484-8.

84.   Ellermeier CD, Slauch JM. RtsA and RtsB coordinately regulate expression of the invasion and
flagellar genes in Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium. J Bacteriol. 2003;185(17):5096-108.
85.   Olsen JE, Hoegh-Andersen KH, Casadesus J, Rosenkranzt J, Chadfield MS, Thomsen LE. The
role of flagella and chemotaxis genes in host pathogen interaction of the host adapted Salmonella
enterica serovar Dublin compared to the broad host range serovar S. Typhimurium. BMC Microbiol.
2013;13:67.
86.   Donohoe DR, Garge N, Zhang X, Sun W, O'Connell TM, Bunger MK, et al. The microbiome and
butyrate regulate energy metabolism and autophagy in the mammalian colon. Cell Metab.
2011;13(5):517-26.
87.   Levitt MD, Furne J, Springfield J, Suarez F, DeMaster E. Detoxification of hydrogen sulfide and
methanethiol in the cecal mucosa. J Clin Invest. 1999;104(8):1107-14.
88.   Furne J, Springfield J, Koenig T, DeMaster E, Levitt MD. Oxidation of hydrogen sulfide and
methanethiol to thiosulfate by rat tissues: a specialized function of the colonic mucosa. Biochem
Pharmacol. 2001;62(2):255-9.
89.   Rivera-Chavez F, Zhang LF, Faber F, Lopez CA, Byndloss MX, Olsan EE, et al. Depletion of
Butyrate-Producing Clostridia from the Gut Microbiota Drives an Aerobic Luminal Expansion of
Salmonella. Cell Host Microbe. 2016;19(4):443-54.
90.   Kelly CJ, Zheng L, Campbell EL, Saeedi B, Scholz CC, Bayless AJ, et al. Crosstalk between
Microbiota-Derived Short-Chain Fatty Acids and Intestinal Epithelial HIF Augments Tissue Barrier
Function. Cell Host Microbe. 2015;17(5):662-71.
91.   Winter SE, Thiennimitr P, Winter MG, Butler BP, Huseby DL, Crawford RW, et al. Gut
inflammation provides a respiratory electron acceptor for Salmonella. Nature. 2010;467(7314):426-9.
92.   Lopez CA, Winter SE, Rivera-Chavez F, Xavier MN, Poon V, Nuccio SP, et al. Phage-mediated
acquisition of a type III secreted effector protein boosts growth of salmonella by nitrate respiration.
mBio. 2012;3(3).
93.   Gillis CC, Hughes ER, Spiga L, Winter MG, Zhu W, Furtado de Carvalho T, et al. Dysbiosis-
Associated Change in Host Metabolism Generates Lactate to Support Salmonella Growth. Cell Host
Microbe. 2018;23(1):54-64 e6.
94.   Spiga L, Winter MG, Furtado de Carvalho T, Zhu W, Hughes ER, Gillis CC, et al. An Oxidative
Central Metabolism Enables Salmonella to Utilize Microbiota-Derived Succinate. Cell Host Microbe.
2017;22(3):291-301 e6.
95.   Faber F, Thiennimitr P, Spiga L, Byndloss MX, Litvak Y, Lawhon S, et al. Respiration of
Microbiota-Derived 1,2-propanediol Drives Salmonella Expansion during Colitis. PLoS Pathog.
2017;13(1):e1006129.
96.   Thiennimitr P, Winter SE, Winter MG, Xavier MN, Tolstikov V, Huseby DL, et al. Intestinal
inflammation allows Salmonella to use ethanolamine to compete with the microbiota. Proc Natl Acad
Sci U S A. 2011;108(42):17480-5.
97.   Gagnon M, Zihler Berner A, Chervet N, Chassard C, Lacroix C. Comparison of the Caco-2, HT-
29 and the mucus-secreting HT29-MTX intestinal cell models to investigate Salmonella adhesion and
invasion. J Microbiol Methods. 2013;94(3):274-9.
98.   Marathe SA, Balakrishnan A, Negi VD, Sakorey D, Chandra N, Chakravortty D. Curcumin
Reduces the Motility of Salmonella enterica Serovar Typhimurium by Binding to the Flagella, Thereby
Leading to Flagellar Fragility and Shedding. J Bacteriol. 2016;198(13):1798-811.
99.   Hughes ER, Winter MG, Duerkop BA, Spiga L, Furtado de Carvalho T, Zhu W, et al. Microbial
Respiration and Formate Oxidation as Metabolic Signatures of Inflammation-Associated Dysbiosis.
Cell Host Microbe. 2017;21(2):208-19.
100.   Roy Chowdhury A, Sah S, Varshney U, Chakravortty D. Salmonella Typhimurium outer
membrane protein A (OmpA) renders protection from nitrosative stress of macrophages by
maintaining the stability of bacterial outer membrane. PLoS Pathog. 2022;18(8):e1010708.

101.   Chowdhury AR, Mukherjee D, Singh AK, Chakravortty D. Loss of outer membrane protein A
(OmpA) impairs the survival of Salmonella Typhimurium by inducing membrane damage in the
presence of ceftazidime and meropenem. J Antimicrob Chemother. 2022;77(12):3376-89.
102.   Shen Y, Rosendale M, Campbell RE, Perrais D. pHuji, a pH-sensitive red fluorescent protein for
imaging of exo- and endocytosis. J Cell Biol. 2014;207(3):419-32.
103.   Hajra D, Yadav V, Singh A, Chakravortty D. SIRT1 and SIRT3 impact host mitochondrial
function and host- Salmonella pH balance during infection. bioRxiv.
2023:2023.09.11.557159.
104.   Chandra K, Roy Chowdhury A, Chatterjee R, Chakravortty D. GH18 family glycoside hydrolase
Chitinase A of Salmonella enhances virulence by facilitating invasion and modulating host immune
responses. PLoS Pathog. 2022;18(4):e1010407.

1133