FRUCTOSE ACTIVATES A STRESS RESPONSE SHARED BY METHYLGLYOXAL AND HYDROGEN PEROXIDE IN *STREPTOCOCCUS MUTANS*

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Abstract

Fructose catabolism by *Streptococcus mutans* is initiated by three PTS transporters yielding either fructose-1-phoshate (F-1-P) or fructose-6-phosphate (F-6-P). Deletion of one such F-1-P-generating PTS, *fruI*, has been shown to reduce the cariogenicity of *S. mutans* in rats fed a high-sucrose diet. Moreover, a recent study linked fructose metabolism in *S. mutans* to a reactive electrophile species (RES) methylglyoxal. Here, we conducted a comparative transcriptomic analysis of exponentially grown *S. mutans* shocked with 50 mM fructose, 50 mM glucose, 5 mM methylglyoxal, or 0.5 mM hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2). The results revealed a striking overlap between the fructose and methylglyoxal transcriptomes, totaling 176 genes, 61 of which were also shared with the H_2O_2 transcriptome. This core of 61 genes encompassed many of the same pathways affected by exposure to low pH or zinc intoxication. Consistent with these findings, fructose negatively impacted metal homeostasis of a mutant deficient in zinc expulsion and the growth of a mutant of the major oxidative stress regulator SpxA1. We further demonstrated the induction of the superoxide dismutase (*sodA*) and the *fruRKI* operon by different levels of fructose. Finally, fructose metabolism lowered culture pH at a faster pace, allowed better survival under acidic and nutrient-depleted conditions, and enhanced the competitiveness of *S. mutans* against *Streptococcus sanguinis*, although a moderated level of F-1-P might further boost some of these benefits. In conclusion, fructose metabolism is integrated into the stress core of *S. mutans* and regulates critical functions required for survival in both the oral cavity and during systemic infections.

Importance. Fructose is a common monosaccharide in the biosphere, yet its

overconsumption has been linked to various health problems in humans including

insulin resistance, obesity, diabetes, and non-alcoholic liver diseases. These effects are

in large part attributed to the unique biochemical characteristics and metabolic

responses associated with the degradation of fructose. Yet, an understanding of the

effects of fructose on the physiology of bacteria and its implications to the human

microbiome is severely lacking. Here we performed a series of analyses on the gene

regulation of a dental pathogen *Streptococcus mutans* by exposing it to fructose and

other important stress agents. Further supported by growth, persistence, and

competition assays, our findings revealed the ability of fructose to activate a set of

cellular functions that may prove critical to the ability of the bacterium to persist and

cause diseases both within and without of the oral cavity.

Introduction

Disruption in microbial homeostasis in human microbiomes, a condition termed

dysbiosis, has been associated with the development of many diseases that range from

GI tract disorders such as inflammatory bowel disease and pseudomembranous colitis

to oral infectious diseases such as dental caries, candidiasis, and periodontitis (1, 2).

Carbohydrate metabolism plays a vital role in oral health by contributing to the

biochemistry and ecology of oral microbiota. It is widely understood that

overconsumption of refined carbohydrates is a defining factor in the development of

dysbiosis through acid production and establishment of an acidogenic and aciduric

biofilm (3-6). Emerging evidence also supports the co-occurrence of dental caries and

periodontal diseases, pointing to potentially shared mechanisms in underlying etiology

(7-9). With the food industry shifting heavily toward the use of fructose and fructose-

releasing sugars in the past several decades and the concurrent pandemic of metabolic

syndrome, the impact of dietary fructose to oral and systemic health demands urgent

attention (10).

Fructose is a ubiquitous nutrient widely found in fruits, yet overconsumption of

fructose is often associated with adverse health outcomes in humans that include

insulin resistance, obesity, liver diseases, systemic inflammation, type-2 diabetes,

cogitative decline, and even cancer (11-15). According to the "fructose survival

hypothesis", fructose triggers a conserved cellular response in mammalian cells that

manifests as mitochondrial oxidative stress and reduced cellular ATP levels,

accompanied by behavioral changes that includes hunger, thirst, foraging, and weight

gain (16). While this response could have been limited and beneficial to animals and our

human ancestors, the negative effects of fructose have been greatly exacerbated by its

widespread use in Western diet.

Streptococci are the most abundant commensal species colonizing oral surfaces, and

most of them rely on carbohydrate fermentation, via the Embden–Meyerhof–Parnas

(EMP) pathway of glycolysis, to produce energy and precursors for various biogenesis

processes (3). Multiple fructose-transporting mechanisms exist in streptococci, each

harboring a fructose: phosphotransferase (PTS) permease that generates either

fructose-1-phosphate (F-1-P) or fructose-6-phosphate (F-6-P), which is further

phosphorylated into F-1,6-bP by their respective phosphofructokinases (17). Studies so

far have indicated that F-1-P metabolism contributes to *in vitro* fitness, biofilm

development, and virulence for pathogenic species such as *Streptococcus pyogenes,*

Streptococcus agalactiae, and *Streptococcus gordonii* (18-22). For the cariogenic

pathobiont *Streptococcus mutans*, the primary fructose pathway is encoded by the

fruRKI operon, encoding a negative regulator FruR, a PTS permease (FruI) that yields

F-1-P, and a F-1-P kinase (FruK) (17). Deletion of *fruI* in *S. mutans* UA159 resulted in

lower levels of F-1-P when exposed to fructose (23) and reduced the ability of the

bacterium to colonize and induce dentin caries in rats fed a high-sucrose diet (24).

Based on genetic studies, expression of *fruRKI,* and its homologue *fruRBA* in related

streptococci, is inducible by F-1-P which acts allosterically on FruR (17, 18, 25). Another

fructose-PTS, encoded by *levDEFG,* exists in some of these oral streptococci, including

S. mutans, Streptococcus sanguinis and *S. gordonii*, which likely generates F-6-P and

requires a four-component system LevQRST for induction in response to extracellular

fructose (26). *S. mutans* harbors yet another fructose-PTS (*fruCD*) that is also predicted

to generate F-1-P, although its contribution to the overall fructose transport appears to

be minor (17). Overall, the F-1-P pathway encoded by *fruRBA/fruRKI* operon is

conserved in most Gram-positive bacteria encompassing *Bacillus, Enterococcus,*

Lactococcus, Lactobacillus, Clostridium, Listeria, and most *Streptococcus* species (27-

29). Moreover, *S. mutans, S. gordonii,* and *S. sanguinis* also harbor another fructose-

related operon, *sppRA.* SppA has been characterized as a hexose-phosphate

phosphohydrolase that specializes in dephosphorylating F-1-P, and F-6-P to a lesser

extent, and SppR is a negative auto-regulator whose activity is allosterically regulated

by F-1-P (23).

A recent study involving fructose centered on the molecular mechanisms required for

oral streptococci to degrade a group of highly reactive electrophile species (RES),

including methylglyoxal and glyoxal (30), that are created by all life as byproducts of

glycolysis and serve as important immune effectors (31, 32). It has been reported that

S. mutans is significantly more resistant to methylglyoxal than several commensal

streptococci including *S. gordonii, S. sanguinis,* and members of the mitis group (30). A

zinc-containing protein GloA2 (SMU.1112c), predicted to be a paralogue to the main

methylglyoxal-degrading enzyme glyoxalase A (LguL or GloA) based on its sequence

and crystal structure, was identified in all oral streptococci examined so far (30). The

gloA2-null mutants of both *S. mutans* and *S. sanguinis* displayed increased chaining

and autolysis upon treatment by fructose which resembled the effect of exposure to

methylglyoxal, including its reversal by treatment with glutathione (GSH) which is known

to scavenge methylglyoxal before degradation by LguL (32). Interestingly, the

expression of *lguL* was inducible by growth on fructose, and the fructose-sensitivity of

gloA2 mutants was largely dependent on the integrity of the F-1-P-generating PTS, FruI

(30). Herein we further examined fructose-dependent gene regulation and physiology in

relation to streptococcal tolerance to important stressors including methylglyoxal and

hydrogen peroxide. Our findings revealed the integration of fructose-mediated response

with general stress response experienced during bacteria-host and inter-microbial

interactions.

130   **Results**

Comparative RNA-seq analyses identified a stress core shared by methylglyoxal,

fructose, and H_2O_2.

RNA-seq was conducted to compare bacterial gene regulation in response to

fructose and methylglyoxal, We have previously performed an RNA-seq analysis on *S.*

mutans cultured to the exponential phase with 0.5% fructose (33), however subsequent

studies suggested that fructose-mediated gene regulation may return to equilibrium

after the initial perturbance. As such, fructose was used at a higher concentration but for

only 30 min. Considering the similarity between glucose and fructose, the same UA159

cultures were treated with 50 mM glucose in the same manner and analyzed as an

additional control. We also obtained and reanalyzed the datasets of a similar RNA-seq

study performed on UA159 cultures that were prepared in a glucose-based medium and

treated with 0.5 mM H_2O_2 for 5 min (34) (see Fig. 1 for volcano plots, Table 1 for genes

discussed in text, and supplemental Tables S1&S2).

Methylglyoxal. Treatment of UA159 with 5 mM of methylglyoxal differentially affected

the expression of a total of 474 genes when compared to the mock-treated control

group, with 271 being up-regulated and 203 being down-regulated (Fig. 2).

Methylglyoxal is known to react with the reduced form of glutathione (GSH), which is

interconnected with other reductive potentials such as NADPH and ascorbate (35).

Treatment with methylglyoxal resulted primarily in several effects similar to oxidative

stress response (34): increased expression of genes involved in thiol homeostasis

including thioredoxins *trxAB*, GSH synthetase *gshAB* (36), glutathione reductase *gor*,

and glutathione S-transferase *gst*; increased expression of the iron-sulfur (Fe-S) cluster

biosynthesis system *sufCDSUB* (37), the ascorbate metabolic cluster (SMU.271 to

SMU.275) (38), the reactive oxygen species (ROS) scavenging genes *sodA*, *ahpCF*,

and *tpx*, and genes whose products are involved in metal homeostasis: copper exporter

operon *copYAZ*, and iron-sequestering gene *dpr*. Also upregulated were several

transcription regulators known to be involved in stress management: *relS*, *perR*,

phoR/ycbL, *scnKR*, *rcrRPQ*, SMU.1097c, *vicKX*, *comR*, *comDE*, and *lexA*. Likely as the

need to restore the GSH/GSSG balance, treatment of methylglyoxal upregulated

several putative aldo/keto reductases: SMU.382c and SMU.383c, SMU.677 to

SMU.681, SMU.1040c, and SMU.1602 residing immediately upstream of *lguL* which

encodes the major methylglyoxal-degrading enzyme LguL/GloA (both up by 3~4-fold). It

is worth noting that most of these aldo/keto reductases, other than *lguL*, are absent in

related commensal streptococci. Also related to improved reducing capacity was

upregulation of several putative ribonucleotide reductases (39, 40): SMU.667 to

SMU.669c, SMU.991, and SMU.2070 to SMU.2074.

Interestingly, methylglyoxal treatment reduced the expression of iron/manganese

transporter *sloAB* (not *sloC*) and cognate *sloR* regulator. It also reduced the expression

of ferrous ion transporter genes *feoAB*. These changes were consistent with the

purported ability of GSH to buffer intracellular metal ions (41), as a release of these ions

would likely increase the expression of metal exporters (*copA*) but reduce that of metal

importers (*sloABC* and *feoAB*). Another likely effect of methylglyoxal exposure is its

reaction with intracellular amino acids such as arginine and lysine. For this, we

observed increased expression of amino acid biosynthesis/transport operons, *argCJBD*

for arginine and *livFGMHK* for branched-chain amino acids. As a general response to

stressful stimuli, we observed elevated expression of genes required for DNA repair

(*exoA*, *end3*, *mutY*, and *uvrA*) and protein or peptide degradation (*clpC, clpE, pepO,*

and *pepP*). Conversely, there were also several stress management genes that showed

reduced expression: *mreCD*, *irvR*, *hrcA, grpE,* and *dnaK*. Most ribosomal proteins and

the translation initiation factor InfC also had lower mRNA levels, indicative of reduced

protein synthesis activity. There was likely a shift toward a more efficient, mixed-acid

fermentation as we saw greater expression by acetoin metabolic operon (*adhABCD-*

lplA), the related alpha-acetolactate metabolic genes *alsS* and *aldB*, NADH oxidase

(*nox*), and a pyruvate-formate lyase activating enzyme *pflA*. At the same time, the

genes encoding the two major enzymes of the PTS, *ptsH* and *ptsI*, along with the

transport and metabolic pathways for mannitol (EII^{Mtl}, SMU.1184c and SMU.1185),

cellobiose (EII^{Cel}, SMU.1596 to SMU.1600), sucrose (EII^{Scr}, SMU.1841 to SMU.1844),

and glucose (EII^{Man}, SMU.1877 to SMU.1879) all showed significantly reduced

expression.

Comparative analysis of methylglyoxal regulon with H_2O_2-mediated stress response.

During the analysis of the methylglyoxal-induced transcriptomic shift, it was immediately

apparent that many of these genes were also identified by a previous study on peroxide

stress response of *S. mutans* UA159 (34). A closer inspection of the peroxide stress

transcriptome identified a total of 115 genes (Supplemental Table S3) as being shared

by methylglyoxal and H_2O_2, indicative of the common bacterial mechanisms needed to

deal with these two stressors. These functions included ROS scavenging, thiol and

metal homeostasis, DNA repair and protein processing, and energy metabolism.

Important distinctions were also noted which encompassed 359 methylglyoxal-specific

genes that were missing in H_2O_2 regulon, and conversely 79 H_2O_2-responsive genes

absent in the methylglyoxal regulon (Supplemental Table S3). Briefly, absent in H_2O_2-

induced response included the reduced expression of the PTS genes, namely *ptsH,*

ptsI, and EII^{Mtl}, EII^{Cel}, EII^{Scr}, and EII^{Man} operons. Also absent were genes for ribosomal

proteins, *lrgAB-lytST*, *argCJBD* and agmatine deiminase operon (42)*,* several putative

aldo/keto reductase clusters, potassium transporters *trkAB*, the *nrd* operon SMU.2070

to SMU.2074, *mreCD*, *hrcA-grpE-dnaK*, and transcription regulators including *mleR,*

relS, phoR/ycbL, nagR, irvR, vicKX, comX, and *ahrC*. Missing from the methylglyoxal

regulon were some of the H_2O_2-induced genes, including mutacin genes (*nlmABCD* and

nlmTE), *sloC, liaSR, levQRST, relA,* and the zinc import operon *adcBCR.* Interestingly,

while methylglyoxal induced expression of most of the competence regulators,

comCDE, comR, and *rcrR* (43)*,* and the late-competence operon *comYA-YI* (44), H_2O_2

reduced expression of two important *nlm* operons, one of which (*nlmABCD*) requires an

active *comDE* circuit for expression (45).

Significant overlap between fructose, methylglyoxal, and H₂O₂-mediated responses.

Treatment of UA159 with 50 mM fructose differentially affected the expression of a total

of 449 genes, with 250 being up-regulated and 199 being down-regulated (Fig. 2 and

Table S2). As a control, similar treatment with glucose also upregulated 128 genes and

down-regulated 216 genes (Table S2). Significantly, there was a larger overlap between

the genes affected by fructose and methylglyoxal, totaling 176 genes, compared to the

116-gene overlap between glucose and methylglyoxal. Among the 176 genes shared by

methylglyoxal and fructose, 61 overlapped the H_2O_2 regulon; among the 116 genes

shared by methylglyoxal and glucose, only 24 overlapped with the H_2O_2 regulon

(Supplemental Table S4). Therefore, compared to glucose, significantly more genes

were shared by treatment of fructose with that of methylglyoxal and H_2O_2. Comparative

analysis identified a set of 44 genes that were similarly affected by fructose,

methylglyoxal, and H_2O_2, excluding 17 genes impacted by all four treatments.

Altogether, these 61 genes (Supplemental Table S4 tab "All three") encoded for some of

the aforementioned functions such as thiol and metal homeostasis (*trxAB, gst, gor,*

sloA, dpr, and *sufCDSUB,*), enzymes for ROS scavenging (*sodA, ahpCF,* and *tpx*) and

restoration of redox balance (*nox*, ascorbate operon, *gapN*, and multiple *nrd* genes),

glucan-binding protein *gbpC*, proteins implicated in general stress management

including *clpE, clpL*, *uvrA, mutY,* SMU.503c (46), *exoA, lexA* (47), *pepP,* and *pepO* (48,

49), and transcription regulators such as *scnKR, perR,* and *msmR.* Notably, many

genes shared by glucose and fructose, e.g., *sloA, sodA, gor, tpx, gst, trxAB*, and *lexA,*

showed significantly greater change due to the treatment by fructose than by glucose.

Also included in this group of genes was the CRISPR1-Cas system (SMU.1402c to

SMU.1406c) that was repressed by all four treatments, although the effect of H_2O_2 was

slightly below the 2-fold threshold. Conversely affected was the 10-gene CRISPR2-Cas

cluster (SMU.1753c to SMU.1764c) that produced increased levels of transcripts under

all four conditions, despite that the induction of several genes by methylglyoxal or

glucose was below the threshold. An earlier study characterizing these two systems in

S. mutans suggested that CRISPR-Cas overall was required for tolerance towards

membrane, thermal, pH, and oxidative stressors (50). The differential regulation of

these two systems in response to carbohydrates, methylglyoxal, and H_2O_2 warrants

further exploration. It is also worth noting that the relative impact of fructose to both

clusters was the highest among all four treatments.

Similarity between responses to fructose and glucose. It was not surprising to find a

substantial overlap between fructose- and glucose-responsive genes (total 165 genes,

80 genes when excluding methylglyoxal and H_2O_2; Supplemental Table S5), although

many (near 50%) encoded hypothetical proteins. Interestingly, the operon required for

malolactic fermentation (SMU.137-SMU.141) were most highly induced by either

treatment, with the mRNA levels increasing by 12~20-fold. Considering the inducibility

of this system by acidic pH (51, 52), a rapid drop in pH due to glycolytic activities likely

triggered this response. The agmatine deiminase (*aguA*) that has been shown to

contribute to acid tolerance through production of ammonia (42) was similarly

upregulated. Also induced by both carbohydrates were the majority of the genes/ORFs

included in the genomic island TnSmu1 (53), from SMU.196c to SMU.215c, showing an

increase in expression by 2~4-fold. Other notably upregulated genes included the

SMU.1602/*lguL* cluster, the zinc/cadmium-exporter *zccE* (54), the glucosyltransferase

gtfD, the fructosyltransferase *ftf*, a putative F-1-P kinase *pfk* (17), the lactose operon

(55), and the HPr kinase/phosphatase *hprK*. The fact that SMU.1602/*lguL* cluster was

induced by methylglyoxal, fructose, and glucose suggested that endogenous production

of methylglyoxal or related RES likely increased because of rapid influx of

carbohydrates. Like before, *zccE* expression was >2-fold higher when treated with

fructose compared to treatment by glucose. One cluster, SMU.1903c to SMU.1913c,

along with the orphan response regulator *gcrR* (56), showed reduced expression under

both treatments.

Genes affected only by fructose. A total of 168 genes were differentially affected by

fructose alone (Supplemental Table S5 tab "Fru only"). In addition to what have been

discussed thus far, treatment with 50 mM fructose altered the expression of several

pathways and additional genes required for carbohydrate metabolism. Namely, fructose

upregulated the operons of *sppRA*, *fruRKI*, *levDEFG*, and the sorbitol PTS, however

downregulated the nigerose PTS, the maltose PTS (*malT* or *ptsG*), *pfl,* the *msm* cluster

(57), *galK*, *gtfC,* the glycogen operon (*glg*) (58), an α-glucan metabolic cluster

(SMU.1564 to SMU.1571) (59), and importantly the fructose-bisphosphate aldolase

(*fbaA*, down 2-fold) which is responsible for cleaving F-1,6-bP into dihydroxyacetone

phosphate (DHAP) and glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate (G3P). Expression of three

additional clusters was notably affected by fructose alone. First, SMU.1057 to

SMU.1063, encoding SatCDE, Ffh, YlxM, and two ABC transporters, were upregulated

by 2- to 3-fold. This cluster has been implicated in protein translocation and acid

tolerance in *S. mutans* (60). Second, operon (SMU.1527 to SMU.1534) which encodes

for the F_1F_0-ATPase complex were downregulated by 2- to 3-fold. It was reported that

the F_1F_0-ATPase, whose main function in *S. mutans* is expelling excess proton to the

environment, was upregulated in response to a shift from steady state at pH 7 to pH 5

as part of the acid tolerance response (ATR) (61-63). Despite the likelihood of an acidic

stress under the treatment of both glucose and fructose, there was no significant impact

by glucose to this operon, and the treatment of fructose resulted in a lower rather than

higher expression of all 8 genes encoding the F_1F_0-ATPase. Last, SMU.1734 to

SMU.1745c, encoding for the pathway for fatty acid biosynthesis and similarly involved

in ATR, showed 2- to 3-fold reduction in expression when treated with 50 mM fructose.

While this effect was largely consistent with previous findings made in *S. mutans* under

a glucose shock at 200 mM (63), here again 50 mM glucose failed to induce a similar

response. Considering the importance of both pathways in maintaining membrane

integrity and overall fitness, these findings could provide explanations to previously

reported fructose-specific phenotypes such as autolysis and increased biofilm

development (23, 30).

Fructose impacts metal homeostasis and Spx-dependent oxidative stress

response.

A likely effect of methylglyoxal on bacterial physiology was the reduction of

intracellular GSH/GSSG ratio and potential impact on metal homeostasis. Previously it

was demonstrated that a zinc/cadmium exporter ZccE was responsible for the high zinc

tolerance of *S. mutans*, and its expression required a cognate regulator ZccR (54).

Deletion of either *zccE* or *zccR* resulted in a peroxide sensitivity under high-zinc

conditions due to a disturbed zinc/manganese ratio which could be alleviated by

manganese supplementation. When we tested the growth phenotype of a *zccR* null

mutant in TV medium (64), which contains ~19 μM of zinc according to ICP-OES

analysis (54), the mutant nonetheless grew normally when supported by glucose as the

sole carbohydrate source (Fig. 3A). When fructose was substituted for glucose

however, $\Delta zccR$ showed a significant reduction compared to the WT UA159 in both

growth rate and the final optical density (Fig. 3B). Like before, addition of 25 μM MnSO$_4$

to the TV-fructose medium significantly alleviated the growth deficiency of $\Delta zccR$.

Importantly, after we introduced a *fruI* deletion into the *zccR* background, the double

mutant grew at levels comparable to the WT UA159 on either glucose or fructose,

without manganese supplementation (Fig. 3B). As *fruI* deletion was previously shown to

reduce intracellular F-1-P levels (23), these findings strongly supported the theory that

excess F-1-P levels negatively impacted metal homeostasis in *S. mutans*.

Since fructose-mediated transcriptome included a cohort of oxidative stress genes

primarily regulated by SpxA1 (65), we repeated this growth assay by including a

deletion mutant of *spxA1*. To our surprise, $\Delta spxA1$ grew at a faster rate in TV-fructose

than in TV-glucose (Fig. 4A). Considering the relatively high zinc content in TV medium,

we next switched to a chemically defined FMC medium that contained very little zinc but

sufficient manganese (around 110 μM). In FMC medium, $\Delta spxA1$ grew relatively well on

glucose but could not grow on fructose (Fig. 4B). When we introduced the same *fruI*

deletion into the $\Delta spxA1$ background, the growth deficiency on fructose was greatly

alleviated (Fig. 4C). At the same time, only modest benefit was observed on fructose

when a *levD* deletion was introduced into Δ*spxA1.* Considered with the transcriptomic

data, the medium-specific fructose sensitivity of Δ*spxA1* added further support to the

notion that F-1-P affects oxidative stress response and metal homeostasis by

interacting with Spx-mediated regulation.

To further test this hypothesis, a P*sodA::gfp* promoter-reporter fusion was established

in the WT UA159 background to assess the response of Spx-mediated regulation to the

presence of fructose; the superoxide dismutase (*sodA*) requires Spx proteins for optimal

expression (34). As shown in Fig. 5, the *sodA* promoter was activated by the presence

of fructose in a dose-dependent manner, from levels as low as 0.5 mM, yet it only

produced a modest and slightly delayed response to the presence of 0.5 mM of H_2O_2.

While 0.5 mM H_2O_2 significantly impeded the growth of *S. mutans* [Fig. S1 and (66)], as

much as 10 mM fructose showed little to now effect. To ascertain the nature of fructose-

derived signal in this effect, *fruI* and *levD* deletions were each introduced into UA159

containing the P*sodA::gfp* fusion. Consistent with above observations, deletion of *fruI*

but not *levD* resulted in the loss of fructose-dependent activation of the *sodA* promoter

activity. As expected, deletion of *spxA1* also abolished the expression of *sodA* promoter

(34). These results not only confirmed the role of F-1-P in influencing Spx regulation,

but given the magnitude of impact, suggested that fructose may serve as a primary

signal for bacterial response to environmental changes.

F-1-P is the likely allosteric inducer for activating the *fruRKI* operon. To assess the

levels of fructose needed to induce the expression, we utilized a strain containing a

promoter-reporter fusion P*fruR::cat* (20). Bacteria were cultured in glucose-based FMC

medium and then exposed to different amounts of fructose for 30 min. CAT activities

from UA159/P*fruR::cat* suggested that at levels as low as 20 μM, fructose can

significantly induce the expression of the *fruRKI* operon (Table S6).

F-1-P contributes to fitness during starvation, acidic pH, and competition with

peroxigenic streptococci.

Our previous studies have suggested that fructose, when used in excess under

laboratory conditions, may induce autolysis and cell death. Paradoxically, considering

the activation of much of the stress response core by fructose, we could anticipate

improved persistence under stressful conditions. To test this hypothesis, we subjected

S. mutans to a series of physiological tests by exposing it to fructose. First, strain

UA159 was cultivated in FMC with 20 mM glucose or fructose, and their CFU was

monitored while these cultures were continuously incubated without medium

refreshment for 11 days. While fructose produced lower CFU than glucose at day 1 of

the incubation as reported previously (23), it maintained the viable CFU of UA159 by at

least 1 log higher than on glucose throughout the rest of the experiment (**Fig. 6A**).

When 1 mM fructose was used together with 19 mM glucose, the fructose-associated

effects were reduced and limited to the first two days of the incubation.

As a further test of acid tolerance under the fructose condition, we cultured UA159 for

20 h in a TV medium (FMC contains 10 mM phosphate buffer thus not ideal) supported

with different amounts of glucose or fructose and measured the resting pH of these

cultures. The results (Table 2) showed comparable growth yield but significantly lower

resting pH in TV-fructose cultures than in TV-glucose cultures. For comparison, we

conducted the same experiment on a health-associated commensal, *S. sanguinis* (SSA)

strain SK36. To our surprise, SK36 failed to produce substantial growth on fructose,

especially for higher concentrations (100 or 200 mM). Similar findings were made when

this experiment was repeated using an additional *S. sanguinis* isolate BCC23 (67).

Further tests on several low-passage, clinical isolates of additional commensal

streptococci (68) showed similar sensitivity in most but not all species tested (Table 2).

We then performed a pH drop assay to further test the notion that fructose could lower

the culture pH better than glucose. When a suspension of UA159 cells from an

exponential phase, BHI culture was fed 50 mM of fructose without buffering, it lowered

the environmental pH at a notably faster rate, which ended at a slightly lower point, than

it did on 50 mM glucose (Fig. 6B). It appeared that *S. mutans* catabolized fructose more

rapidly than glucose and was more acid-tolerant under our test conditions, while *S.*

sanguinis may be less capable of tolerating high levels of fructose.

Next, *S. mutans* was subjected to a competition assay in a mixed-species planktonic

culture with the peroxigenic commensal *S. sanguinis*. Cultures from the exponential

phase were mixed at approximately 1:1 ratio between two species and diluted into the

FMC medium supplemented with 20 mM of glucose or fructose. After an overnight of

incubation, CFUs for each species were enumerated by plating on selective agar plates

(Fig. S2 includes CFU from mixed-species cultures and CFU from single-species

controls). The resultant competitive indices (Fig. 7) indicated a greater competitiveness

for *S. mutans* UA159 in the presence of fructose than glucose, especially when used at

higher concentrations. Interestingly, deletion of *fruI* in UA159 further enhanced the

competitiveness of *S. mutans* against *S. sanguinis* SK36 when supported with fructose.

Since Δ*fruI* has a defect in fructose transport and grows more slowly than the WT on

fructose (17), these results suggested that a certain optimal level of F-1-P could benefit

S. mutans when competing against commensal species capable of producing inhibitory

levels of H_2O_2.

Discussion

It is frequently observed in stress biology that different stressors result in overlapping

responses in bacteria (69). As an oral bacterium, *S. mutans* is frequently subjected to

environmental insults that include acidic pH, oxygen and H_2O_2, hyperosmolarity, thermal

fluctuation, metal ions, and nutrient starvation (70). In this study, we identified

methylglyoxal and fructose as two potential stress signals capable of inducing

streptococcal stress responses (Fig. 8). A stress core comprised of 61 genes were

shared by the regulons of fructose, methylglyoxal, and H_2O_2. This commonality in gene

regulation is in large part due to the overlapping effects exerted by these treatments.

For example, sugar shock likely leads to acidic stress, hyperosmolarity, and increased

RES production. Treatments by both RES and ROS are expected to perturb intracellular

redox pools that could in turn influence bacterial metal and thiol homeostasis. Exposure

to extreme pH, RES, and ROS can all lead to denaturation of amino acids, proteins,

lipids, and nucleic acids. Each of these outcomes likely activates a central regulatory

system to restore essential nutrients or repair damage. Not surprisingly, 40 out of the 61

core stress genes (Table S4) have been previously identified in *S. mutans* by an acid

adaptation study in response to either a glucose shock (200 mM) or a shift from neutral

to acidic pH (63). Our results suggested a substantially greater ability for *S. mutans* to

lower environmental pH when fructose compared to glucose was used as the

supporting carbohydrate, especially at higher concentrations. This ability to tolerate

fructose appears to be limited or absent in many commensal oral streptococci we have

tested so far. Conversely, only 17 out of the 61 stress-related genes were affected by

our treatment of 50 mM glucose, likely due to the difference in sugar content and culture

conditions between these two studies (continuous culturing was used as opposed to

batch cultures herein). Furthermore, several pathways triggered by hyperosmolarity in

previously studies (71-73), including genes *lguL, sodA, nox*, the *opcA* cluster

(SMU.2116 to SMU.2119), the *opu/ffh/sat* cluster, and potassium uptake mechanism

trkAB, were also identified as part of the fructose/methylglyoxal/H_2O_2 response core.

Theories established in mostly Gram-negative bacteria suggest that methylglyoxal

bypass, a function that converts DHAP into pyruvate via the activities of a methylglyoxal

synthase (*mgsA*), two glyoxalases (*gloAB*), and a D-lactate dehydrogenase (D-*ldh*),

serves an important function in modulating glycolysis under sugar excess and

phosphate limitation (32). Genes *mgsA* and D-*ldh* are absent in most lactic acid bacteria

(LAB) genomes (30). However, methylglyoxal and related RES can be produced from

DHAP spontaneously or from a variety of other mechanisms (74). The conservation of

glyoxalases in streptococci (75) and the transcriptomic overlap among fructose,

glucose, and methylglyoxal support the notion that methylglyoxal metabolism is an

integral part of bacterial physiology, and the sources of methylglyoxal could be both

endogenous and exogenous. This conclusion is consistent with an emerging theory in

bacterial pathophysiology termed the aldehyde hypothesis (76), where a group of

reactive metabolic intermediates (RES) from the host and pathogens may serve as

potential antimicrobial effectors. This theory has supports from studies on LAB

pathogens that engage host immunity, including *S. pyogenes* and *S. agalactiae*, which

required glyoxalases for fitness and virulence (31, 75). For oral streptococci, the effects

of fructose on methylglyoxal metabolism could involve several mechanisms. First,

multiple RES compounds can be generated during fructose metabolism, given the

presence of three phosphorylation products, F-1-P, F-6-P, and F-1,6-bP. Glucose

metabolism generates only F-6-P and F-1,6-bP. DHAP is a direct product of cleavage of

F-1,6-bP; cleavage of F-1-P by an aldolase produces glyceraldehyde (GA) and DHAP;

and similarly, cleavage of F-6-P yields G3P and dihydroxyacetone (DHA). These

metabolites are either themselves RES, e.g., GA, or in the case of DHAP and DHA, can

generate methylglyoxal due to a reaction that is spontaneous or enzymatic in nature

(MgsA). Second, fructose degradation may be regulated differently than glucose

degradation, which could affect the accumulation or degradation of metabolic

intermediates that are precursors of RES. Rapid phosphorylation of fructose by

fructokinase and the resultant drawdown of ATP is a major factor in fructose-dependent

metabolic impact in mammalian cells (16). Although much remains uncharacterized

regarding fructose catabolism in bacteria, here we showed a notably faster rate of

glycolysis by *S. mutans* on fructose than glucose. A major difference between

mammalian cells and bacteria is the fact carbohydrates are phosphorylated by PTS at

the expense of PEP instead of ATP. Here fructose-specific transcriptome included

upregulation of two likely F-1-P kinases (*pfk* and *fruK*) and downregulation of the F-1,6-

bP aldolase *fbaA*. Significance of these changes in gene regulation must be interpreted

comprehensively with biochemical evidence. Lastly, we have identified a LguL paralog,

GloA2, whose function remains uncharacterized but appears to be specific to F-1-P and

involves phenotypes resembling methylglyoxal exposure (30). Homologues of *gloA2* are

widely conserved in both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria. Consistent with

these reasonings is the finding during our transcriptomic analysis that many common

genes shared by fructose and glucose produced a greater amplitude of change under

fructose treatment. We infer from these results that fructose exerted a strong impact to

bacterial physiology due to its unique metabolic processes, in part by influencing

methylglyoxal accumulation and degradation.

In addition to influencing methylglyoxal metabolism, F-1-P homeostasis appears to be

an essential physiological signal in most streptococci. The *fruRKI/fruRBA* operon

required for catabolizing fructose via the F-1-P pathway is highly conserved in most

Gram-positive bacteria. Several oral streptococci also harbor the *sppRA* operon for

moderating the F-1-P levels (23). We previously showed that a *fruK* deficient strain

accumulated significant levels of F-1-P even at the absence of fructose and was highly

defective in growth on fructose, suggesting an endogenous source of F-1-P and the

need to keep its level within an optimal range (23). Notably, the *sppRA* promoter

required higher levels of fructose (25 to 50 mM) for induction (23), suggesting that

sppRA are expressed only when F-1-P is above a certain threshold to avoid futile

cycling between F-1-P and fructose. We have determined herein that 0.5 mM fructose is

capable of activating Spx-mediated regulation and as little as 20 μM of fructose

efficiently induced the expression of the *fruRKI* operon. We also observed in *S.*

sanguinis the induction of *fruRBA* expression by similar levels of fructose or 25% human

sera (Table S6). It is worth noting that for diabetic or hyperglycemic individuals, blood

fructose levels are often significantly elevated as a function of the polyol pathway (16),

capable of activating the *fruRKI/fruRBA* pathway (77). These findings allow us to posit

that fructose regulates streptococcal function at both high (mM) and low (μM) levels,

with the former contributing to fitness during the feast-and-famine cycle of the oral cavity

and the latter in human circulatory system. While we only showed that fructose can

benefit *S. mutans* at mM concentrations, we have good reasons to speculate that a

similar benefit applies under μM levels of fructose. Several studies have suggested that

fruRKI/fruRBA genes are required for streptococcal virulence during extraoral infections

(19, 22, 78), although the mechanisms remain uncharacterized. We further posit that

fructose may trigger a surveillance mechanism against host-derived ROS and RES

molecules, which primes bacterial stress response and additional fructose-specific

pathways (Fig 8). Aside from FruR, SppR, LevQRST, and LacR that were previously

shown to be responsive to fructose, herein we identified several transcription regulators

whose expression appeared uniquely responsive to fructose treatment, including *spxA2,*

glnR, hdrR, and a two-component system *spaRK*. Targeting these regulators and F-1-P-

specific metabolism, i.e., GloA2, could help us unravel the molecular mechanisms

required for cells to optimize stress management in response to fructose. With many

oral streptococci existing as dual-niche organisms and the widespread use of fructose in

food, this research has implications in both oral microbial homeostasis and systemic

health.

Lastly, it is worth reiterating that a fructose-PTS mutant (*fruI*) of *S. mutans* displayed

reduced colonization and cariogenicity in an earlier rat study under high-sucrose

condition (24). This study revealed an important connection between fructose and

sucrose in *S. mutans* physiology, as sucrose metabolism releases significant quantities

of fructose both intracellularly and extracellularly, the latter of which can be

reinternalized by the PTS (33, 79, 80). It is probable that fructose liberated from sucrose

activated bacterial stress response which enhanced the ability of *S. mutans* to colonize

and induce caries in rats fed with sucrose. Our findings in fructose-mediated physiology

and its potential contribution to sucrose cariogenicity illustrate that fructose has an

underappreciated role in caries development and biofilm dysbiosis that warrants in-

depth investigation.

Concluding remarks. By establishing a stress regulon shared by fructose,

methylglyoxal, and H_2O_2, our study revealed a novel function of fructose in bacterial

physiology as both a stressor and potentially an important environmental signal for oral

streptococci. Gene regulations associated with an F-1-P homeostasis contributed to

bacterial fitness under stressful conditions, especially for the cariogenic pathobiont. The

overlapping nature of multiple stress responses also suggests that fructose metabolism

may affect the overall resilience against other stressors that include acidic pH, ROS,

RES, toxic metals, starvation, and hyperosmolarity; conditions to be expected in both

oral cavity and the blood stream. Considering the widespread conservation of some of

these genetic pathways, most of the fructose-mediated effects are likely applicable to

other lactic acid bacteria which have high relevance in both oral and systemic health.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial strains and culture conditions. Brain heart infusion (BHI) medium (Difco

Laboratories, Detroit, MI) was used to maintain *S. mutans* and other streptococcal

strains (Table 3). Liquid BHI was used to prepare for starter cultures for most of the

experiments. Antibiotics were used, only when necessary, at the following

concentrations: kanamycin (Km) 1 mg/mL, erythromycin (Em) 10 µg/mL, and

spectinomycin (Sp) 1 mg/mL. For cultures requiring specific carbohydrates, a semi-

defined Tryptone-Vitamin (TV) medium (64) or a synthetic medium FMC (81) was used,

each supplemented with specified carbohydrates. Other than growth curves, all cultures

were incubated without agitation at 37˚C in an aerobic atmosphere supplemented with

5% of CO_2.

For growth curves, bacterial cultures were diluted 100-fold into a TV or FMC medium

containing specified carbohydrates, overlaid with 70 µL mineral oil, and maintained at

37˚C in a Bioscreen C lab system (Labsystems Oy, Helsinki, Finland) that recorded the

optical density of the cultures at 600 nm (OD_{600}) every hour. A brief lateral shaking was

included before each reading to disperse aggregates. To monitor the expression levels

of the *sodA* promoter over time using a P*sodA::gfp* reporter fusion, bacterial cultures

from the exponential phase were similarly diluted into an FMC medium containing

specified amounts of carbohydrates and H_2O_2 and overlaid with mineral oil. For 20 h,

the OD_{600} and the relative fluorescence units (RFU) of the cultures were recorded hourly

using a Synergy 2 Multi-Mode reader (BioTek, Winooski, VT) and the RFU results were

normalized against the OD_{600} of the culture (82).

Construction of genetic mutants. Genetic mutants of *S. mutans* were constructed

through allelic exchange strategy and natural transformation facilitated by the use of

competence-stimulating peptide (30). Recombinant DNA fragments used in this study

were generated by PCR amplification and ligated together with antibiotic cassettes via

Gibson Assembly (23). Primers used in DNA amplification and RT-qPCR are listed in

Table S7. All mutants used in this study have been validated by PCR followed by

Sanger sequencing. Promoter: reporter fusions were constructed using the plasmid

pMC340B by inserting a promoter of interest in front of a promoterless *gfp* (green

fluorescent protein) or *cat* (chloramphenicol acetyltransferase) gene, followed by

integration at a distal site (between *mtlA* and *phnA*) of the chromosome unrelated to

functions studied here (20).

RNA deep sequencing and transcriptomic analysis. To compare bacterial gene

regulation in response to fructose metabolism and exposure to methylglyoxal, *S.*

mutans strain UA159 was cultivated to early exponential phase (OD_{600} = 0.4) in a

chemically defined medium FMC (81) supplemented with 20 mM glucose. Bacteria were

harvested by centrifugation (3,800× *g*, room temperature, 10 min), resuspended in fresh

FMC containing 50 mM fructose, 50 mM glucose, or 5 mM methylglyoxal. An equal

portion of the culture was kept in the original FMC-glucose medium as control. All

samples were returned to incubation for 30 min before being harvested for RNA

extraction.

RNA extraction and deep sequencing were carried out by following a previously

published protocol detailed elsewhere (83). Briefly, cells were disrupted using a

beadbeater in the presence of equal volume of acidic phenol:chloroform. After

centrifugation, the cell lysate was processed using the RNeasy minikit (Qiagen,

Germantown, MD) and an RNase-free DNase I solution (Qiagen) for extraction of total

RNA. The RNA samples were shipped on dry ice to SeqCenter (Pittsburgh, PA) for

quality check, cDNA preparation, and deep sequencing, yielding up to 12 million paired

end reads (2 × 51 bp) per sample. The analysis of the RNA-seq data was performed in

software R version 3.5.2 Eggshell Igloo as described previously (83). The compositional

matrix of the expression data was normalized with the voom (84) function from the R

package limma (85). The statistical analysis of the expression data was conducted

using the package edgeR (version 3.24.3). A false-discovery rate (FDR) of 0.05 and a

fold-of-change of 2.0 were used as the cutoff values for identification of genes with

differential expression. Findings from this analysis were validated by reverse

transcriptase quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) (30) carried out on a few randomly selected

genes (data not shown). The sequencing data from this study have been deposited at

NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) under the accession numbers GSE279080.

For comparative analysis under different treatments, we obtained the RNA-seq

datasets (GEO, GSE98526) of an analysis previously performed on strain UA159 that

was treated with 0.5 mM H_2O_2 for 5 min (34). Comparison between transcriptomes was

carried out in R statistical language using the package edgeR as done previously (86).

Long-term persistence assay. For comparison of the ability to persist under low-pH

and starvation conditions, the cultures of *S. mutans* were each diluted 1000-fold into an

FMC medium supplemented with 20 mM glucose, 20 mM fructose, or 19 mM glucose

and 1 mM fructose combined. The cultures were incubated at 37°C in an ambient

atmosphere supplemented with 5% CO_2 for a duration of 11 days. After two days of

incubation, a 30-second sonication at 100% power (FB120 water bath sonicator, Fisher

Scientific) was applied to all cultures to disperse bacterial chains and aggregates, then

a 100-μL aliquot of each culture was removed. The cultures were returned to incubation

without any other treatments, and the 100-μL aliquots were each diluted decimally in

sterile PBS and plated on BHI agar. After 2 days of incubation, the CFU on each plate

were enumerated. Plating was repeated at specified time points thereafter till end of the

experiment.

Mixed-species competition in planktonic cultures. For interspecies competition in

liquid cultures, differentially marked strains of *S. mutans* (UA159-Km and Δ*fruI::Km*) (87)

and *S. sanguinis* (MMZ1945, Em resistant) (88) were each cultured in BHI to the

exponential phase (OD_{600} = 0.5). An inoculum of approximately 10^6 CFU/ml of *S.*

mutans together with similar numbers of *S. sanguinis* were added to FMC

supplemented with 20 mM glucose or fructose, then cultured for 20 h in a 5%-CO_2

environment at 37°C. At both the start and the end of the incubation, cultures were

sonicated for 15 sec, decimally diluted and plated on respective antibiotic plates to

enumerate CFU of both species. The competitive index was calculated by following this

formula: [SMU(t_{end})/SSA(t_{end})] / [SMU(t_{start})/SSA(t_{start})], with values >1 indicating SMU (*S.*

mutans) being more competitive than SSA (*S. sanguinis*), and vice versa.

pH drop and chloramphenicol acetyltransferase (CAT) assay. Glycolytic profiling via

pH drop (89) and CAT assay (90) were conducted according to previously published

protocols detailed elsewhere.

Statistics. Statistical analysis of data was carried out using the software of Prism

(GraphPad of Dotmatics, San Diego, CA)

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Figure Legends

Fig. 1 Volcano plots illustrating transcriptomes of four treatments. *S. mutans*

UA159 was grown to the exponential phase in a synthetic FMC medium containing 20

mM glucose. The samples were treated for 30 min with 50 mM fructose, 50 mM

glucose, or 5 mM MG before harvesting for mRNA sequencing. Differential expression

analyses were performed against untreated cells using *edgR*, with cutoffs for

foldchange >2 and FDR <0.05. Upregulated genes are shown in red, and

downregulated ones in blue. Results of treatment by H_2O_2 (0.5 mM, 5 min) were from an

independent study (34).

Fig. 2 Transcriptomic overlaps among treatments of MG, fructose and H_2O_2.

Fig. 3 Fructose impacts metal homeostasis in Δ*zccR* deficient in zinc expulsion.

S. mutans strains UA159 and its mutant derivatives were diluted from exponential

phase cultures into TV supplemented with 20 mM glucose (A) or fructose (B). Mn^{2+} was

added at 25 μM ($MnSO_4$). Growth was monitored using a Synergy 2 plate reader

maintained at 37°C. Results are average of three biological replicates, each tested in

technical duplicates. Error bars denote standard deviations.

Fig. 4 Fructose impacts growth of *spxA1* in a medium-specific manner. *S. mutans*

strains UA159 and various mutant derivatives were each diluted from exponential phase

cultures into TV (A) or FMC (B, C) supplemented with 20 mM glucose (Glc) or fructose

(Fru). Growth was monitored using a Synergy 2 plate reader maintained at 37°C.

Results are average of three biological replicates, each tested in technical duplicates.

Error bars denote standard deviations.

Fig. 5 Induction of the *sodA* promoter by fructose. (A) Cultures of UA159 harboring

a P*sodA::gfp* fusion were diluted into FMC containing specified concentrations (in mM)

of glucose (G), fructose (F), or H_2O_2. The cultures were monitored in a Synergy 2 plate

reader for optical densities (OD_{600}) and green fluorescence for 20 hours. The relative

fluorescence units (RFU) of each culture were recorded as a measure of *sodA* promoter

activity, after normalization against OD_{600}. (B) The same experiment was performed on

various mutants derived from UA159/P*sodA::gfp,* using FMC containing 20 mM glucose

(G20) or fructose (F20). Results are the average from three biological replicates,

conducted in technical duplicates.

Fig. 6 Fructose promotes long-term survival (A) and acidogenicity (B) of *S.*

***mutans*.** (A) Cultures of *S. mutans* UA159 (n =4) were diluted into FMC containing 20

mM of glucose (G20) or fructose (F20), or a combination of 19 mM glucose and 1 mM

fructose (G19/F1), followed by incubation without medium refreshment for 11 days. At

specified time points, an aliquot of culture was removed for CFU enumeration. (B) pH

drop assay. UA159 was cultured in BHI to exponential phase and resuspended in a

solution of 50 mM KCl and 1 mM $MgCl_2$, with OD_{600} adjusted to 5.0. The pH was

adjusted to 7.2 slowly with 0.1 N KOH to consume intracellular carbohydrate storage.

Immediately after addition of 50 mM glucose or fructose, the pH of the suspension was

monitored continuously on a stirring plate for the next 60 min. Each experiment was

repeated three times, with representative results shown. After conversion into proton

concentrations, area under the curve (AUC, see inset) of each sample was calculated

and used to assess statistical significance using Student's *t*-test (, *P* < 0.05).

Fig. 7 Fructose enhances competitiveness of *S. mutans*. Cultures of *S. mutans* wild

type UA159 or its isogenic *fruI* deletion mutant was mixed at 1:1 ratio with a differentially

marked *S. sanguinis* strain, then diluted at 1:100 into FMC containing glucose or

fructose, each used at 20 mM or 200 mM. After 24 h of incubation, the cultures were

sonicated, decimally diluted and plated on selective agar plates for CFU enumeration.

CFUs from both the start and end of the incubation were used to calculate competitive

index of each species.

Fig. 8 Fructose metabolism triggers stress response in streptococci. Fructose is

internalized by oral streptococci primarily through a F-1-P-generating PTS transporter,

FruI, but also through two additional PTS permeases, including EII^{Lev} (LevDEFG) that

generates F-6-P. A hexose-phosphate phosphohydrolase SppA helps to maintain the

homeostasis of intracellular F-1-P. Compared to F-6-P and the glucose pathway, F-1-P

is likely catabolized more rapidly via glycolysis, during which RES such as MG is

accumulated and impacts cytoplasmic redox balance represented by the ratios of

GSH/GSSG and NADPH/NADP$^+$. Also affected are the pools of intracellular metal ions.

Sensing these and other not-yet-characterized physiological changes and specific

metabolites, the bacterium reprograms a suite of stress responsive genes. The

outcomes of exposure to fructose include not only elevated activities in processing RES,

through the functions of LguL/GloB and related protein GloA2, but importantly enhanced

tolerance to multiple environmental stressors including ROS, RES, acidic pH, toxic

metals, and nutrient depletion.

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982 **Table 1.** Genes differentially expressed after treatments with methylglyoxal (MG),

983 fructose (Fru), and glucose (Glc) relative to untreated controls. Results of H_2O_2

984 treatment was obtained from a previous study (34). The cutoff for significance is

985 |Log$_2$(foldchange)| >1 and FDR <0.05. Genes are organized based on functional

986 categories. See supplemental material for details.

SMU Number	Gene Name	Gene Function	MG	Fru	Glc	H_2O_2
Thiol homeostasis/oxidative stress						
140	gshR	glutathione reductase		3.53	4.09	
141	SMU_141	conserved hypothetical protein	0.63	3.78	4.08	
267	gshAB	glutamate--cysteine ligase (gamma ECS)	1.14	1.29	1.00	
382	SMU_382c	possible oxidoreductase	3.67			
383	SMU_383c	undetermined reductase or epimerase	3.73			
463	trxB	thioredoxin reductase (NADPH)	1.90	1.31		1.75
629	sodA	superoxide dismutase	3.00	2.89	1.02	2.22
667	nrdB	ribonucleotide reductase, small subunit	3.50	1.31	0.66	1.54
668	nrdA	ribonucleotide reductase, large subunit	3.07	1.09		1.37
669	nrdH	glutaredoxin	2.63	0.83	-0.63	1.48
676	gapN	NADP-dependent G3P dehydrogenase	1.21	1.20	0.93	1.40
677	rmeA	transcriptional regulator, MerR family	2.46	1.01		
678	ycgG	aldo/keto oxidoreductase	3.15	1.21	0.96	
679	ycgG	aldo/keto oxidoreductase	3.24	1.49	1.12	
680	SMU_680	carboxymuconolactone decarboxylase family protein	3.20	1.22	0.71	
681	SMU_681	conserved hypothetical protein	3.14	1.14		
728	SMU_728	oxidoreductase		1.03		
764	ahpC	alkyl hydroperoxide reductase subunit C	3.76	2.18		2.33
765	ahpF	alkyl hydroperoxide reductase subunit F	4.22	2.30		2.24
837	ycgG	aldo/keto oxidoreductase			1.39	
838	gor	glutathione reductase	3.44	1.51	1.17	2.14
924	tpx	thiol peroxidase	3.01	2.48	1.06	2.72
991	SMU_991	possible ribonucleotide reductase	1.62	1.26		1.93
1040	ydfG	oxidoreductase, short-chain dehydrogenase/reductase	1.34			
1117	nox	H$_2$O-forming NADH Oxidase	1.81	1.42	0.97	1.94
1296	gst	glutathione S-transferase	2.70	2.43	1.46	1.79
1473	SMU_1473c	oxidoreductase, short-chain dehydrogenase/reductase family	1.21	1.05		
1602	frp	NAD(P)H-flavin oxidoreductase	1.78	1.19	1.16	
1603	lguL	lactoylglutathione lyase	2.14	1.78	1.70	
1869	trxA	thioredoxin	1.63	2.28	1.34	2.25
2070	SMU_2070	conserved hypothetical protein	3.21			

SMU Number	Gene Name	Gene Function	MG	Fru	Glc	H₂O₂
2071	nrdG	ribonucleoside-triphosphate reductase activating protein	3.66			
2072	SMU_2072c	possible acetyltransferase, GNAT family	3.70			-1.22
2073	SMU_2073c	conserved hypothetical protein	3.59	-1.09	-1.61	
2074	nrdD	anaerobic ribonucleoside-triphosphate reductase	3.52	-1.40		

Metal homeostasis

SMU Number	Gene Name	Gene Function	MG	Fru	Glc	H₂O₂
182	sloA	ABC transporter for iron/manganese	-1.87	-2.89	-1.51	-1.01
183	sloB	manganese ABC transporter permease element	-0.92	-1.20		-0.96
184	sloC	ABC transporter element, iron/manganese binding protein			-1.34	-1.14
185	SMU_185	hypothetical protein		-0.60	-1.51	-1.56
186	sloR	metal-dependent transcriptional regulator	-0.77			-1.01
247	sufC	ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein	2.24	0.98	0.72	1.89
248	sufD	ABC transporter permease	2.56	1.22	1.09	1.82
249	sufS	class-V aminotransferase, NifS protein homolog,	2.83	1.31	0.96	1.80
250	sufU	nitrogen fixation-like protein, NifU	2.91	1.01		1.90
251	sufB	ABC transporter permease	2.76	1.08	0.77	1.70
424	copY	negative transcriptional regulator, CopY	3.82	0.84	1.23	1.24
426	copA	copper-transporting ATPase	3.72	0.64	0.77	1.18
427	copZ	copper chaperone	3.47	0.82		1.09
540	dpr	peroxide resistance protein/iron binding protein	2.96	1.87		1.99
569	feoA	ferrous ion transport protein A	-2.44			-1.17
570	feoB	ferrous ion transport protein B	-1.65	-0.66	0.77	-1.00
1561	trkB	potassium uptake protein B	2.20	1.64		
1562	trkA	potassium uptake protein A	2.32	1.53		
1993	adcB	zinc ABC transporter, permease				1.08
1994	adcC	zinc ABC transport, ATP-binding protein				1.10
1995	adcR	zinc transport transcriptional repressor				1.04
2057	zccE	zinc/cadmium-efflux ATPase	-0.42	2.44	1.17	

DNA and protein repair

SMU Number	Gene Name	Gene Function	MG	Fru	Glc	H₂O₂
80	hrcA	heat-inducible transcription repressor	-2.47			
81	grpE	co-chaperone protein GrpE	-2.12			
82	dnaK	chaperone protein, DnaK	-1.33			
561	mutT	mutator protein, Nudix hydrolase	2.46			
562	clpE	ATP-dependent protease	2.86	1.44		1.42
809	uvrB	excinuclease ABC subunit B			1.26	
956	clpL	ATP-dependent Clp protease	1.77	1.13		1.11
1649	exoA	exodeoxyribonuclease III	1.68	1.19	1.10	1.93
1650	end3	endonuclease III	1.82			1.56
1850	pepP	XAA-Pro aminopeptidase	1.78	1.16	0.89	1.45
1851	uvrA	excinuclease ABC subunit A	1.34	1.03		1.70
1865	mutY	A/G-specific adenine glycosylase	2.41	1.24	0.66	1.66

SMU Number	Gene Name	Gene Function	MG	Fru	Glc	H₂O₂
2029	*clpC*	ATP-dependent Clp protease	1.11			
2036	*pepO*	endopeptidase O	1.61	1.18	1.07	1.42
2085	*recA*	recombinase A		1.18		
Transcription regulators						
61	*comR*	transcriptional regulator	1.01			1.55
363	*glnR*	glutamine synthetase repressor		-2.29		
381	*plcR*	transcriptional regulator	1.45			
486	*liaS*	two-component sensor histidine kinase				-1.00
487	*liaR*	two-component response regulator				-1.01
576	*lytT*	response regulator	-1.55	-1.58		
577	*lytS*	sensor histidine kinase	-2.26	-1.51		
593	*perR*	ferric uptake regulator protein	1.06	1.08		1.03
660	*spaK*	histidine kinase		-1.05		
661	*spaR*	transcriptional regulator	1.72			
928	*relS*	sensor histidine kinase	1.00			
1037	*phoR*	histidine kinase	2.12			
1038	*ycbL*	response regulator	1.79			
1065	*nagR*	transcriptional regulator, GntR family	-1.42			
1097	*SMU_1097c*	transcriptional regulator	1.37		-1.42	
1226	*SMU_1226c*	histidine protein kinase	1.03			
1287	*pmrA*	transcriptional regulator	-1.03		-1.48	1.12
1398	*irvR*	phage associated repressor protein	-1.60			
1515	*vicX*	*gtfB/C* regulator	1.28			
1516	*vicK*	two-component sensor histidine kinase	1.17			
1814	*scnK*	histidine kinase, ScnK homolog	2.50	1.37		1.58
1815	*scnR*	response regulator, ScnR homolog	2.26	1.37	0.59	1.72
1854	*hdrR*	high density responsive regulator		1.35		
1915	*comC*	competence stimulating peptide	2.15			
1916	*comD*	histidine kinase	2.95	1.01		1.24
1917	*comE*	response regulator	2.78			1.31
1924	*gcrR*	response regulator for glucan-binding protein		-1.77	-1.09	
1963	*levQ*	sugar-binding periplasmic protein		-1.02	-1.23	-1.07
1964	*levR*	two-component response regulator			-1.07	-1.20
1965	*levS*	histidine kinase				-1.12
1966	*levT*	ABC transport ribose-binding protein, periplasmic				-1.19
2027	*lexA*	transcriptional regulator/repressor	3.03	3.08	1.09	1.29
2084	*spxA2*	oxidative stress regulator		1.30		
Osmoprotection						
1057	*satE*	acid tolerance protein		1.05		
1058	*satD*	acid tolerance protein		1.26		
1060	*ffh*	signal recognition particle		1.13		
1061	*ylxM*	DNA-binding protein		1.22		

SMU Number	Gene Name	Gene Function	MG	Fru	Glc	H₂O₂
1062	*busAB*	glycine-betaine binding ABC transporter permease	1.09	1.57		
1063	*opuAA*	amino acid ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein		1.68		
2116	*opuCa*	ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein		1.05		
2117	*opuCb*	ABC transporter permease		1.12		
2118	*opuCc*	ABC transporter, substrate-binding protein		1.13		
2119	*opuCd*	ABC transport permease		1.07		
F1F0 ATPase						
1527	*atpA*	ATPase epsilon subunit		-1.06		
1528	*atpB*	ATPase beta subunit		-1.13		
1529	*atpC*	ATPase gamma subunit		-1.31		
1530	*atpD*	ATPase alpha subunit		-1.20		
1531	*atpE*	ATPase delta subunit		-1.61	-1.25	
1532	*atpF*	ATPase b subunit		-1.35		
1533	*atpG*	ATPase a subunit		-1.40		
1534	*atpH*	ATPase c subunit		-1.26		
Fatty acid biosythesis						
1735	*accD*	acetyl-CoA carboxylase beta subunit	0.72	-1.15		
1736	*accC*	acetyl-CoA carboxylase biotin carboxylase subunit	0.61	-1.29		
1737	*fabZ*	(3R)-hydroxymyristoyl-(acyl carrier protein) dehydratase	0.77	-1.38		
1738	*accB*	biotin carboxyl carrier protein of acetyl-CoA carboxylase	0.80	-1.46		
1739	*fabF*	3-oxoacyl-(acyl-carrier-protein) synthase	0.69	-1.51		
1740	*fabG*	3-oxoacyl-acyl-carrier-protein reductase		-1.78		
1741	*fabD*	[acyl-carrier-protein] S-malonyltransferase		-1.74		
1742	*fabK*	trans-2-enoyl-ACP reductase II		-1.56		
1743	*acp*	acyl carrier protein		-1.55	-1.56	
1744	*fabH*	3-oxoacyl-[acyl-carrier-protein] synthase III	-0.76	-1.39		
1745	*fabT*	transcriptional regulator, MarR family	-1.11	-1.06	-0.66	
Other stress/competence-related proteins						
20	*mreC*	cell shape-determining protein MreC	-2.19	-1.36	-1.45	
21	*mreD*	cell shape-determining protein MreD	-1.95	-2.02	-0.59	
150	*nlmA*	non-lantibiotic mutacin IV A				-1.30
151	*nlmB*	non-lantibiotic mutacin IV B				-1.13
152	*SMU_152*	immunity protein for NlmAB			-1.88	-1.64
153	*SMU_153*	hypothetical protein				-1.75
284	*nlmT*	transport and processing of non-lantibiotic mutacins		-1.24	-1.38	-1.05
285	*nlmE*	transport and processing of non-lantibiotic mutacins		-1.13	-1.16	-1.16

SMU Number	Gene Name	Gene Function	MG	Fru	Glc	H₂O₂
474	*luxS*	S-ribosylhomocysteine lyase (S-ribosylhomocysteinase)	-1.34			
503	*SMU_503c*	hypothetical protein	-1.86	-1.69	-1.58	-1.11
921	*rcrR*	transcriptional regulator	1.35		-1.31	1.21
922	*rcrP*	ABC transporter, ATPase component	1.75			1.07
923	*rcrQ*	AB transporter, ATPase component	1.87			1.08
1046	*relQ*	GTP pyrophosphokinase	-1.08	1.03		
574	*lrgB*	effector of murein hydrolase	-2.42	-2.46	-1.11	
575	*lrgA*	murein hydrolase regulator	-2.68	-3.00	-1.63	
1700	*cidB*	LrgB-like protein; possible murein hydrolase regulator	1.93	1.39		1.31
1701	*cidA*	conserved hypothetical protein	1.90	1.05		1.29
1702	*pgpB*	uncharacterized phosphatase	1.73	1.82		1.59
1703	*SMU_1703c*	conserved hypothetical protein	1.41	1.78		1.75
1980	*SMU_1980c*	conserved hypothetical protein	3.14	2.29	1.08	
1981	*comGF*	competence protein G	3.42	2.29		
1982	*SMU_1982c*	conserved hypothetical protein	2.76	1.96		
1983	*comYD*	late competence protein	2.20			
1984	*comYC*	late competence protein	2.50	1.26		
1985	*comYB*	late competence protein	2.19			
1987	*comYA*	late competence protein	2.28			
1988	*SMU_1988c*	probable DNA binding protein	2.80	1.43		2.19
1997	*comX*	competence-specific sigma factor	-1.57		-1.46	
2044	*relA*	GTP pyrophosphokinase				1.22

Carbohydrate metabolism

SMU Number	Gene Name	Gene Function	MG	Fru	Glc	H₂O₂
99	*fbaA*	fructose-bisphosphate aldolase		-1.25		
100	*nigB*	nigerose PTS system, IIB component		-1.52		
105	*nigR*	nigerose operon transcriptional repressor		-1.15		
113	*pfk*	fructose-1-phosphate kinase		1.39	1.13	
114	*fruC*	PTS system, fructose-specific IIBC component			1.08	
119	*adh*	alcohol dehydrogenase class III	1.02	1.74	1.76	
127	*adhA*	acetoin dehydrogenase E1 component alpha subunit	2.76			1.72
128	*adhB*	acetoin dehydrogenase E1 component beta subunit	3.33			1.88
129	*adhC*	dihydrolipoamide S-acetyltransferase	3.50			1.91
130	*adhD*	dihydrolipoamide dehydrogenase	3.30	1.27		1.96
131	*lplA*	lipoate-protein ligase	3.43	1.39		1.88
135	*mleR*	transcriptional regulator	-1.05			
137	*mleS*	malolactic enzyme	0.62	4.00	4.36	
138	*mleP*	malate permease/auxin efflux carrier		3.78	4.08	
139	*oxdC*	oxalate decarboxylase		3.80	4.33	
148	*adhE*	alcohol-acetaldehyde dehydrogenase	-1.11		1.26	
270	*sgaT*	ribulose monophosphate PTS pathway enzyme IIC			1.36	

SMU Number	Gene Name	Gene Function	MG	Fru	Glc	H₂O₂
271	ptxB	L-ascorbate-specific PTS enzyme IIB component	1.88	1.00	0.96	1.19
272	ptxA	L-ascorbate-specific PTS enzyme IIA component	2.13	1.04	1.03	0.90
273	rmpD	hexulose-6-phosphate synthase	2.30	1.11	0.87	1.01
274	rmpE	hexulose-6-phosphate isomerase	2.48	1.17	1.01	1.16
275	rmpF	L-ribulose 5-phosphate 4-epimerase	2.59	1.66	1.06	1.11
276	SMU_276c	hypothetical protein	2.37		-2.62	
311	srlA	sorbitol PTS system enzyme IIC2		1.02		
312	srlE	sorbitol PTS system enzyme IIBC		1.36		
313	srlB	sorbitol PTS system enzyme IIA		1.68		
402	pfl	pyruvate formate-lyase		-1.49		
507	sppR	transcriptional regulator, DeoR family		4.56		
508	sppA	hexose-phosphate phosphohydrolase		4.56		
674	ptsH	PTS EI	-2.25			
675	ptsI	PTS HPr	-1.14			
754	hprK	HPr (serine) kinase/phosphatase		1.34	1.15	
870	fruR	transcriptional repressor of the fructose operon		1.68		
871	fruK	fructose-1-phosphate kinase		1.99		
872	fruI	fructose-specific PTS system enzyme IIBC component		1.87		
876	msmR	MSM operon regulatory protein	-1.93	-1.26		-1.28
877	agaL	alpha-galactosidase	-1.46	-1.73		-1.36
878	msmE	ABC transporter, sugar-binding protein		-1.79		-1.25
879	msmF	ABC transporter, sugar permease protein		-1.95		
880	msmG	ABC transporter permease		-1.78		
881	gtfA	sucrose phosphorylase		-1.64		
882	msmK	ABC transporter ATP-binding protein		-1.54		
883	dexB	glucan 1,6-alpha-glucosidase		-1.40		
886	galK	galactokinase		-1.46		
910	gtfD	glucosyltransferase-S		1.24	1.82	
1004	gtfB	glucosyltransferase-I			1.82	
1005	gtfC	glucosyltransferase-SI		-1.10		
1184	mtlR	transcriptional regulator	-1.05			
1185	mtlA	mannitol PTS EII	-1.73			
1396	gbpC	glucan-binding protein C	2.39	1.32	1.27	1.28
1451	aldB	alpha-acetolactate decarboxylase	2.86			1.66
1452	alsS	alpha-acetolactate synthase	2.33			1.54
1489	lacX	aldose 1-epimerase		1.13		
1492	lacF	PTS system, lactose-specific IIA component		1.85	1.92	
1493	lacD	tagatose-1,6-bisphosphate aldolase		1.39		
1494	lacC	tagatose-6-phosphate kinase		1.59	0.65	
1495	lacB	galactose-6-phosphate isomerase	-0.78	1.59	0.98	

SMU Number	Gene Name	Gene Function	MG	Fru	Glc	H$_2$O$_2$
1496	lacA	galactose-6-phosphate isomerase		1.71	1.18	
1498	lacR	lactose phosphotransferase system repressor		3.11		
1537	glgD	glycogen biosynthesis protein		-1.06		
1564	glg	glycogen phosphorylase		-1.24		
1565	malM	4-alpha-glucanotransferase		-1.02		
1566	malR	maltose operon transcriptional repressor	1.53			1.57
1568	malE	maltose / maltodextrin-binding protein	-1.55	-2.32		
1569	malF	maltodextrin ABC transport system permease		-2.00		
1570	malG	maltose / maltodextrin ABC transport system (permease)		-2.06		
1571	msmK	ABC-type transport system ATP-binding protein (maltose)		-1.89		
1596	celD	cellobiose PTS system IIC	-1.59	-2.92	-1.02	
1597	celX	conserved hypothetical protein	-2.21	-3.06	-2.52	
1598	celC	cellobiose PTS system IIA component	-2.43	-3.00	-1.11	
1599	celR	cellobiose transcriptional regulator	-2.80	-3.62	-1.71	
1600	celB	cellobiose PTS system IIB	-3.15	-2.59	-1.18	
1664	acoB	acetoin utilization protein, acetoin dehydrogenase	1.66	0.76		
1692	pflA	pyruvate-formate lyase activating enzyme	1.36			1.81
1841	scrA	sucrose PTS system EIIABC components	-1.99	-2.13		
1843	scrB	sucrose-6-phosphate hydrolase	-1.65			
1844	scrR	sucrose operon repressor	-1.07	-1.24		
1867	adhB	alcohol dehydrogenase	1.75	2.12	1.97	1.85
1877	manL	mannose PTS system component IIAB	-2.50	-2.79	-0.85	
1878	manM	mannose PTS system component IIC	-1.76	-2.34		
1879	manN	mannose PTS system component IID	-1.24	-2.25	-0.92	
1956	levX	conserved hypothetical protein		2.07		
1957	levG	fructose-specific Enzyme IID component		2.16		
1958	levF	fructose-specific Enzyme IIC component		2.15		
1960	levE	fructose-specific Enzyme IIB component		1.58		
1961	levD	fructose-specific Enzyme IIA component		1.77		
2028	ftf	fructosyltransferase		1.48	1.72	
2047	malT	maltose PTS enzyme II		-1.71		

Amino acid metabolism

SMU Number	Gene Name	Gene Function	MG	Fru	Glc	H$_2$O$_2$
261	aguR	transcriptional regulator	1.42	1.65		
262	argF	ornithine carbamoyltransferase	1.48	2.21	1.16	
263	aguD	amino acid permease /putrescine antiporter	1.49	2.13	1.41	
264	aguA	agmatine deiminase		1.74	1.48	

SMU Number	Gene Name	Gene Function	MG	Fru	Glc	H₂O₂
265	*aguC*	carbamate kinase		1.18		
563	*argF*	ornithine carbamoyltransferase		1.00		
663	*argC*	N-acetyl-gamma-glutamyl-phosphate reductase	3.25	2.41	1.17	
664	*argJ*	ornithine acetyltransferase / N-acetylglutamate synthase	3.25	2.42	1.94	
665	*argB*	acetylglutamate kinase	3.32	2.24	1.68	
666	*argD*	N-acetylornithine aminotransferase	2.94	1.54	1.78	1.09
1665	*livF*	branched chain amino acid ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein	1.57	0.73		1.05
1666	*livG*	branched chain amino acid ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein	1.54	0.71	0.14	1.16
1667	*livM*	branched chain amino acid ABC transporter, permease	1.35			1.29
1668	*livH*	branched chain amino acid ABC transporter, permease	1.36			1.24
1669	*livK*	branched-chain amino acid ABC transporter, substrate-binding protein	1.06			1.34
2097	*ahrC*	arginine transcriptional repressor	-1.22			

Translation

SMU Number	Gene Name	Gene Function	MG	Fru	Glc	H₂O₂
169	*rplM*	50S ribosomal protein L13	-1.22	-1.18		
170	*rpsI*	30S ribosomal protein S9		-1.32		
697	*infC*	translation initiation factor IF-3	-1.06			
818	*rpsU*	30S ribosomal protein S21		-1.38		
957	*rplJ*	50S ribosomal protein L10	-1.80	-1.89		
960	*rpl*	50S ribosomal protein L7/L12	-1.33	-1.77		
1127	*rpsT*	30S ribosomal protein S20	-1.03			
1200	*rpsA*	30S ribosomal protein S1	-1.21			
1288	*rplS*	50S ribosomal protein L19	-1.06			
1627	*rplK*	50S ribosomal protein L11	-1.11			
1860	*rpsF*	30S ribosomal protein S6	-1.16			
2000	*rplQ*	50S ribosomal protein L17	-1.66			
2002	*rpsK*	30S ribosomal protein S11	-1.27			
2003	*rpsM*	30S ribosomal protein S13, N-terminal fragment	-1.06			
2003a	*rl36*	50S ribosomal protein L36	-1.05		-1.22	
2024	*rplD*	50S ribosomal protein L4, N-terminal fragment		-1.01		
2025	*rplC*	50S ribosomal protein L3		-1.06		
2104a	*rl32*	50S ribosomal protein L32	-1.03			
2135	*rpsD*	30S ribosomal protein S4		-1.08	-1.03	

TnSmu1

SMU Number	Gene Name	Gene Function	MG	Fru	Glc	H₂O₂
196	*SMU_196c*	immunogenic secreted protein (transfer protein)		1.35	1.60	
197	*SMU_197c*	hypothetical protein		1.09	1.35	
199	*SMU_199c*	hypothetical protein		1.20	1.14	
200	*SMU_200c*	hypothetical protein		1.98		
201	*SMU_201c*	conserved hypothetical protein		1.12		

SMU Number	Gene Name	Gene Function	MG	Fru	Glc	H₂O₂
202	*SMU_202c*	conserved hypothetical protein		1.80	1.55	
204	*SMU_204c*	hypothetical protein		1.80	1.57	
205	*SMU_205c*	conserved hypothetical protein		1.91	1.28	
206	*SMU_206c*	hypothetical protein		1.48	1.27	
207	*SMU_207c*	transcriptional regulator			1.53	
208	*SMU_208c*	conserved hypothetical protein, FtsK/SpoIIIE family		1.01	1.46	
209	*SMU_209c*	hypothetical protein		1.31	1.56	
210	*SMU_210c*	hypothetical protein		1.15	1.33	
211	*SMU_211c*	hypothetical protein		1.31	2.27	
212	*SMU_212c*	hypothetical protein		1.20	1.50	
213	*SMU_213c*	hypothetical protein		1.52	1.90	
214	*SMU_214c*	hypothetical protein		1.27		
215	*SMU_215c*	hypothetical protein		1.72	1.09	
216	*SMU_216c*	hypothetical protein		1.37		
217	*SMU_217c*	conserved hypothetical protein		1.34		
218	*SMU_218*	transcriptional regulator			-1.27	

CRISPR-Cas

SMU Number	Gene Name	Gene Function	MG	Fru	Glc	H₂O₂
1402	*csn2*	conserved hypothetical protein	-1.28	-2.56	-1.95	
1403	*cas2*	conserved hypothetical protein	-1.49	-2.32	-0.85	
1404	*cas1*	conserved hypothetical protein	-1.30	-2.24	-1.22	
1405	*cas9*	conserved hypothetical protein	-1.50	-2.31	-1.74	
1406	*SMU_1406c*	possible oxidoreductase	-1.52	-1.15		
1753	*cas2*	conserved hypothetical protein		1.59		1.14
1754	*cas1*	conserved hypothetical protein		1.91	1.09	1.29
1755	*cas1*	conserved hypothetical protein		1.70		1.21
1757	*cas1*	conserved hypothetical protein		1.77		1.04
1758	*cas4*	conserved hypothetical protein		1.78		1.36
1760	*csd2*	conserved hypothetical protein	1.03	2.02		1.51
1761	*cas8c*	conserved hypothetical protein	1.48	1.79		1.63
1762	*csd1*	conserved hypothetical protein	1.43	1.88		1.87
1763	*cas5*	conserved hypothetical protein	1.47	1.94		1.88
1764	*cas3*	conserved hypothetical protein	1.22	1.90		2.09

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Table 2. pH and final OD$_{600}$ of 20-h TV cultures.

Strains	Sugars	Resting pH			Final OD$_{600}$		
		20 mM	100 mM	200 mM	20 mM	100 mM	200 mM
SMU_UA159	Glucose	4.92 (0.06)	4.93 (0.03)	4.93 (0.02)	0.83 (0.01)	0.72 (0.01)	0.57 (0.01)
	Fructose	4.76 (0.04)**	4.82 (0.06)*	4.81 (0.01)***	0.82 (0.01)	0.73 (0.01)	0.64 (0.02)**
SSA_SK36	Glucose	6.51 (0.06)	6.15 (0.02)	5.70 (0.07)	0.34 (0.05)	0.41 (0.02)	0.45 (0.01)
	Fructose	6.55 (0.02)	ND	ND	0.27 (0.01)*	0.03 (0.01)****	0.00 (0.002)****
SSA_BCC23	Glucose	6.09 (0.12)	6.01 (0.07)	5.93 (0.07)	0.43 (0.04)	0.37 (0.02)	0.31 (0.01)
	Fructose	5.76 (0.15)*	ND	ND	0.49 (0.02)	0.20 (0.04)**	0.02 (0.005)****
SDE_BCC10	Glucose	5.48 (0.27)	5.08 (0.06)	5.49 (0.19)	0.63 (0.14)	0.69 (0.004)	0.43 (0.04)
	Fructose	ND	ND	ND	0.28 (0.01)**	0.14 (0.02)****	0 (0)****
SOR_BCC11	Glucose	5.72 (0.06)	5.65 (0.05)	5.72 (0.07)	0.56 (0.01)	0.52 (0.04)	0.40 (0.01)
	Fructose	5.09 (0.02)****	5.56 (0.05)	ND	0.66 (0.01)****	0.55 (0.01)	0.01 (0.01)****
SPA_BCC15	Glucose	6.53 (0.07)	6.45 (0.08)	6.38 (0.12)	0.12 (0.03)	0.11 (0.05)	0.09 (0.04)
	Fructose	ND	ND	ND	0.02 (0.02)**	0 (0)**	0 (0)**
SMI_BCC2	Glucose	4.75 (0.03)	4.73 (0.03)	4.77 (0.03)	0.74 (0.01)	0.65 (0.01)	0.56 (0.01)
	Fructose	4.87 (0.04)**	4.87 (0.05)**	4.87 (0.05)*	0.61 (0.01)****	0.54 (0.01)****	0.47 (0.01)****
SGO_BCC9	Glucose	4.95 (0.06)	4.90 (0.05)	4.91 (0.03)	0.81 (0.02)	0.66 (0.02)	0.54 (0.01)
	Fructose	4.87 (0.07)	5.03 (0.05)**	5.97 (0.02)***	0.70 (0.01)****	0.68 (0.01)	0.46 (0.05)*
A12_BCC21	Glucose	5.62 (0.08)	5.37 (0.07)	5.48 (0.11)	0.65 (0.01)	0.56 (0.005)	0.46 (0.02)
	Fructose	5.16 (0.04)***	5.36 (0.12)	ND	0.64 (0.01)	0.54 (0.02)	0.28 (0.10)*
SCR_BCC41	Glucose	6.20 (0.17)	5.93 (0.17)	5.85 (0.05)	0.50 (0.07)	0.47 (0.07)	0.42 (0.02)
	Fructose	5.69 (0.07)**	5.95 (0.08)	ND	0.51 (0.02)	0.41 (0.03)	0.10 (0.003)****
SIN_BCA19	Glucose	5.28 (0.08)	5.12 (0.04)	5.18 (0.02)	0.66 (0.01)	0.58 (0.01)	0.48 (0.01)
	Fructose	5.11 (0.09)*	5.01 (0.01)**	5.14 (0.02)*	0.61 (0.01)**	0.55 (0.005)**	0.48 (0.003)

Results show average (standard deviation) of four independent cultures. Statistical significance
was determined relative to glucose cultures of the same concentration using Student's *t*-test. *,
P <0.05; **, *P* <0.01; ***, *P* <0.001; ****, *P* <0.0001. ND, not determined due to lack of
substantial growth (in red). SMU, *S. mutans*; SSA, *S. sanguinis*; SDE, *S. dentisani*; SOR, *S.*
oralis; SPA, *S. parasanguinis*; SMI, *S. mitis*; SGO, *S. gordonii;* A12*, S. sp. A12;* SCR*, S.*
cristatus; SIN*, S. intermedius* (68, 91).

Table 3. Bacterial strains used in this study (excluding clinical isolates used in Table 2).

Strains	Relevant characteristics[a]	Source or reference
S. mutans UA159	*S. mutans* wild type, *perR*+	ATCC 700610
MMZ1654	UA159 *fruI::Km*	From UA159
MMZ2120	UA159 *fruI::Em*	From UA159
Δ*zccR*	UA159 *zccR::Sp*	(54)
MMZ2156	UA159 *zccR::Sp fruI::Km*	From Δ*zccR*
Δ*spxA1*	UA159 *spxA1::Sp*	(34)
MMZ2161	UA159 *spxA1::Sp fruI::Em*	From Δ*spxA1*
MMZ2162	UA159 *spxA1::Sp levD::Em*	From Δ*spxA1*
Δ*spxA2*	UA159 *spxA2::Em*	(34)
MMZ2158	UA159 *sodA::gfp* fusion (*Km*)	From UA159
MMZ2160	UA159 *spxA1::Sp sodA::gfp* fusion	From Δ*spxA1*
MMZ2159	UA159 *fruI::Em sodA::gfp* fusion	From MMZ2120
MMZ2173	UA159 *levD::Em sodA::gfp* fusion	From MMZ2158
MMZ799	UA159 *fruR::cat* fusion (*Km*)	(20)
UA159-Km	UA159 *gtfA::Km*	(87)
S. sanguinis SK36	*S. sanguinis* wild type	Kitten laboratory
MMZ1945	SK36 *gtfP::Em*	(88)

1000　[a] *Km, Em,* and *Sp*: resistance against kanamycin, erythromycin, and spectinomycin,
1001　respectively.

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Table S6. Expression of *fruRBA* in *S. sanguinis* SK36 (by RT-qPCR) and activities of the *fruR* promoter in UA159 (by CAT assay).

	SK36			UA159
	relative mRNA levels			P*fruR::cat* sp. act.
	fruR	*fruB*	*fruA*	
control	1.00 ± 0.07	1.00 ± 0.10	1.00 ± 0.06	186.18 ± 13.87
20 μM fructose	9.70 ± 1.16	9.54 ± 3.15	7.98 ± 4.93	230.71 ± 7.22
50 mM fructose	10.67 ± 1.74	10.29 ± 1.92	8.83 ± 3.22	271.29 ± 3.59
25% human sera	1.27 ± 0.19	1.71 ± 0.54	2.04 ± 0.31	ND

1003 Bacteria were cultured in FMC-glucose till exponential phase (OD_{600} = 0.4) and then treated for 30
1004 min with fructose or 25% pooled human sera. Gene expression was measured by RT-qPCR or CAT
1005 assays.

1006

1007 **Table S7** Primers used in this study.

Primers	Sequence	Purpose
fruI-1	GGC GGT TTT ACT GGT AGG TT	*ΔfruI*
fruI-2GA	GCC ATT TAT TAT TTC CTT CCT CTT TTA GCC TGC AAG TCA AGC AAC A	*ΔfruI*
fruI-3GA	ATA TTT TAC TGG ATG AAT TGT TTT AGT AGA GCT GTT GGA GCA GTG ATT GCT	*ΔfruI*
fruI-4	AGC TGC TTG GAG ATA ATC TTT ACC T	*ΔfruI*
SodpromF	CCGGAATTCGATGTAGCTTTGC	*sodA::gfp*
SodpromR	CGCGGATCCTTCCTCTTTTC	*sodA::gfp*
ahpF-S	GAA ACC ATG GGT GGT CAA GT	RT-qPCR
ahpF-AS	GAG CCA TTA ATT GGG GTC CT	RT-qPCR
copY-S	ACC AGT CAG CGT CAA GGA AG	RT-qPCR
copY-AS	ACA AAT GCG CGA GAA AAC TT	RT-qPCR
SMU.667-S	TGA CTT GGA TGA CTG GCG TA	RT-qPCR
SMU.667-AS	TGG GAT TGC ATG GTG TCT AA	RT-qPCR
feoA-S	ACG GTT GAA ACA TTG CCT TT	RT-qPCR
feoA-AS	CGG CGC TTA GCT TCA TTA AC	RT-qPCR
SMUsloC-S	AAG GAA AAG TCG GGT GTC TG	RT-qPCR
SMU_sloC-AS	TTT AGC GGC AAT TGG GAT AC	RT-qPCR
gbpC-S	AGC TCA AAA GGC AGC TTA CG	RT-qPCR
gbpC-AS	TCCTTGGGCTTTTTCAACAC	RT-qPCR
scnK-S	CAAACGGCTGATTTCACAAG	RT-qPCR
scnK-AS	AAAGTGCGTTCCAATCTGCT	RT-qPCR
SMU.924-S	TCAGTTGATTTGCCATTTGC	RT-qPCR
SMU.924-AS	CCATAAGCCTTTCCAAACGA	RT-qPCR
SMU_phoR-S	AAACACGGCAAAAATCAAGC	RT-qPCR
SMU_phoR-AS	TTGTCAGCTGATCCAAATGC	RT-qPCR
SMU_vicK-S	TTTGGCACAGGAGAAAAACC	RT-qPCR
SMU_vicK-AS	TAATCTTTCCGCTGCGATCT	RT-qPCR
SMU.679-S	TTG GTG CTT ATC GTG CTC TG	RT-qPCR
SMU.679-AS	TGG AAT AAC CGA CAC CGT TT	RT-qPCR
SMU.1602-S	GTC GCG GTT AAA GGA CAA AA	RT-qPCR
SMU.1602-AS	TAG CGC CAA ATC GTT TTC TT	RT-qPCR
gshAB-S	GAGGCCCTCCGCTATTATTC	RT-qPCR
gshAB-AS	TTGTGACTGGCTGCTGTTTC	RT-qPCR
SMU.1603-S	GAA GAC GAC CCC GAC TAT GA	RT-qPCR
SMU.1603-AS	TCG CTT CAA GGT CAT CAA CA	RT-qPCR

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Fig. 1 Volcano plots illustrating transcriptomes of four treatments. *S. mutans* UA159 was grown to the exponential phase in a synthetic FMC medium containing 20 mM glucose. The samples were treated for 30 min with 50 mM fructose, 50 mM glucose, or 5 mM MG before harvesting for mRNA sequencing. Differential expression analyses were performed against untreated cells using *edgR*, with cutoffs for foldchange >2 and FDR <0.05. Upregulated genes are shown in red, and downregulated ones in blue. Results of treatment by H_2O_2 (0.5 mM, 5 min) were from an independent study (34).

Fig. 2 Transcriptomic overlaps among treatments of MG, fructose and H$_2$O$_2$.

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Fig. 3 Fructose impacts metal homeostasis in ΔzccR deficient in zinc expulsion.
S. mutans strains UA159 and its mutant derivatives were diluted from exponential
phase cultures into TV supplemented with 20 mM glucose (A) or fructose (B). Mn was
added at 25 µM (MnSO4). Growth was monitored using a Synergy 2 plate reader
maintained at 37°C. Results are average of three biological replicates, each tested in
technical duplicates. Error bars denote standard deviations.

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Fig. 4 Fructose impacts growth of *spxA1* in a medium-specific manner. *S. mutans* strains UA159 and various mutant derivatives were each diluted from exponential phase cultures into TV (A) or FMC (B, C) supplemented with 20 mM glucose (Glc) or fructose (Fru). Growth was monitored using a Synergy 2 plate reader maintained at 37°C. Results are average of three biological replicates, each tested in technical duplicates. Error bars denote standard deviations.

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Fig. 5 Induction of the *sodA* promoter by fructose. (A) Cultures of UA159 harboring a P*sodA::gfp* fusion were diluted into FMC containing specified concentrations (in mM) of glucose (G), fructose (F), or H2O2. The cultures were monitored in a Synergy 2 plate reader for optical densities (OD600) and green fluorescence for 20 hours . The relative fluorescence units (RFU) of each culture were recorded as a measure of *sodA* promoter activity, after normalization against OD600. (B) The same experiment was performed on various mutants derived from UA159/P*sodA::gfp,* using FMC containing 20 mM glucose (G20) or fructose (F20). Results are the average from three biological replicates, conducted in technical duplicates.

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Fig. 6 Fructose promotes long-term survival (A) and acidogenicity (B) of *S. mutans*. (A) Cultures of *S. mutans* UA159 (n =4) were diluted into FMC containing 20 mM of glucose (G20) or fructose (F20), or a combination of 19 mM glucose and 1 mM fructose (G19/F1), followed by incubation without medium refreshment for 11 days. At specified time points, an aliquot of culture was removed for CFU enumeration. (B) pH drop assay. UA159 was cultured in BHI to exponential phase and resuspended in a solution of 50 mM KCl and 1 mM $MgCl_2$, with OD600 adjusted to 5.0. The pH was adjusted to 7.2 slowly with 0.1 N KOH to consume intracellular carbohydrate storage. Immediately after addition of 50 mM glucose or fructose, the pH of the suspension was monitored continuously on a stirring plate for the next 60 min. Each experiment was repeated three times, with representative results shown. After conversion into proton concentrations, area under the curve (AUC, see inset) of each sample was calculated and used to assess statistical significance using Student's *t*-test (, $P <0.05$).

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Fig. 7 Fructose enhances competitiveness of *S. mutans*. Cultures of *S. mutans* wild type UA159 and its isogenic *fruI* deletion mutant were each mixed at 1:1 ratio with a differentially marked *S. sanguinis* strain, then diluted at 1:100 into FMC containing glucose or fructose, each used at 20 mM or 200 mM. After 24 h of incubation, the cultures were sonicated, decimally diluted and plated on selective agar plates for CFU enumeration. CFUs from both the start and end of the incubation were used to calculate competitive index of each species.

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Fig. 8 Fructose metabolism triggers stress response in streptococci. Fructose is
internalized by oral streptococci primarily through a F-1-P-generating PTS transporter, FruI, but
also through two additional PTS permeases, including EII^{Lev} (LevDEFG) that generates F-6-P. A
hexose-phosphate phosphohydrolase SppA helps to maintain the homeostasis of intracellular F-
1-P. Compared to F-6-P and the glucose pathway, F-1-P is likely catabolized more rapidly via
glycolysis, during which RES such as MG is accumulated and impacts cytoplasmic redox
balance represented by the ratios of GSH/GSSG and NADPH/NADP$^+$. Also affected are the
pools of intracellular metal ions. Sensing these and other not-yet-characterized physiological
changes and specific metabolites, the bacterium reprograms a suite of stress responsive genes.
The outcomes of exposure to fructose include not only elevated activities in processing RES,
through the functions of LguL/GloB and related protein GloA2, but importantly enhanced
tolerance to multiple environmental stressors including ROS, RES, acidic pH, toxic metals, and
nutrient depletion.

Fig. S1 Growth of UA159/P*sodA::gfp*. BHI cultures (n = 3) of the bacterium were diluted into FMC containing 20 mM glucose (G20), 19 mM glucose plus 1 mM fructose (G19/F1), 10 mM glucose plus 10 mM fructose (G10/F10), or 20 mM glucose plus 0.5 mM H_2O_2. Optical density (OD_{600}) of these cultures was monitored for 25 h.

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Fig. S2 CFU recovered during competitions between *S. mutans* (SMU) and *S. sanguinis* (SSA). Exponential-phase
cultures in BHI (n = 4) from both species were mixed at 1:1 (v:v) ratio, or used singly, and diluted into a FMC medium
supplemented with specified amounts of carbohydrates, followed by 24 h of incubation in a 5%-CO_2 atmosphere.
CFU enumeration was carried out to assess bacterial viability. (A) controls run with only single species in 20 mM
carbohydrates. (B, C, D) mixed-species cultures enumerated at time 0 and 24 h of competition. See Fig. 7 for the final
competitive indices.