Discovery of broad-spectrum bacterial polyamine detoxification inhibitors as potential

antivirulence agents and antibiotic adjuvants

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Abstract

Bacteria continue to develop resistance against antibiotics, including last-resort ones, reinforcing the urgent need for new antimicrobial strategies. Chemicals at infection sites in the host often influence microbial virulence and antibiotic response; such interactions may offer new antimicrobial targets. Polyamines are cationic small molecules bacteria may encounter at infection sites. They are overproduced during infection, modulating host immune responses. The ability of bacteria to detoxify polyamines such as by a spermine/spermidine acetyltransferase (SpeG) correlated with hypervirulence of pathogens, including *Salmonella* Typhimurium, *Enterococcus faecium*, and the community-acquired methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) strain USA300. Polyamines may also influence bacterial antibiotic response. For example, we found that USA300 uses exogenous polyamines to resist antibiotics, including vancomycin, a phenotype lost in the Δ*speG* mutant. Therefore, we aimed to uncover inhibitors of polyamine detoxification. A high-throughput chemical screen against *S. aureus* USA300 identified OES2-0017, which showed potent synergy with polyamines and growth-inhibitory effects at the low micromolar range. We revealed a dual mode of action of OES2-0017, where low concentrations inhibited SpeG and other polyamine detoxification enzymes, and higher concentrations perturbed the bacterial membrane. Eukaryotic cell membranes were not impacted at the same concentration range, as observed in a hemolysis assay. OES2-0017 abolished the polyamine-mediated antibiotic resistance in MRSA USA300, suggesting its potential utility as an antibiotic adjuvant. Notably, OES2-0017 showed similar polyamine synergy and growth inhibitory activities against other Gram-positive (e.g., *E. faecium* and *E. faecalis*) and Gram-negative (e.g., *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *S.* Typhimurium, and *Burkholderia cenocepacia*) pathogens. OES2-0017 prevented *S.* Typhimurium from replicating in murine macrophages, which also suggests its potential application as an antivirulence agent. Together, this work exploits understudied aspects of chemically mediated host-pathogen interactions, offering a potential new antimicrobial strategy with a novel mode of action for multidrug-resistant priority pathogens.

Introduction

Bacteria have developed resistance to all currently available antibiotics posing a large public health risk. The spread of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) has exacerbated the threat of bacterial infections, with 1.27 million deaths directly attributed to bacterial AMR in 2019 alone (*1*). *Staphylococcus aureus* is a leading cause of hospital and community-acquired infections, resulting in considerable morbidity and mortality rates (*2*). *S. aureus* can cause multiple infections, including skin and soft tissue infections (SSTI), infective endocarditis, osteomyelitis, prosthetic-device infections, community-acquired pneumonia, and other systemic infections (*3*). Some strains of *S. aureus* have developed resistance to β-lactam antibiotics, coined methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA). MRSA strains have spread rapidly, and in 2019 alone, it was estimated that more than 100,000 deaths were directly attributable to MRSA infections worldwide (*1*). Notably, the MRSA strain USA300 has become the most common infection-causing *S. aureus* strain in Canada and the USA (*4, 5*).

While we continue to lose clinically useful antibiotics due to the rise of AMR, the discovery and development of antimicrobials with novel chemical structures or cellular targets has drastically slowed (*6, 7*). One of the potential reasons for the antibiotic discovery void is that antimicrobial discovery efforts traditionally relied on antimicrobial susceptibility testing (AST) conditions that use culture media such as Mueller-Hinton broth (MHB) (*8*). These test conditions do not accurately reflect those at the infection site, including the chemicals bacteria may encounter within the host. There is an expansive array of molecules produced by the host, resident microbiota, and the infecting pathogen at the infection site, which may influence microbial virulence and antibiotic responses (*9, 10*). Such chemical-mediated effects might alter the treatment outcomes and may offer new targets for antimicrobial intervention. One prominent class of compounds is polyamines, which are biogenic small cationic amines, such as the diamine putrescine, triamine spermidine, and tetramine spermine, required for normal cell functioning in most living organisms (*11*). Polyamines are overproduced by the host in response to infection (*12-14*), and can be found at millimolar concentrations in eukaryotes (*15, 16*), where they have immunomodulatory roles (*17, 18*).

Most bacteria produce polyamines endogenously, with *S. aureus* being one of few exceptions that neither produce spermine or spermidine nor require them for homeostasis (*19-21*). For polyamine producers, polyamine levels are tightly regulated to maintain the

level required for homeostasis, balancing uptake and biosynthesis with detoxification and

efflux to prevent toxicity resulting from high and low polyamine cellular content (*11, 16*). On

the contrary, most *S. aureus* strains, being polyamine non-producers, are typically more

susceptible to these compounds; however, USA300 is resistant to exogenous spermine and

spermidine (*19*). The virulence and prevalence of USA300 have been partially attributed to

the acquisition of the arginine catabolic mobile element (ACME) (*14, 22, 23*). The ACME

was horizontally transferred to *S. aureus* from *Staphylococcus epidermidis*, and encodes

SpeG*,* a member of the GCN5-related *N*-acetyltransferase (GNAT) family (*23*). SpeG is a

spermine/spermidine *N*-acetyltransferase (SSAT) that acetylates spermine and spermidine

rendering them less toxic to the cell, resulting in the observed resistance to exogenous

polyamines (*14, 19, 20, 23*). The ACME also encodes the arginine-deaminase (*arc*) system

which converts arginine to ornithine while producing ATP and ammonia, allowing USA300

to withstand acidic environments, such as those found on the skin (*14*). The host then

converts ornithine produced via the ACME-Arc system to polyamines as shown in a murine

SSTI model (*14*). Therefore, by carrying *speG,* USA300 can resist the excessive host

polyamine production, increasing its virulence. Additionally, exogenous polyamines increase

biofilm formation, an effect lost in a Δ*speG* mutant (*23*).

Polyamine detoxification via SSAT homologs contributed to virulence in other

bacterial species. For example, SpeG is required for the survival of *Salmonella enterica*

serovar Typhimurium in macrophages (*24*) and the overexpression of PmvE in

Enterococcus faecalis increases virulence in a *Galleria mellonella* infection model (*25*).

Polyamines are also known to alter bacterial susceptibility to antibiotics (*26-30*) and to

influence virulence phenotypes such as biofilm formation (*31-33*), intracellular growth (*34*),

colonization (*35*), and resistance to reactive oxygen species (*36*). Given the correlation of

the ability of pathogens to detoxify polyamines with their hypervirulence and the potential for

polyamine-mediated alterations to antibiotic susceptibility at the site of infection, inhibiting

bacterial polyamine detoxification appears as an attractive strategy to reduce virulence and

prevent polyamine-mediated antibiotic resistance. Indeed, new treatment strategies to

combat the spread of AMR are desperately needed, and antivirulence agents and antibiotic

adjuvants have been suggested as potential therapeutic options. Antivirulence agents target

processes dispensable for bacterial viability but that the pathogen uses to cause infection;

therefore, by targeting these processes the host immune system can more easily clear the

infection (*37*). Antibiotic adjuvants are compounds that potentiate the activity of existing

antibiotics, restoring their effect against resistant bacteria or improving their efficacy against

intrinsically resistant organisms (*38*).

Here, we set out to identify inhibitors of bacterial polyamine detoxification

mechanisms through a cell-based high throughput screen against *S. aureus* USA300, as it

lacks *de novo* polyamine biosynthesis. We discovered the polyamine analog OES2-0017,

which showed potent synergy with polyamines (a phenotype lost in SSAT mutants) and

growth-inhibitory effects at the low micromolar range against various Gram-positive and

Gram-negative pathogens. We revealed a dual mode of action of OES2-0017, where low

concentrations inhibited SpeG and other polyamine detoxification enzymes, and higher

concentrations perturbed the bacterial membrane in *S. aureus*. Eukaryotic cell membranes

were not impacted at the same concentration range, as observed in a hemolysis assay. The

inhibitor eradicated SpeG-expressing *S.* Typhimurium inside murine macrophages,

suggesting its potential as an antivirulence agent. OES2-0017, at the low polyamine-

synergistic concentrations, abolished the polyamine-mediated resistance of MRSA USA300

to vancomycin and other antibiotics, suggesting its potential utility as an antibiotic adjuvant.

We also uncovered previously uncharacterized alternative polyamine detoxification

mechanisms in *S. aureus* that OES2-0017 inhibited. Our screen also uncovered additional

inhibitors, including the catechol derivative, isoproterenol, OES1-1087, showing similar

mode of action and activity as OES2-0017 but with lower potency. Together, this study

describes novel antimicrobial compounds with broad-spectrum activity and potential

antivirulence and antibiotic adjuvant applications.

Materials and methods

Bacterial strains and reagents. Table S1 and S2 list strains, plasmids and primers

used in this work. Bacteria were grown in Mueller Hinton medium at 37°C. Except for

Enterococcus faecalis and *Enterococcus faecium*, which were grown in Tryptic Soy Broth

and *Mycobacterium smegmatis,* which was grown in Luria Broth.

Antimicrobial susceptibility testing. Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) and

checkerboard assays were performed using the CLSI broth microdilution technique (*8*). The

fractional inhibitory concentration indices (FICI) were calculated as FICI=(MIC$_{drug A}$ in

combination/MIC$_{drug A}$ alone)+(MIC$_{drug B}$ in combination)/MIC$_{Drug B}$ alone). FICI values were

interpreted as synergy when FICI ≤ 0.5, no interaction when 1 ≤ FICI ≤ 4, and antagonism

when FICI > 4.0.

Chemical screen and polyamine analog library assembly. I assembled a library

of polyamine analogs by selecting analogs of polyamines and closely related molecules with

a cut-off of 60% structural similarity from a chemical supplier. This library was screened at

20 µM or 5 mM in the presence and absence of spermine at 1/4th the wild-type MIC. Library

compounds were added to 96-well plates and filled with inoculated MHB. A library of

previously approved drugs and natural product derivatives was screened at 20 µM against

the wild-type USA300 strain in the presence of spermine at 1/4th the wild-type MIC.

Compounds were administered to 384-well plates containing inoculated MHB with spermine

using the Biomatrix BM5-BC (S&P Robotics inc.). Plates were incubated at 37°C, and

bacterial growth was determined turbidimetrically after 24 hours.

***S. aureus* Nebraska Transposon Mutant Library (NTML) screen.** Overnight

cultures of the NTML (*39*) were prepared in 384-well plates using Biomatrix BM5-BC (S&P

Robotics inc.) in MHB containing 5 µg/mL erythromycin. The following day, MHB containing

$1/8^{th}$ and $1/16^{th}$ the wild-type MIC of spermine were inoculated using the Biomatrix BM5-BC.

Plates were grown at 37°C, and OD_{600} was read after 24 h.

***B. subtilis* CRISPRi essential gene knockdown library screen.** Overnight

cultures of the library (*40*), were prepared in 96-well plates using Biomatrix BM5-BC (S&P

Robotics inc.) in MHB containing 6 µg/mL chloramphenicol. The following day, MHB

containing OES2-0017 at the wild-type MIC and at 2-fold dilutions to $1/16^{th}$ the MIC, and in

the absence of OES2-0017 were inoculated using the Biomatrix BM5-BC. The experiment

was performed with 0.05% xylose (allowing low level of *dcas9* expression) and without

xylose (allowing basal *dcas9* expression). Plates were incubated at 37°C, and OD_{600} was

read after 24 h.

General molecular techniques. Unmarked in-frame deletion of speG was

performed using the temperature-sensitive allelic exchange plasmid pJB38 (*41*). Roughly 1-

kb upstream and downstream of *speG* were amplified through PCR and the upstream

fragment digested with EcoRI, and BamHI (New England Biolabs), and the downstream

fragment digested with EcoRI and SalI (New England Biolabs). pJB38 was digested with

BamHI and SalI and fragments were ligated with T4 DNA ligase. The resultant deletion

plasmid pJB38-*ΔspeG* was passaged through *E. coli* DH5α and *E. coli* DC10B, before

electroporation into *S. aureus* USA300 JE2 (*42*). Deletion of *speG* was confirmed through

PCR.

Membrane permeabilization assay. Fluorometric Disc3(5) membrane

permeabilization assays were performed as described in (*43*).

Hemolysis Assay. The hemolysis assay was performed using defibrinated sheep

blood (Thermo Fisher Scientific, and Cedarlane) as previously described (*44*).

Cell adhesion and cytotoxicity assays. Madin-darby canine kidney (MDCK) cells

were cultured in DMEM with 10%(v/v) FBS and maintained according to the instructions. To

perform viability and adhesions assays MDCK cells were split and seeded into Thermo

Scientific™ Nunc MicroWell 96-Well Optical-Bottom Plates (cat.165305) and grown

overnight to confluence (~4×10^4 per well). Adhered and confluent MDCK cells were then

washed 1x with sterile PBS and treated in serum-free DMEM with DMSO as a vehicle

control, OES2-017 at the MIC (20 μM), or OES1-01087at the MIC (1250 μM). A 2-fold

dilution series was performed for each compound down to 1/8 of the MIC. Treated MDCK

cells were incubated for 2h at 37℃ in a 5% CO_2 incubator. Before staining, and as positive

control to induce disruption of the MDCK monolayer individual wells that were previously left

untreated were incubated with triton x-100 for 5 mins. Wells containing MDCK cells were

washed 1x with PBS and then incubated with TMR-wheat germ agglutin (2 μg/mL) for 10

min in the cold. Cells were washed twice with PBs and then fixed with 4% (v/v) PFA. To

measure cell viability after 2h incubation with the compounds the cells were washed 1x with

PBS and stained with Zombie Violet™ (Biolegend) according to the manufacturer's

instructions. The dye was used at a 1:500 dilution for 15 mins and after staining the cells

were washed twice with PBS and fixed as above. As a positive control, prior zombie violet

staining individual MDCK-containing wells were treated with 100% ice-cold methanol for 3

mins prior to zombie violet staining. Fluorescence intensities for TMR-WGA and Zombie

Violet™ were measured using a Biotek Synergy H4 multimode plate reader.

Identification of homologous acetyltransferases. *B. subtilis* BltD and PaiA protein

sequences were used as a query in a Position-Specific Iterative Basic Local Alignment

Search Tool (PSI-BLAST) search with results limited to records of *S. aureus* subsp. aureus

USA300_FPR3757. Results were filtered based on alignment scores (E value).

Protein overexpression and purification. *speG,* SAUSA300_2083,

SAUSA300_0441, and *paiA* were cloned into pET28a(+) and overexpressed under

conditions previously described (*20*). *SAT1* was codon optimized and synthesized from

cDNA and cloned into pET28a(+) (Bio Basic Canada). Lysis was achieved using a Branson

Sonifier 450 and the supernatant was isolated from the insoluble fraction by centrifugation

at 10 000 xg for 30 minutes at 4°C. His-tag batch purification was performed using His-

select nickel-affinity gel (Sigma-Aldrich). Purified proteins were detected on a 10%

acrylamide gel (Bio-Rad), by PageBlue staining solution (Fisher Scientific). Proteins were

quantified using the Bradford method with protein assay dye reagent concentrate (Bio-Rad),

following dialysis using SnakeSkin^{TM} dialysis tubing (Fisher Scientific).

In vitro **SSAT enzymatic assays**

Steady state kinetics. Purified enzymes were used in spermine/spermidine *N-*

acetyltransferase (SSAT) colorimetric enzymatic assays as described previously (*20, 45*),

with modifications. Briefly, 25 µL of enzyme solution (200 ng enzyme, 100 mM Tris-HCl, pH

7.5, 1 mM EDTA) were added to a 96 well plate then 50 µL of freshly prepared Ellman's

reagent (2 mM 5, 5'-dithio-bis-(2-nitrobenzoic acid) (DTNB) (Sigma Aldrich) 100 mM Tris-

HCl, pH 7.5, 1 mM EDTA) was added to each well. Finally, 25 µL of substrate solution was

added to begin the reaction. The substrate solution consisted of a final concentration of 1

mM acetyl-CoA (Sigma Aldrich) with SpeG, PaiA$_{Sa}$, SAUSA300_2083, and

SAUSA300_0441, and 0.25 mM acetyl-CoA with SAT1 100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 1 mM

EDTA with variable concentrations of polyamines. Each reaction plate contained serial

standards of Coenzyme A (5-150 nmol). Reactions were allowed to proceed at 37°C and

A$_{412\ nm}$ readings were taken each minute for 45 min. Kinetic parameters were estimated by

fitting with the Michaelis-Menten equation or allosteric sigmoidal equation in Graphpad

Prism 10.

Enzymatic inhibition assays. The colorimetric SSAT assay was performed where

25 µL of enzyme solution containing 200 ng enzyme, 100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 1 mM

EDTA and a dilution series of inhibitor was added to a 96-well plate. The enzyme-inhibitor

solution was incubated at room temperature for 30 min before adding 50 µL Ellman's

reagent and 25 µL substrate solution to initiate the reaction. OES2-0017 and analogs in the

small-scale structure-activity relationship study were assayed with a substrate solution

including a fixed concentration of spermine $\approx K_m$ and 1 or 0.25 mM acetyl-CoA SpeG and

SAT1, respectively. OES1-1087 inhibition was assayed with a substrate solution including

1500 μM spermine and an AcCoA concentration $\approx K_m$. Substrate solution to evaluate

OES2-0017 inhibition of PaiA$_{Sa}$ contained a final concentration of 1 mM acetyl-CoA and

spermine $\approx K_m$. The reaction was monitored each minute at $A_{412\ nm}$ for 45 minutes. We

evaluated the decrease in absorbance when the reaction was supplemented with the

inhibitors compared to a positive control containing only spermine and acetyl-CoA. Data for

IC$_{50}$ plots were fit to a nonlinear regression inhibition model in Graphpad Prism 10 and K$_i$

was estimated from equation 1 (*46*). The colorimetric SSAT assay was also performed in a

96-well plate where enzyme activity was monitored in the presence of the respective

inhibitor across 8 concentrations of substrate and data were fit to a competitive inhibition

model in Graphpad Prism 10.

Equation 1: $IC_{50} = K_i \left(1 + \frac{[S]}{Km}\right)$

Macrophage infections. RAW-264.7 cells were seeded (1×10^6 cells/mL) in RPMI

(Sigma Aldrich) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Fisher Scientific), 1 mM

HEPES (Thermofisher), and 100X MEM non-essential amino acids solution (Thermofisher)

in 24-well plates 2 days prior to infection and incubated at 37°C and 5% CO_2. *S.*

Typhimurium 14028s and *speG*::Cm were grown in appropriate selection for 16 h at 37°C.

Bacteria were subcultured in LB with no antibiotics until late log phase. The OD$_{600}$ was

normalized and cells washed with fresh media, 10 μL of washed cells were added to 1 mL

of supplemented RPMI and 50 μL of the diluted bacteria was added to each well. Plates

were centrifuged at 1000 rpm for 1 minute and incubated at 37°C, 5% CO_2 for 10 minutes to

complete infection. Media was replaced (1 mL/well) at ten minutes post-infection, with

supplemented RPMI + 100 μg/mL gentamicin for 30 minutes to kill extracellular bacteria.

After 30 minutes, fresh RPMI media supplemented with 10 μg/mL gentamicin with and

without 10 μM OES2-0017 was added. Plates were then incubated for 4 hours. The pre-

infection group were treated with 10 μM OES2-0017 30 minutes prior to infection with *S.*

Typhimurium. Cells were lysed by washing twice with 1 mL 1X PBS and then adding 1 mL

1% PBS-Triton for 5 minutes per well. Lysed cells were diluted and plated on LB agar and

incubated at 37°C for 16 hours. Cells were lysed and plated at time 0, 4 hours post-

infection, and 15 hours post-infection.

Phylogenetic analysis. Protein BLAST analysis was used to identify proteins with

homology to *S. aureus* SpeG. Sequences were downloaded in FASTA format and a multiple

sequence alignment was generated using MUSCLE. A phylogenetic tree was constructed

using a neighbor joining method using MEGA11 and visualized using iTOL.

Docking and 3D Protein Homology. The ligand protein docking was done using

SwissDock (https://www.swissdock.ch/) and the docking results were visualized using

UCSF Chimera-1.17.3 (https://www.cgl.ucsf.edu/chimera/). The interacting amino acid

residues of the target protein were further illustrated by BIOVIA Discovery Studio Visualizer

(https://www.3ds.com/products/biovia/discovery-studio/visualization). 3D homology and

alignments between different proteins were performed by PyMOL 3.0

(https://www.pymol.org/).

Results and Discussion

A high-throughput chemical screen identifies potential polyamine

detoxification inhibitors. To identify inhibitors of polyamine detoxification mechanisms, we

undertook two screens against *S. aureus* USA300. In an unbiased approach, we screened

a library of 2560 small molecules (Spectrum collection, MicroSource Discovery Systems,

Inc.), comprised of previously approved drugs and natural product derivatives, at 20 µM in

the presence of ¼th the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of spermine against

USA300. In parallel, we took a rationale-based approach by assembling a collection of 83

polyamine analogs with at least 60% structural similarity to substrates and products of

polyamine biosynthesis and detoxification enzymes in bacteria, reasoning that such analogs

have a higher probability of interacting with, and potentially inhibiting, the polyamine-related

enzymes of interest. Notably, several polyamine biosynthesis inhibitors are analogous to

natural polyamines or substrates of their biosynthetic enzymes (*47-49*), which supports this

rationale-based approach. We screened the polyamine analog library at 20 µM (similar to

the Spectrum collection screen) in the presence of spermine at ¼th the MIC. The screen

was performed with the hypothesis that a compound inhibiting polyamine detoxification

would exhibit synergy with spermine. Combined, the screens resulted in 187 primary hits

showing at least 80% growth inhibition. We then excluded known antimicrobials in the

Spectrum collection yielding 129 hits (Figure 1 A and B). We tested these hits in follow-up

dose-response assays in the presence and absence of a single spermine concentration

(Supplementary Fig. 1); only 8 compounds showed a reduction in MIC in the presence of

spermine (Figure 1A). We then tested these eight compounds in checkerboard assays with

spermine; six compounds, OES1-1087, OES1-0507, OES1-1639, OES1-1238, OES2-0052,

and OES2-0017, showed synergy with spermine (Figure 1C-H). Synergy was determined by

calculating the fractional inhibitory concentration index (FICI), with an FICI value ≤ 0.5

defined as a synergistic interaction. OES1-1087 exhibited the strongest synergistic

interaction with spermine with an FICI value of 0.15 ± 0.03 followed by OES1-0507 (0.28 ±

0.07), OES2-0017 (0.33 ± 0.06), OES1-1639 (0.42 ± 0.06), OES1-1238 (0.46 ± 0.12), and

finally OES2-0052 (0.50 ± 0) (Figure 1 C-H). OES1-0507, OES1-1087, and OES1-1639 are

benzenediols, OES1-1238 is an acridine, and OES2-0052 and OES2-0017 are amines. In

addition to synergizing with polyamines, the six hits exhibited growth inhibitory effects

against USA300 with OES2-0017 being the most potent at an MIC of 20 μM (Figure 1C-H).

Of note, we prioritized OES2-0017 and OES1-1087 (isoproterenol) for further

characterization based on their relative potencies (spermine synergy at FICI<0.35) and as

representatives of different chemical classes (polyamine and catechols, respectively). We

confirmed the structures of the two prioritized compounds by NMR (Supplementary Fig.2).

Figure 1. **High throughput screening identifies potent spermine synergists. A)** Workflow undertaken
to identify chemical inhibitors of polyamine resistance. **B)** Replica plot of chemical screens performed to
identify inhibitors of polyamine detoxification in *S. aureus* USA300. **C-H)** Chemical structures and

representative checkerboard assays of the hits OES1-1087 (n=9) **(C)**, OES1-0507 (n= 4) **(D)**, OES1-1238
(n=3) **(E)**, OES1-1639 (n=3) **(F)**, OES2-0052 (n=3) **(G)**, and OES2-0017 (n=11) **(H)** with spermine against
S. aureus USA300. FICI values are reported as mean $\pm$ standard deviation of the indicated number of
replicates.

A chemogenomic screen to uncover the putative mechanism of spermine

synergy. We undertook a genome-wide approach to identify the putative mechanism of

spermine synergy by the screen hits, reasoning that a mutant with disruption in their

putative target would exhibit both increased spermine susceptibility and loss or reduction in

spermine-hit compound synergy. First, we sought to uncover the determinants of polyamine

detoxification whose mutants would exhibit increased susceptibility to spermine by

screening the Nebraska Transposon Mutant Library (NTML), a sequence-defined

transposon mutant library covering the non-essential genome of *S. aureus* USA300 (*39*),

against spermine at $1/8^{th}$ and $1/16^{th}$ the wild-type MIC. *speG*::Tn was sensitized to

spermine, in agreement with previous reports (*19*), thus serving as an internal control for the

screen. Mutants in another four determinants not previously linked to the response to

polyamines, *tcaA*::Tn, *cls*::Tn, *prmC*::Tn, and *pyrP*::Tn, were also sensitized to spermine

(Figure 2 A). Dose-response assays showed an 8-fold reduction in spermine MIC in

speG::Tn, and a decrease of the other four mutants at ½ MIC relative to the wild-type strain

(Supplementary Fig. 3). We constructed an in-frame unmarked deletion of *speG* given that

its transposon mutant had the most pronounced spermine MIC shift; Δ*speG* confirmed the

observed spermine susceptibility shift (Supplementary Fig. 3). *tcaA* encodes a predicted

transmembrane protein and is implicated in teicoplainin resistance (*50*). *cls* encodes a

cardiolipin synthase involved in modulating the phospholipid composition of the membrane

(*51*). *prmC* encodes a release factor methyltransferase, and *pyrP* an uracil-xanthine

permease. The molecular basis linking these determinants to polyamine response warrants

further investigation, which falls beyond the scope of this study. Notably, *sbnB*::Tn,

disrupted in a gene encoding an enzyme involved in the siderophore staphyloferrin B

biosynthesis (*52*), was initially identified in the screen and showed an 8-fold spermine MIC

reduction; however, Δ*sbnB* mutant was not sensitized to spermine (Supplementary Fig. 3).

Whole-genome sequencing and subsequent PCR analysis of the *sbnB*::Tn mutant revealed

an additional truncation of 46.8 kb comprising the SCC*mec* cassette and the ACME locus,

including *speG* and *mecA* (Supplementary Fig. 3); hence, *sbnB* was excluded from the

putative determinants list.

Next, we resupplied the hit compounds and conducted mini-checkerboard assays

with spermine against the five identified polyamine resistance determinants to detect loss or

reduction in synergy. The spermine synergistic interaction with OES2-0017 and OES1-1087

was lost or reduced in the Δ*speG* mutant (Figure 2 B), suggesting that SpeG is the putative

target of these compounds. Notably, spermine synergy was also lost in the other four de-

prioritized hit compounds against Δ*speG* mutant (Supplementary Fig. 4), suggesting that all

six hits uncovered from the screens share a similar molecular target for spermine synergy.

We performed checkerboard assays with spermine and OES2-0017 or OES1-1087

against other *speG*⁺ and *speG*⁻ *S. aureus* strains. The tested strains included another

USA300 strain CMRSA-10 that encodes *speG* as well as two strains that do not encode

speG including the MRSA strain COL and the methicillin-sensitive *Staphylococcus aureus*

(MSSA) strain NCTC8325. The *speG*⁻ strains, whether MRSA or MSSA, displayed a loss or

reduction in synergy between spermine and OES2-0017 or OES1-1087, phenocopying the

USA300 Δ*speG* mutant (Figure 2 C-H). For both OES2-0017 and OES1-1087, CMRSA-10

displayed a similar synergistic phenotype to that observed in the other wild-type USA300

strain, JE2 (Figure 2 I and J). These results further suggest that OES2-0017 and OES1-

1087 are inhibiting SpeG activity, and that strains must encode *speG* to observe the

spermine synergistic phenotype.

Since SpeG is a spermine/spermidine acetyltransferase, we also tested spermidine

with either OES2-0017 or OES1-1087 in checkerboard assays. As expected, OES2-0017

and spermidine synergized with an FICI of 0.33 ± 0.06, such synergy was decreased in the

Δ*speG* mutant (FICI = 0.48 ± 0.05) and *speG*⁻ strains but not completely lost (Figure 2 K

and L and Supplementary Fig. 5). The same is observed with spermidine and OES1-1087

where the Δ*speG* mutant (FICI = 0.38 ± 0.09) or *speG*⁻ strains showed reduced synergy

compared to wild-type USA300 (FICI = 0.17 ± 0.03) (Figure 2 M and N and Supplementary

Fig. 5). The results suggest that synergy between these compounds and spermidine is

mediated, at least in part, by SpeG inhibition.

SpeG as the target of OES1-1087 and OES2-0017. We sought to confirm the

SpeG inhibitory activity of the hit compounds in *in vitro* assays using purified His-tagged

recombinant SpeG. We used a colorimetric SSAT assay based on the quantification of

CoA-SH formed during the transfer of the acetyl group from acetyl-CoA, which is

proportional to the amount of the acetylated substrate (AcCoA) (*45*). Under these

experimental conditions, we observed acetyltransferase activity for the native and not the

heat-inactivated SpeG when both spermine and spermidine were used as the test

substrates. Based on our results and previous analysis(53), SpeG displays Michaelis-

Menten kinetics with spermine as a substrate, allosteric kinetics with spermidine, and no

activity with putrescine, thus we estimated catalytic efficiency of each as K_m and $S_{0.5}$,

respectively. The SpeG K_m with spermine was 1312 ± 348.1 μM and $S_{0.5}$ with spermidine

was 8669 ± 3031 μM (Supplementary Fig. 6). Catalytic efficiency of SpeG with spermine

and spermidine as substrates were 5.58E+03 and 2.51E+02 $M^{-1}s^{-1}$, respectively

(Supplementary Fig. 6). These results agree with previous reports showing that spermine is

the preferred substrate of SpeG, followed by spermidine and that SpeG does not acetylate

putrescine (*20, 53*).

409   Next, we confirmed that OES2-0017 and OES1-1087 inhibited acetyltransferase

activity of SpeG *in vitro* by performing enzymatic inhibition assays testing a dilution series of

each of the hits in the presence of either a single concentration or multiple concentrations of

substrate in a checkerboard-style format estimating IC_{50} and K_i, respectively. The IC_{50} of

OES2-0017 against SpeG was 34.82 ± 6.810 μM at $\sim$ 1 x K_m of spermine and the K_i was

20.20 ± 3.446 μM when varying spermine concentrations both at a fixed saturating AcCoA

concentration (Figure 2 O and Supplementary Fig 7). The IC_{50} of OES1-1087 was $5508 \pm$

1890 μM (at $\sim$1 x K_m of AcCoA and a spermine $\sim$ 1 x K_m concentration; Figure 2 P). OES1-

1087 did not exhibit inhibitory activity under a fixed AcCoA concentration and variable

spermine concentrations; however, at a fixed spermine concentration and variable AcCoA,

OES1-1087 inhibited SpeG with an estimated K_i of 5153 ± 2126 μM (Supplementary Fig.

8). K_i calculations were based on fitting the checkerboard-style data to the competitive

inhibition model for both inhibitors, which was further supported by Lineweaver-Burk

transformations (Supplementary Fig. 7 and 8). These values are slightly higher than

expected when compared to the concentrations exhibiting spermine synergy interactions in

whole-cell assays. However, this could be attributed to the *in vitro* cell-free experimental

conditions (i.e., buffer concentration, pH, temperature, etc.) that do not perfectly match the

conditions *in vivo,* which may be more optimal for catalysis. Of note, we use a high buffer

concentration (100 mM Tris-HCl) to prevent polyamine high pH-mediated cleavage of

Ellman's reagent, which is sensitive to high pH (*54*). These data confirm that both OES2-

0017 and OES1-1087 inhibit SpeG with OES2-0017 being more potent as a SpeG inhibitor,

matching with the whole-cell assay results (Figure 2 O and P and Supplementary Fig. 7 and

8).

S. aureus SpeG forms a dodecameric structure composed of two hexamers stacked

together in a ring-like structure (*53*). Crystallographic data of SpeG from *S. aureus*, *Vibrio*

cholerae, and *E. coli* show spermine and spermidine bound in a pocket that expands two

adjacent monomers of the hexamer with a total of twelve binding sites in the dodecamer

(*53, 55, 56*). When spermine, spermidine, or AcCoA bind to SpeG a conformational change

occurs, suggested to bring the AcCoA and polyamine molecule closer together for the

acetyl transfer (*53, 55, 57, 58*). Alignment of the crystal structures of *S. aureus* SpeG with

and without bound spermine depicts this conformational change and the spermine binding

site (PBD ID: 8FV0 and 5IX3, respectively; Figure 2 Q). We docked both OES2-0017 and

OES1-1087 in an unbiased manner to *S. aureus* SpeG (PBD ID: 5IX3). OES2-0017 is

predicted to bind between adjacent monomers at the same site as spermine and spermidine

with a ΔG of -6.636 Kcal/mol (Figure 2 R). This analysis aligns with our experimental data,

suggesting OES2-0017 is a competitive inhibitor of SpeG, competing with spermine to bind

the free enzyme.

S. aureus SpeG has not been crystalized in complex with CoA or AcCoA, but *V.*

cholerae SpeG has been co-crystallized with CoA, where it binds to the substrate binding

site between a cleft created by β4 and β5 strands and α-helices 3 and 4 (*55*). Molecular

docking of *S. aureus* SpeG with AcCoA predicts it binds to the same site as in *V. cholerae*

(ΔG of -9.228 Kcal/mol; Figure 2 S). OES1-1087 was also predicted to bind this same

location (ΔG = -6.691 Kcal/mol; Figure 2 T). This prediction combined with our experimental

inhibition data led us to hypothesize that OES1-1087 is binding the same site as AcCoA and

is thus suggested to be acting as a competitive inhibitor. The lower affinity of OES1-1087 to

bind to the same site as AcCoA also suggests why OES1-1087 shows very weak inhibition

of SpeG. The *in vitro* enzymatic assays and protein docking data together suggest that

OES2-0017 and is OES1-1087 are competing with spermine or AcCoA, respectively to bind

SpeG, acting in a competitive manner.

460   Figure 2. **OES2-0017 and OES1-1087 inhibit SpeG. A)** Chemogenomic screen of the Nebraska

Transposon Mutant Library with spermine at 1/8th (red squares) and 1/16th (blue circles) the MIC. **B)** Mini-

checkerboard assays performed by testing 2-fold dilutions of each of spermine and OES1-1087 or OES2-

0017 against polyamine resistance determinants uncovered in **(A)** including *S. aureus* USA300, *cls*::Tn,

prmC::Tn, *pyrP*::Tn, *tcaA*::Tn, and *ΔspeG*. **C-N)** Representative checkerboard assays performed by testing

2-fold dilutions of each test compound. **C-E)** spermine and OES2-0017 against *S. aureus ΔspeG* (n=9) **(C)**,

COL (n=3) **(D)**, NCTC8325 (n=3) **(E)**. **F-H)** Spermine and OES1-1087 against *S. aureus ΔspeG* (n=9) **(F)**,

COL (n=4) **(G)**, NCTC8325 (n=4) **(H)**. **I)** OES2-0017 and spermine against CMRSA-10 (n=3), **J)** OES1-

1087 and spermine against CMRSA-10 (n=3). OES2-0017 and spermidine against **K)** USA300 (n=7) and

L) Δ*speG* (n=6). OES1-1087 and spermidine against **M)** USA300 (n=3) and **N)** Δ*speG* (n=3).

Checkerboards against Δ*speG* were performed on the same day as their counterparts against the wild-type

strain shown in Figure 1. **O-P)** Colorimetric enzymatic assays conducted with 1 mM Acetyl Coenzyme A

(O) or 0.75 mM Acetyl Coenzyme A **(P)** and 1500 μM spermine in the reaction mixture to evaluate the

inhibition of OES2-0017 (n=7; **O**) and OES1-1087 (n=3; **P).** Data is represented as mean ± SEM for three

independent experiments. **Q)** Alignment of *S. aureus* SpeG crystallized with (orange; PDB ID: 8FV0) and

without spermine (blue; PDB ID 5IX3). Molecular docking of **R)** OES2-0017, **S)** Acetyl-CoA, and **T)** OES1-

1087 to *S. aureus* SpeG (PDB ID: 5IX3).

Uncovering parallel polyamine acetyltransferase mechanisms in USA300.

Checkerboard assays with OES2-0017 and OES1-1087 revealed only a partial loss of

synergy in the Δ*speG* mutant with the polyamine spermidine (Figure 2 K-N and

Supplementary Fig. 5), suggesting other potential mechanisms may also be at play in the

spermidine synergy and that these may also be targeted by the inhibitors. SpeG

preferentially acetylates spermine while it acetylates spermidine with a lower affinity

(Supplementary Fig. 5 and (*20, 53*)). The lower affinity may contribute to a decreased ability

to detoxify spermidine, possibly requiring other detoxification mechanisms that function in

parallel to SpeG. Some bacteria encode SSATs distinct from SpeG, such as *B. subtilis*

encoding two enzymes *paiA* and *bltD* (*59, 60*) and *Enterococcus faecalis* encoding *pmvE* a

homolog of *B. subtilis paiA* (*25, 59, 60*). The presence of both *paiA* and *bltD* in *B. subtilis*

provides evidence for the existence of parallel polyamine detoxification pathways. Further, a

recent report observed an accumulation of *N*-acetylputrescine in the MSSA strain ATCC

25923, which does not encode SpeG; however, they did not identify the enzyme

responsible for its production (*21*). This further suggests that *S. aureus* may encode

alternative polyamine acetyltransferases and that they may have activity towards different

polyamines. We identified potential additional polyamine acetyltransferases in *S. aureus* by

performing protein blast of the *B. subtilis* 168 strain sequences of BltD (Accession

NP_390537.1) and PaiA (Accession NP_391095.1) against *S. aureus* to identify potential

homologs. Blastp results for BltD revealed two hypothetical proteins of *S. aureus* USA300

FPR3757; SAUSA300_0441 with 29.76 percent identity (query coverage 54%, E value of

2e⁻09) and SAUSA300_2083 with 27.41 percent identity (query coverage 86%, E value of

5e⁻09). PaiA blastp results identified a homolog of *S. aureus* USA300 FPR3757;

SAUSA300_2316 (denoted PaiA$_{Sa}$ herein), with 40.35 percent identity (99% query

coverage, E value of 3 e$^-$39). These *S. aureus* proteins have not been previously

characterized functionally; all three are annotated as ribosomal-protein-alanine

acetyltransferases whereas SAUSA300_2083 and SAUSA300_2316 (PaiA$_{Sa}$) are also

annotated as spermine/spermidine acetyltransferase blt and PaiA, respectively.

To confirm or rule out SSAT activity of SAUSA300_2083*,* SAUSA300_0441, and

PaiA$_{Sa}$, we overexpressed and purified these enzymes to assess their activity *in vitro*. We

observed acetyltransferase activity of PaiA$_{Sa}$ when spermine and spermidine are used as

substrates but no activity with putrescine under the test conditions (Figure 3

A-C). PaiA$_{Sa}$ substrate affinity appears higher for spermine than spermidine (K$_M$ = 2144 $\pm$

443.3 μM and 3996 $\pm$ 670.8 μM, respectively). Further, the catalytic efficiency of PaiA$_{Sa}$

with spermine as a substrate is ~7-fold higher than with spermidine (K$_{cat}$/K$_M$ = 2.41E+03 and

3.47E+02 M^{-1}s^{-1}, respectively; Supplementary Fig. 9). Thus, these results suggest that

PaiA$_{Sa}$ is better at acetylating spermine at lower substrate concentrations than spermidine.

Notably, SAUSA300_2083 and SAUSA300_0441 did not exhibit actetyltransferase activity

against the polyamines spermine, spermidine or putrescine under the tested conditions

(Supplementary Fig. 9). These data suggest that the PaiA$_{Sa}$ is likely to function as a

spermine/spermidine acetyltransferase. Next, we tested the ability of OES2-0017 to inhibit

PaiA$_{Sa}$ spermine acetylation; the low spermidine acetylation signal precluded testing OES2-

0017 PaiA$_{Sa}$ inhibition with spermidine as a substrate. OES2-0017 inhibited PaiA$_{Sa}$ activity

exhibiting an IC$_{50}$ value of 52.17 $\pm$ 5.897 μM and estimated K$_i$ of 43.83 $\pm$ 6.693 (Figure 3 D

Supplementary Fig. 10). Next, we performed whole-cell spermine – OES2-0017 mini-

checkerboard assays against a *paiA*::Tn mutant, compared to the wild-type USA300,

revealing no loss of synergy in the *paiA$_{Sa}$* mutant (Figure 3 E and F). SpeG, hypothesized to

be the primary spermine/spermidine detoxification enzyme in *S. aureus*, may have

compensated for the absence of PaiA$_{Sa}$, masking any phenotypic changes in the *paiA$_{Sa}$*

mutant; a *speG paiA$_{Sa}$* double mutant may be required to assess the contribution of PaiA$_{Sa}$

in whole cells. Together, our results indicate that polyamine acetylation in *S. aureus* may

occur through PaiA$_{Sa}$ in addition to SpeG, serving as complementary acetyltransferase

enzymes, and that the SSAT function of both enzymes is inhibited by OES2-0017.

Figure 3. **Interaction of polyamines and OES2-0017 uncovers PaiA$_{Sa}$ as a spermine/spermidine acetyltransferase in *S. aureus*. A-C)** Steady-state enzymatic assays of PaiA$_{Sa}$ evaluate the acetylation activity in the presence of substrates **A)** spermine (n=6), **B)** spermidine (n=6), and **C)** putrescine (n=6). **D)** Enzymatic inhibition assay of PaiA$_{Sa}$ with spermine as a substrate by OES2-0017 (n=3). Results are represented as a mean $\pm$ SEM of three independent experiments. Representative checkerboard assays of spermine and OES2-0017 against *S. aureus* **E)** USA300 (n=11), **F)** *paiA*::Tn (n=3). FICI values are represented as mean $\pm$ standard deviation.

Uncovering the mechanism of growth inhibitory effects of OES2-0017. OES2-0017 and OES1-1087 exhibit growth-inhibitory effects at concentrations higher than those required to synergize with spermine; therefore, we hypothesized that this activity occurs via a second mode of action. Given its growth inhibitory activity at low micromolar range, we prioritized OES2-0017 to determine if growth inhibition was mediated through an essential protein target. We confirmed activity against *Bacillus subtilis,* a Gram-positive organism with high degree of genetic conservation with *S. aureus* (Supplementary Fig. 11)*.* Then, we screened a knock-down library covering the essential genes of *B. subtilis* against three sub-inhibitory concentrations of OES2-0017, spanning $\frac{1}{4}^{th}$-1/16th the wild-type MIC (Supplementary Fig. 11). While some mutants showed reduced growth in the presence of one or more of the tested sub-inhibitory concentrations, follow-up dose-response assays revealed that none of those mutants was more susceptible to OES2-0017 relative to the wild-type, suggesting the absence of an essential protein target.

Next, we hypothesized that the growth-inhibitory activity of OES2-0017 is due to an effect on membrane integrity in the absence of an essential protein target. Using a DiSC$_3$(5)

membrane integrity assay (*43*), we found that OES2-0017 permeabilized the membrane of

USA300 at concentrations starting from its MIC ($\geq$ 20 µM) in a concentration-dependent

manner (Figure 4 A and B), suggesting membrane activity at high concentrations as the

mechanism of growth inhibitory effects of OES2-0017. Notably, a DiSC$_3$(5) assay with

OES1-1087 did not have an observable effect on membrane integrity (Figure 4 C).

Next, we sought to check whether membrane disruption contributed to the observed

synergy between OES2-0017 and spermine. We conducted a checkerboard-style DiSC$_3$(5)

assay with a combination of spermine and OES2-0017. OES2-0017 concentrations that

correspond to the range of synergy (2.5-10 µM) resulted in no observable permeabilization

(Figure 4 A and B). Like OES2-0017, spermine disrupted membrane integrity of USA300 at

concentrations starting from its MIC against USA300 (Figure 4 B and Supplementary Fig.

12 A). We observed the similar membrane permeabilization with spermidine and putrescine

(Supplementary Fig. 12 B and C) Large polyamine molecules were previously shown to

permeabilize the outer membrane of Gram-negative bacteria (*61*); however, we found no

reports on similar effects on Gram-positive membrane integrity. Importantly, there was no

significant effect on membrane integrity in the presence of the combination of OES2-0017

and spermine at concentrations where synergy is observed (Figure 4 B), suggesting that

membrane permeabilization does not contribute to the observed synergy. Taken together,

we revealed a dual mode of action of OES2-0017 with high concentrations leading to

growth-inhibitory effects due to membrane perturbation and low concentrations synergizing

with polyamines through inhibiting SpeG and other SSAT activity.

Figure 4. **Effects of OES2-0017 and OES1-1087 on *S. aureus* membrane integrity. A)** DiSC$_3$(5)
membrane permeabilization assay of OES2-0017 against *S. aureus* USA300. Results represented as mean
relative fluorescence units (RFU) $\pm$ SEM for three independent experiments (n=11). **B)** A representative
DiSC$_3$(5) membrane permeabilization assay performed as a mini-checkerboard evaluating the combined
effects of OES2-0017 and spermine. **C)** DiSC$_3$(5) membrane permeabilization assay of OES1-1087 against
S. aureus USA300. Results represented as mean $\pm$ SEM for three independent experiments (n=8).

Broad-spectrum activity of OES2-0017 on clinically-relevant bacteria. We conducted a

BLAST search of spermine/spermidine acetyltransferases using *S. aureus* SpeG as the

query, obtaining 94 amino acid sequences comprising eukaryotes, bacteria, and archaea.

Sequences were aligned using MUSCLE and a pairwise deletion of ambiguous positions

was performed for each sequence pair. The conservation of various SSATs was determined

by a maximum likelihood phylogenetic analysis (Supplementary Fig. 13). Although the main

purpose of such an analysis is to infer evolutionary history and relatedness, we used the

phylogenetic tree to visualize or infer sequence similarity between known

spermine/spermidine acetyltransferases. Our analysis reveals two main branches

originating from a common ancestor. The first branch shows archaea and (vertebrate)

eukaryotic organisms clustering together. This branch includes the human SAT1, rat, and

other mammalian SATs. The same branch also included *Acinetobacter baumannii* Dpa,

which was recently characterized as more closely resembling eukaryotic SSATs than

bacterial ones (*62*). The second branch was divided into two sub-branches; the first

contained SpeG homologs in yeast while the second large sub-branch comprised bacterial

SpeG. The latter sub-branch included SpeG and other polyamine acetyltransferases that

have previously been characterized in both Gram-positive and Gram-negative organisms

including *Staphylococcus epidermidis* (*23*)*, E. faecalis* (PmvE) (*25*)*, Escherichia coli* (*63*)*, V.

cholerae (*55*)*, Yersinia pestis* (PDB ID: 6D72)*, B. subtilis* (BltD and PaiA) (*59, 60*)*,* and

Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium (*24*)*.

        Given that SpeG has been implicated in virulence phenotypes in multiple bacteria

(*14, 24, 64*), we tested OES2-0017 being the most potent identified SpeG inhibitor against a

broad range of Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria and the pathogenic yeast

Candida albicans in checkerboard assays with spermine. The combination of OES2-0017

and spermine exhibited a synergistic interaction or an increase in spermine susceptibility in

*B. subtilis, E. faecalis, E. faecium, S. epidermidis, M. smegmatis, B. cenocepacia, E. coli, K.

pneumoniae, S.* Typhimurium, and *C. albicans* (Figure 5 A-K)*.* In *A. baumannii* the

polyamine acetyltransferase Dpa preferentially acetylates 1,3-diaminopropane (*62*), which is

a diamine; therefore, we tested the diamine putrescine and OES2-0017 in combination.

OES2-0017 synergized with putrescine against *A. baumannii* (Figure 5 K). As in *S. aureus*,

OES2-0017 also inhibited the growth of all tested bacteria and *C. albicans* at the micromolar

range (Figure 5). Next, we tested the combination of spermine and OES2-0017 against the

respective SSAT mutants of *E. coli* BW25113, *K. pneumoniae* MKP103, *S. enterica* sv.

Typhimurium 14028s, and *B. subtilis* 168 (Figure 5. L-O). OES2-0017 no longer potentiated

the effects of spermine in the SSAT mutants as opposed to their respective wild-type strains

(Figure 5 L-O), suggesting OES2-0017 mediates its broad-spectrum spermine synergy

through SSAT inhibition. Together, OES2-0017 exhibited broad-spectrum dual activity –

polyamine synergy and growth inhibition – against Gram-positive and Gram-negative

bacteria and fungi, including clinically relevant World Health Organization priority pathogens

(*65*).

Figure 5. **OES2-0017 exhibits broad-spectrum activity.** Representative checkerboard assays of OES2-0017 and spermine against **A)** *B. subtilis* 168 (n=4), **B)** *E. coli* BW25113 (n=4), **C)** *K. pneumoniae* MKP103 (n=4), **D)** *S.* Typhimurium 14028s (n=4), **E)** *E. faecalis* TX1322 (n=3), **F)** *E. faecium* ERV165 (n=3), **G)** *S. epidermidis* NRS6 (n=3), **H)** *S. epidermidis* NIH04008 (n=3), **I)** *B. cenocepacia* K56-2 (n=3), **J)** *M. smegmatis* (n=3)*, and* **K)** *C. albicans* SC5314 (n=3). **L)** Putrescine and OES2-0017 checkerboard against *A. baumannii* ATCC19606 (n=3)*. Representative checkerboard assays of spermine and OES2-0017 against spermine/spermidine acetyltransferase mutants **M)** *B. subtilis* Δ*bltD* (n=4), **N)** *E. coli* Δ*speG* (n=3), **O)** *K. pneumoniae speG*::Tn30 (n=3), **P)** *S.* Typhimurium *speG*::Cm (n=3)**.** FICI values are represented as mean ± standard deviation for the indicated number of replicates.

Polyamine-mediated altered antibiotic susceptibility and the potential of OE2-0017 as an antibiotic adjuvant. Checkerboard assays of polyamines and representative antibiotics from seven classes with diverse cellular targets revealed various polyamine-mediated altered antibiotic responses (Supplementary Fig. 14). The three tested polyamines synergized with the macrolide azithromycin while spermine synergized with the β-lactam cefuroxime (Supplementary Fig. 14). The spermine β-lactam synergy matches previous reports of the phenotype in *S. aureus* (*26, 28*). Similarly, polyamine synergy with macrolides has been reported in the Gram-negative pathogens *K. pneumoniae* (*30*) and *E. coli* (*28*). In *K. pneumoniae* the synergistic interaction between azithromycin and putrescine is mediated through the combined effects of putrescine-induced membrane perturbation and protein synthesis inhibition via interaction at the ribosome (*30*). The effects of polyamines on ribosome function is well documented (*66*) and polyamines are known to interact with biological macromolecules, including DNA, RNA, proteins, and phospholipids (*16, 67*). In contrast, the three polyamines antagonized rifampicin and kanamycin whereas spermine antagonized with vancomycin, defined as a FICI value ≥ 4 (Supplementary Fig. 14). The mechanisms of the observed polyamine-mediated alterations to antibiotic susceptibility warrant further investigation. On the other hand, we observed no alterations in daptomycin or ciprofloxacin susceptibility in combination with the tested polyamines (Supplementary Fig. 14).

Interestingly, the MIC of vancomycin is increased 4-fold when combined with spermine (FICI = 4.69 ± 1.57), but the interaction is lost in a Δ*speG* mutant (FICI = 2.17 ± 0.26), suggesting that *S. aureus* requires a functional SpeG to use exogenous polyamines to resist vancomycin (Figure 6 A and B). Supplementing a sub-inhibitory concentration of OES2-0017 (2.5 µM) to a vancomycin-spermine checkerboard against *S. aureus* USA300 phenocopied the loss of antagonism observed against the Δ*speG* mutant (FICI = 1.59 ±

0.62; Figure 6 C). This phenotype is not due to a synergistic interaction between OES2-

0017 and vancomycin (Supplementary Fig. 15). Vancomycin is one of the first-line

antibiotics for the treatment of severe MRSA infections (*68*), suggesting the antagonism

between polyamines and vancomycin may be detrimental to MRSA treatment. Similarly, the

polyamine antagonistic interactions with rifampicin and kanamycin in USA300 were lost in

the Δ*speG* mutant and with supplementation of a sub-inhibitory concentration of OES2-0017

to the USA300 checkerboard (Figure 6 D-I). The loss of antagonism was not due to synergy

between OES2-0017 and kanamycin or rifampicin (Supplementary Fig. 15). While

kanamycin and rifampicin are not considered first-line monotherapies for MRSA infections,

they are often used in conjunction with vancomycin (*69, 70*); polyamines may reduce

bacterial susceptibility to these antibiotics. We also identified a synergistic interaction

between OES2-0017 and cefuroxime, where OES2-0017 lowered the MIC of the antibiotic

to <16 µg/mL from 1024 µg/mL (FICI = 0.35 $\pm$ 0.13; Figure 6 J). OES2-0017 and

azithromycin also exhibited a slight potentiation effect against USA300 (FICI = 0.72 $\pm$ 0.21;

Figure 6 K). A similar potentiation effect was observed, where azithromycin synergized with

OES2-0017 against *K. pneumoniae* (*30*). These results suggest that OES2-0017 may serve

as an antibiotic adjuvant by preventing *S. aureus* from utilizing exogenous polyamines to

resist antibiotics (e.g., glycopeptides, aminoglycosides, and rifamycins) or by potentiating

the effects of antibiotics phenocopying the polyamine-mediated sensitization to certain

antibiotics (e.g., macrolides and β-lactams).

OES2-0017 abrogates intracellular survival and may serve as an antivirulence agent.

We tested the ability of OES2-0017 to clear *S.* Typhimurium infection of murine

macrophages since SpeG was previously shown to be necessary for the intracellular

replication of *S.* Typhimurium, where a *speG* knockout was attenuated in macrophages

(*24*). Bacterial load was significantly reduced in a gentamicin protection assay at both 4-

and 15-hours post-infection in the *speG::*Cm infected macrophages compared to the wild-

type (p = 0.0286 and 0.0286, respectively; Figure 6 L and M). OES2-0017 treatment,

whether pre- or post-infection, reduced *S.* Typhimurium bacterial load in macrophages,

similar to the levels of recovered bacteria in the *speG*::Cm condition (Figure 6 L and M).

Thus, OES2-0017 eradicated intracellular macrophage infection of the wild-type *S.*

Typhimurium reducing its virulence.

Figure 6. **The potential of OES2-0017 as an antibiotic adjuvant and an antivirulence agent.**
Representative checkerboard assays of spermine and vancomycin **(A-C)**, kanamycin **(D-F)**, and rifampicin
(G-I) against *S. aureus* **A, D, G)** USA300, **B, E, H)** Δ*speG*, and **C, F, I)** USA300 supplemented with a sub-
inhibitory concentration of OES2-0017 where OES2-0017 abolishes the protective effect of polyamines
from the antibiotics. Representative checkerboard assay of OES2-0017 and cefuroxime **(J)** and
azithromycin **(K)** against *S. aureus* USA300, where OES2-0017 potentiates the antibiotic activity. **L** and **M)**
murine macrophages treated with OES2-0017 before or after infection with *S.* Typhimurium 14028s or
speG::Cm and bacterial colony forming units counted at **L)** 4 hours post-infection and **M)** 15 hours post-

infection. Data represent 3 independent experiments and statistical analysis was performed by Mann-
Whitney test (* signifies p < 0.05).

Evaluation of OES2-0017 and OES1-1087 potential eukaryotic activity. Given the
membrane activity of OES2-0017 against *S. aureus* (Figure 4 A and B), we sought to
evaluate its potential effects on mammalian cell membranes. To that end, we assessed the
hemolytic activity of OES2-0017 against sheep red blood cells. OES2-0017 exhibited
hemolytic effects, which are first observed at 160 µM with an increase at 640 µM reaching
an absorbance of roughly ½ that of the positive control (Triton X100) (Supplementary Fig.
16). The hemolytic effects do occur at a concentration significantly higher than what is
necessary to inhibit bacterial growth (8-fold higher than the MIC) or to synergize with
spermine through SpeG inhibition (512-fold higher than the lowest point of synergy with
spermine). Notably, OES1-1087 did not exhibit hemolytic effects at the concentrations
tested (Supplementary Fig. 16). To further evaluate the relative toxicity of OES2-0017 and
OES1-0187 toward eukaryotic cells, we also exposed MDCK epithelial cells to the
compounds and evaluated their ability to remain adhered to the tissue culture substratum
and viable. This analysis revealed that at the *S. aureus* USA300 MIC (1250 µM) OES1-
1087 treated cells remain adhered and are refractory to viability dye staining. In contrast,
OES2-0017 treated cells detach from the tissue culture substratum at the MIC (20 µM);
however, this effect is significantly diminished at ½ the MIC. Moreover, under these same
conditions, OES2-0017 treatment does not result in loss of cell viability (Supplementary Fig.
17). Altogether, these data indicate that at the concentrations employed in our study
significant toxicity towards host cells would not occur.

Next, we assessed the activity of OES2-0017 and OES1-1087 against the human
spermine/spermidine acetyltransferase, SAT1. SAT1 is a dimer in solution with one
monomer seemingly self-acetylating a lysine residue and the other binding polyamines for
acetylation (*71*). SpeG and SAT1 are located on two separate branches of the phylogenetic
analysis (Supplementary Fig. 13), suggesting a distant relation. A protein alignment by
PyMOL 3.0 revealed monomers of the SpeG and SAT1 apoenzymes align well with minor
differences in their tertiary structures (PDB ID 5IX3 and 2B5G, respectively; Figure 7 A).
However, differences between aligned SpeG and SAT1 are greater when both are bound to
substrate (PDB ID 8FV0 and 2BD4, respectively; Figure 7 B). First, we overexpressed and
purified SAT1 enzyme and confirmed its acetyltransferase activity *in vitro* with spermine.

SAT1 demonstrated higher substrate specificity (K_M = 73.10 $\pm$ 8.328 μM) and high catalytic

efficiency (K_{cat}/K_M = 1.28E+05 $M^{-1}s^{-1}$) towards spermine than SpeG (K_M = 1312 $\pm$ 348.1 μM

and K_{cat}/K_M = 5.58E+03 $M^{-1}s^{-1}$; Supplementary Fig. 18). Our results are in agreement with

previous kinetic characterization and the relative activities of both enzymes (*20, 72*). We

then tested the ability of OES2-0017 and OES1-1087 to inhibit SAT1. The IC_{50} of OES2-

0017 against SAT1 was 26.39 $\pm$ 6.411 μM (Figure 7 C), whereas OES1-1087 did not inhibit

SAT1 under any of the tested conditions (Supplementary Fig. 18). Although, OES2-0017

can inhibit SAT1 activity, this may not prove detrimental to human cells. Multiple studies

have employed the SSAT knockout mice and the non-specific SSAT inhibitor Berenil in *in*

vivo mouse models, observing no toxic effects to mice (*73-75*). On the other hand, SAT1

inhibition might have other potential therapeutic uses. Altered polyamine metabolism has

been implicated in many human diseases and conditions, including cancer, osteoporosis,

and ischemia/reperfusion leading to acute kidney injury (*73, 75-78*) with SAT1 being

previously suggested as a promising drug target (*71, 79*).

Figure 7. **Effects of OES2-0017 on human SSAT. A)** Structural alignment of human SAT1 (PDB ID 2B5G) represented with green, and *S. aureus* SpeG (PDB ID 5IX3) represented with cyan apoenzymes. **B)** alignment of human SAT1 (PDB ID: 2B4D; orange) co-crystallized with Coenzyme A (magenta) and spermine and *S. aureus* SpeG (PDB ID: 8FV0; blue) co-crystallized with spermine (cyan). Structural alignments were performed using PyMOL 3.0. **C)** Enzymatic inhibition assay performed against human SAT1 with excess AcCoA (0.25 mM) and 75 µM spermine ($\approx K_M$).

Small-scale structure activity relationship of OES2-0017 suggests the

structural components necessary for activity. We performed a small-scale structure

activity relationship (SAR) study of OES2-0017 by testing analogs thereof to identify the

active moiety of OES2-0017 and detect preferential inhibitory activity against either SpeG or

SAT1. The analyses included compounds with varied length of the saturated alkyl chain R_1

and one of three R_2 (a proton, an aminoethyl group, or an aminopropyl group) attached on

either side of an amine group (Table 1). First, we tested each of the compounds in whole-

cell assays in combination with spermine to assess their growth inhibitory and polyamine

synergy effects against *S. aureus* USA300. We observed a general reduction in the MIC of

the compound as the length of R_1 and R_2 increased (Table 1). Spermine synergy appeared

to be dependent on both the length of the alkyl chain and the addition of either the

aminoethyl or aminopropyl group. The FICI value decreased (indicating a greater degree of

synergy) as the length of the alkyl chain increased; for example, OES2-0047 with R_1 as a

proton exhibited no synergy (FICI = 0.88 $\pm$ 0.13) whereas OES2-0052 with R_1 $(CH_2)_5CH_3$

showed synergy (FICI = 0.50 $\pm$ 0). The synergistic interaction is further improved when the

primary amine is changed to a secondary one with an aminoethyl or aminopropyl; this trend

is exemplified in OES2-0046 (R_2 = H; FICI = 0.58 $\pm$ 0.12), OES2-0085 (R_2 = aminoethyl;

FICI = 0.56 $\pm$ 0.05), and OES2-0045 (R_2 = aminopropyl; FICI= 0.38 $\pm$ 0).

The analogs that synergized with spermine lost the synergy against the $\Delta speG$

mutant (Table 1), suggesting their synergy is mediated through SpeG inhibition similar to

OES2-0017. The analogs that did not exhibit synergy in whole-cell assays are hypothesized

to have no SpeG inhibitory activity. Therefore, we tested each compound in enzymatic

assays, against both SpeG and SAT1 and estimated K_i values using equation 1 (materials

and methods). OES2-0017 remains the most potent inhibitor of SpeG, K_i = 16.25 $\pm$ 3.27 μM

with OES2-0052 being the second most potent, K_i = 74.6 $\pm$ 18.28 μM (Table 1 and

Supplementary Fig. 19). OES2-0047 and OES2-0046 do not synergize in whole-cell assays

and do not inhibit SpeG *in vitro*; thus, they serve as controls to validate the correlation

between *in vitro* and whole-cell assays and that our lead compound is targeting and

inhibiting SpeG.

OES2-0017 inhibited SAT1 with a K_i of 13.03 $\pm$ 4.69 μM, similar to that of SpeG, but

the K_i of OES2-0052 is roughly 2-fold higher in SAT1 than SpeG (160.22 $\pm$ 50.45 μM and

74.6 $\pm$ 18.28 μM, respectively; Table 1). Similarly, OES2-0077 has almost a two-fold higher

K_i against SAT1 than SpeG (743.34 $\pm$ 250.46 and 397.89 $\pm$ 113.0 μM, respectively).

Further, two of the tested compounds only inhibited SpeG (OES2-0085 at K_i = 592.08 $\pm$

126.15 μM and OES2-0086 at K_i = 559.42 $\pm$ 201.51 μM) and not SAT1, in contrast, SAT1

activity increased at the highest tested concentrations of these analogs (Supplementary Fig.

19). Notably, OES2-0045 which synergized with spermine in whole-cell assays (FICI = 0.38

$\pm$ 0 μM), suggesting SpeG inhibitory activity, showed no inhibition in the *in vitro* enzymatic

assays; however, it inhibited SAT1 (K_i = 227.99 $\pm$ 49.73μM; Table 1 and Supplementary

Figure 19). These results showing differential activity of some analogs against both

enzymes suggest a potential to improve specificity of an inhibitor towards SpeG. Docking

the analogs to SpeG or SAT1 revealed that each is expected to bind to the same site as

spermine/spermidine, suggesting that all analogs would act in a similar mechanism as

OES2-0017 (Supplementary Fig. 20).

Given that the compounds also exhibit growth-inhibitory effects, we simultaneously

evaluated their hemolytic activity. Hemolytic activity aligned with the MIC data where the

concentration required to lyse red blood cells was observed at lower concentrations for

compounds with a longer alkyl chain (R_1 = $(CH_2)_3CH_3$ or $(CH_2)_5CH_3$) and with an aminoethyl

or aminopropyl group at R_2 (Table 1 and Supplementary Fig. 21). Hemolysis for the SpeG

inhibitory compounds OES2-0085 and OES2-0077 occurred at 1280 μM (~2-fold higher

than their MICs), while hemolytic activity of OES2-0086, and OES2-0052 was observed at ~

4-fold higher than their MICs (640 and 320 μM, respectively; Table 1 and Supplementary

Fig. 21). We observed no hemolytic activity of two analogs with high MIC values OES2-

0047 and OES2-0046 (Table 1 and Supplementary Fig. 21). The same compounds were

also analyzed for their impact on MDCK monolayers which revealed, at their respective

MICs against *S. aureus* USA300 and 1 step below (½ MIC), the compounds did not overtly

intoxicate eukaryotic cells (Supplementary Fig. 22). Given the promising results of OES2-

0052 being more potent against SpeG than SAT1 and lacking observable toxicity against

eukaryotic cells, we tested if this compound retains the potential adjuvant activity of OES2-

0017. OES2-0052 abolishes the protective effect of spermine towards vancomycin,

kanamycin, and rifampicin, and potentiates the activity of cefuroxime (Supplementary Figure

23). This analysis provides a foundation for a larger scale targeted lead optimization to

improve the potency of SpeG inhibition, while reducing the hemolytic and SAT1 inhibitory

activity.

Table 1. **Small scale structure activity relationship study of OES2-0017.** SAR study compounds were
tested in combination with spermine against *S. aureus* USA300 and Δ*speG*. FICI values are calculated as
the mean ± standard deviation of at least three replicates, unless otherwise specified. Inhibitory activity
against both SpeG and SAT1 was evaluated in colorimetric enzymatic assays to determine K_i values
estimated by the Cheng-Prusoff equation and reported with relative error. Hemolytic activity of each
compound was tested against sheep red blood cells.

$$(R_1)\diagdown\diagup\diagdown\diagup\diagdown\underset{H}{\overset{}{N}}(R_2)$$

Inhibitor	R_1	R_2	MIC (μM)	FICI USA300	FICI Δ*speG*	SpeG K_I (μM)	SAT1 K_I (μM)	Observed hemolysis (μM)
OES2-0047	H	H	2500	0.88 ± 0.13 (n=2)	1.38 ± 0.63 (n=2)	N/A	N/A	None
OES2-0046	CH_2CH_3	H	5000	0.58 ± 0.12	0.92 ± 0.12	N/A	N/A	None
OES2-0085	CH_2CH_3	$(CH_2)_2NH_2$	625	0.56 ± 0.05	1.0 ± 0	592.08 ± 126.15	N/A	1280
OES2-0045	CH_2CH_3	$(CH_2)_3NH_2$	1250	0.38 ± 0	0.67 ± 0.12	N/A	227.99 ± 49.73	1280
OES2-0077	$(CH_2)_3CH_3$	H	625	0.50 ± 0	0.83 ± 0.12	397.89 ±113.0	743.34 ± 250.46	1280
OES2-0086	$(CH_2)_3CH_3$	$(CH_2)_2NH_2$	156.25	0.42 ± 0.12	0.83 ± 0.12	559.42 ± 201.51	N/A	640
OES2-0052	$(CH_2)_5CH_3$	H	62.5	0.50 ± 0	1.25 ± 0.54	74.60 ± 18.28	160.22 ± 50.45	320
OES2-0017	$(CH_2)_5CH_3$	$(CH_2)_3NH_2$	20	0.33 ± 0.06 (n=11)	0.75 ± 0 (n=9)	16.25 ± 3.27	13.03 ± 4.69	160

Conclusions

We undertook a chemical screen to identify inhibitors of polyamine detoxification,

and uncovered two lead compounds, OES2-0017 and OES1-1087, that show growth

inhibition and synergy with spermine. A chemogenomic screen and *in vitro* enzymatic

assays revealed that both compounds inhibit the spermine/spermidine acetyltransferase

SpeG. The most potent of the two, OES2-0017 with activity at the low micromolar

concentration range, inhibited bacterial growth via membrane perturbation. We also

observed the growth inhibitory and spermine synergistic effects of OES2-0017 in a broad-

spectrum of Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria, including *E. faecalis, E. faecium, B.*
cenocepacia, K. pneumoniae, and *A. baumannii*, and the pathogenic yeast *C. albicans*.
Synergy between spermidine and OES2-0017 was not completely lost in a USA300 $\Delta speG$
mutant, suggesting other underlying polyamine detoxification targets, which prompted us to
search for SSATs homologous to *B. subtilis* PaiA and BltD. We found PaiA$_{sa}$, characterized
its SSAT activity *in vitro*, and showed that OES2-0017 inhibited its activity. OES2-0017
prevented intracellular survival of *S.* Typhimurium in murine macrophages, phenocopying a
speG deficient mutant. Further, OES2-0017 synergized with cefuroxime and potentiated
azithromycin activity against *S. aureus*. This potentiation effect with azithromycin is similar
to previous work in *K. pneumoniae* (*30*). OES2-0017 also abolished the ability of *S. aureus*
to use exogenous polyamines to resist antibiotic treatment. Finally, we performed a small-
scale SAR study and identified compounds with differential activity towards the human
SAT1 and *S. aureus* SpeG, including OES2-0086 and OES2-0052. Together, the growth
inhibitory effects of the inhibitors identified herein suggest their potential use as stand-alone
antimicrobials and their SSAT inhibitory effects, shown to prevent *S.* Typhimurium survival
in macrophages, suggest they may serve as antivirulence agents. The synergy with some
antibiotics and ability to prevent exogenous polyamine-mediated resistance to other
antibiotics in *S. aureus* suggest OES2-0017 may also be used as an antibiotic adjuvant.

Polyamine analogs have previously been demonstrated to have antiparasitic,
anticancer (*79-81*), and antibacterial properties (*82-84*); however, the previously tested
analogs differ in structure from OES2-0017 and the other polyamine analogs tested in this
study. Antibacterial polyamines described to date include mono- and bis-acyl polyamines,
amine steroidal derivatives (*82*), and diacylpolyamines with aromatic head groups (*83*). One
study tested linear polyamine analogs, similar to OES2-0017, and revealed bactericidal and
β-lactam potentiating activity; however, the mechanism of growth inhibition and antibiotic
potentiation were not discussed (*84*). Notably, several polyamine analogs were shown to
inhibit polyamine biosynthesis, transport, and catabolism (*80, 81*). As such, in addition to
screening a diverse small molecule library, we also undertook a targeted approach of
screening a library of polyamine analogs for activity against polyamine detoxification
enzymes. Indeed, this rationale-based approach showed a higher hit rate and higher
potencies compared to the unbiased approach although both screens identified SSAT
bioactives.

Specific bacterial SSAT inhibitors have not been identified previously. Notably,

berenil (diminazene aceturate) was shown to inhibit SSAT and has been used *in vivo* in

murine models for this purpose (*75*). *In vitro* assays against human SSAT suggested berenil

is a potent competitive inhibitor of spermidine with a K_i of 2.0 μM (*85*); however, berenil also

inhibits rat S-adenosyl-L-methionine decarboxylase and mouse polyamine oxidase (*85, 86*).

Activity against multiple enzymes may explain the toxic effects observed during

intramuscular injection of camels with 10 mg/kg berenil (*87*); however no toxic effects were

observed in mice dosed at 16 mg/kg weekly for six weeks (*75*) or with a single

intraperitoneal or intramuscular dose of 3.5, 10, or 20 mg/kg (*87, 88*). Aside from the SSAT

activity, berenil was shown to have other activities, including immunomodulatory(*89*) and

cardioprotective(*90*) activities, and is used in veterinary medicine mostly for parasitic

infections albeit the exact underlying mode of such activity is not fully elucidated but has

been associated with the connection of its aromatic diamidine to the kinetoplast DNA

(kDNA) of the trypanosomes(*91*). Our study provides insights that may lead to the

development of specific bacterial SSAT inhibitors. Although OES2-0017 caused the

detachment of MDCK epithelial cells and hemolytic activity at the MIC and 4X MIC against

S. aureus USA300, respectively, SpeG-inhibitory activity of the compound was observed as

low as 1/32nd the MIC, suggesting a concentration range within which OES2-0017 may

remain efficacious while avoiding potential adverse effects. Future studies will further

assess the potential toxicity of OES2-0017 and its analogs and their interaction with other

polyamine-related enzymes using natural polyamines as substrate.

We also identified OES1-1087 (isoproterenol) as a spermine synergist.

Isoproterenol is a β1- β2-adrenergic agonist used in the treatment of heart block, heart

failure, and cardiac arrest (*92*). Its identification in our chemical screen serves as an

example of potential drug repurposing for the treatment of bacterial infections. Time and

money spent on drug development are drastically reduced by repurposing as

pharmacodynamic, pharmacokinetic, and toxicity profiles of the drugs are already known

(*93*). Our results indicate that isoproterenol also inhibits SpeG, albeit with much lower

potency than OES2-0017, and exhibits growth inhibitory activity. Importantly, it did not show

detectable activity against the human SAT1 and no hemolytic activity or adverse effects on

MDCK epithelial cell adherence or viability.

The cellular concentrations of polyamines in mammalian cells vary across tissues
and physiological conditions; however, the total polyamine content is generally assessed to
be in the mM range (*16*). Polyamines are known to bind to macromolecules, such as DNA,
RNA, phospholipids, and ATP, so levels of free intracellular polyamines are not definitive
(*16*). In polyamine-producing bacteria, the contents of intracellular polyamines have been
reported as high as 30 mM (*16*). Importantly, polyamine concentrations in the host further
increase ~2-fold in response to infection (*14*). As such, bacteria are likely to encounter
polyamines during infection or in their surrounding environment at concentrations similar or
higher than those tested in this study. Further, the detrimental effects of *speG* or alternative
SSAT mutations on bacterial virulence (*14, 24, 25*) suggest that the levels of polyamines
within the host are comparable to those used *in vitro* at which polyamine susceptibility and
synergy with the inhibitors were observed in this study. Therefore, given that OES2-0017
inhibits *speG,* it will likely reduce the ability of bacteria to withstand host polyamines
produced at the site of infection, suggesting it may allow these host compounds to help
clear infection serving as antivirulence agent.
In vitro enzymatic assays suggest that OES2-0017 is relatively equipotent against
both SpeG and SAT1 suggesting potential activity against the human enzyme *in vivo*. SAT1
inhibitors have other potential therapeutic uses including disrupting tumor growth, protection
from kidney injury following ischemia-reperfusion injury, and preventing osteoporosis (*71,*
73, 75, 79). Notably, there were two analogs of OES2-0017, OES2-0085 and OES2-0086,
that showed inhibitory activity against SpeG but not SAT1 and another two, OES2-0077 and
OES2-0052, which were more potent inhibitors of SpeG than SAT1. Although these analogs
have lower inhibitory activity than OES2-0017, they and other analogs from our analysis can
guide future SAR studies to optimize the inhibition of SpeG while limiting activity against
SAT1.

S. aureus was not previously known to have an SSAT except for strains that
acquired SpeG, such as USA300. Notably, the USA300 Δ*speG* and other *S. aureus* strains
that do not harbor *speG* (e.g., COL and NCTC8325) are only 4-fold and 8-fold more
susceptible to spermidine and spermine, respectively, compared to wild-type USA300,
suggesting a potential for another detoxification mechanism. Here, we identified PaiA$_{Sa}$, a
homolog of *B. subtilis* spermine/spermidine acetyltransferase PaiA, in *S. aureus,* providing
its first experimental characterization as an additional SSAT in *S. aureus*. SpeG appears to

be more dominant with a greater shift in polyamine susceptibility observed in a $\Delta speG$

mutant than $paiA_{Sa}$::Tn; the contribution of PaiA$_{Sa}$ to polyamine resistance in whole cells

requires assessment in a $speG$ $paiA_{Sa}$ double mutant in USA300 or a single $paiA_{Sa}$ mutant

in a $speG^-$ *S. aureus* strain. We further showed that OES2-0017 can inhibit PaiA$_{Sa}$ *in vitro.*

This work provides insights into understudied aspects of chemically mediated host-

pathogen interactions. We discovered two novel inhibitors of spermine/spermidine *N*-

acetyltransferase. The discovered inhibitors have potential application as stand-alone

antimicrobials, antivirulence agents, or antibiotic adjuvants. This work provides antimicrobial

compounds with a novel mechanism for the fight against multidrug-resistant priority

pathogens.

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