Enterococcus faecalis-derived lactic acid facilitates persistent and

polymicrobial wound infections by suppressing macrophage activation

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Summary

Macrophage activation is critical for the innate immune response, and its suppression by pathogens represents a significant barrier to immune clearance. Here we identify *E. faecalis*-derived lactic acid as a key factor in suppressing macrophage activation via extracellular acidification. We demonstrate that *E. faecalis* mutants lacking lactate dehydrogenase (*ldh*), essential for lactic acid production and extracellular pH reduction, fail to suppress NF-κB. Mechanistically, *E. faecalis*-derived lactic acid acts via MCT-1 and GPR81, to impair ERK and STAT3 phosphorylation, leading to reduced STAT3 binding to the *Myd88* promoter and reduced MyD88 protein levels, and ultimately to reduced NF-κB activity in macrophages. Consequently, in a wound infection model, the immunosuppressive microenvironment created by *E. faecalis* promotes long-term virulence and the virulence of co-infecting bacteria such as *Escherichia coli.* These findings highlight that bacterial-derived lactic acid contributes to the subversion of host immunity to promote persistent and polymicrobial infections.

Introduction

Enterococcus faecalis are commensal, lactic acid producing, Gram-positive bacteria that are ubiquitous in the healthy human gastrointestinal tract [1]. However, it is also an opportunistic pathogen in the nosocomial environment, particularly among immunocompromised individuals, with mortality rates exceeding 50% in these susceptible populations due to infection [2, 3]. *E. faecalis* infections are often polymicrobial in nature with two or more species present at the infection site, especially in catheter associated urinary tract infections (CAUTI) and wound infections [4-6]. Treatment of *E. faecalis* infections has become increasingly difficult due to their

acquired antibiotic resistance, antibiotic tolerance associated with their ability to form

biofilm in the host, and intracellular survival [4, 7-9].

The nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells (NF-κB) pathway is

a key regulator of the immune response to bacterial or viral infections [10-12]. Stimuli,

such as lipopolysaccharide (LPS) or lipoteichoic acid (LTA), are recognized by co-

receptors, including CD14 and pattern recognition Toll-like receptors (TLRs), inducing

TLR dimerization and cargo internalization. This process, mediated by downstream

adaptor proteins such as MyD88, activates the IκB kinase (IKK) complex [13]. The IKK

complex phosphorylates IκB, leading to its ubiquitin-dependent degradation and

release of NF-κB (typically a p65/p50 dimer), which then translocates to the nucleus

and subsequently drives the expression of genes involved in immunity, inflammation,

and cell survival [10].

To colonize and persist within the human host, *E. faecalis* deploys multiple strategies

to evade immune clearance, including biofilm formation to hinder phagocytosis by

immune cells, and prolonged survival within macrophages and neutrophils [8, 9, 14-

19]. Additionally, *E. faecalis* strains isolated from the gastrointestinal tract of healthy

human infants can suppress mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) and NF-κB

signaling, as well as interleukin 8 (IL-8) expression in intestinal epithelial cells *in vitro*

[20, 21]. We previously demonstrated that *E. faecalis* infection of macrophages cells

(RAW 264.7) *in vitro* at lower multiplicities of infection (MOI 1), but not higher (MOI

100) activate NF-κB signaling [22]. In addition, *E. faecalis* suppresses

lipopolysaccharide (LPS) or lipoteichoic acid (LTA)-mediated NF-κB activation in the

same cell line in a dose-dependent manner [22]. However, the bacterial and host

factors involved in the suppression of the NF-κB activation in macrophages by *E.*

faecalis infection were not identified.

In this study, we identified *E. faecalis* lactate dehydrogenase and its lactic acid product

as critical factors in macrophage suppression. Acting through the pH-sensitive lactate

transporter MCT-1 and the lactate sensor GPR81, *E. faecalis*-derived lactic acid

lowers the extracellular pH, reducing expression of MyD88 via impaired STAT3 activity

and preventing phosphorylation of key immune signaling proteins, ultimately blocking

NF-κB activation. During mammalian infection, lactic acid-mediated immune

suppression promotes persistent *E. faecalis* wound infection. Moreover, *E. faecalis*-

mediated immune suppression promotes *E. coli* growth during mixed species wound

infection. These findings advance our understanding of *E. faecalis* pathogenesis and

identify potential targets for immunotherapeutic strategies aimed at improving

treatment and prevention of recalcitrant infections.

Results

E. faecalis **infection suppresses the antibacterial response of macrophages**

94
We previously demonstrated that *E. faecalis* can suppress LPS- and LTA-mediated

NF-κB activation in RAW 264.7 macrophages in a dose-dependent manner without

causing host cell cytotoxicity [22]. To further investigate this immunosuppression, we

infected RAW 264.7 macrophages with *E. faecalis* strain OG1RF (hereafter called *E.*

faecalis) (MOI 1, 10 and 100) in the presence or absence of LPS followed by RNA

sequencing. Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) revealed that while *E. faecalis*

infection at MOI 100 enriched for pathways linked to the immune response to bacteria,

E. faecalis suppressed pathways associated with positive immune regulation and

defense responses in LPS-treated cells, **(Fig. 1A, SI 1-3)**. To explore how *E. faecalis*

interferes with NF-κB signaling, we examined transcripts of key genes in this pathway.

LPS alone increased transcripts that encode the LPS co-receptor CD14 [23], the NF-

κB transcription factor p65, and the transcription factor p50 precursors p100 and p105

(Fig. 1B, Table S1, SI 4-6). *E. faecalis* significantly suppressed some of these LPS-

induced transcripts, with *Myd88* expression reduced ~2-fold lower in MOI 100-infected

LPS-untreated macrophages and nearly 4-fold lower in MOI 100-infected LPS-treated

macrophages compared to controls **(Fig. 1B, Table S1)**. This suppression may explain

why NF-κB is inactive following MOI 100 infection, despite higher transcript levels of

genes encoding p65, p100 and p105 compared to uninfected cells **(Fig. 1B, Table S1,**

SI 4-6). Consistent with transcriptional findings, MyD88 protein levels were also lower

in MOI 100-infected macrophages with or without LPS. Predictably, downstream

phosphorylated proteins TAK1, IKK, IκBα, and p65 were also reduced, whereas the

levels of the unphosphorylated proteins of TAK1, IKKα and p65 were unchanged **(Fig.**

1C and Fig. S1A).

Since MyD88 also activates AP-1 **(Fig. S1B)**, we investigated components of this

pathway, including ERK, c-Jun N-terminal kinases (JNK), p38, and AP-1 (c-Jun and

c-Fos). While LPS did not affect AP-1 pathway transcript levels **(Fig. 1B, Table S1)**,

MOI 100 infection reduced p38 transcripts compared to uninfected macrophages. In

LPS-treated cells, MOI 100 infection decreased *Fos* (encoding c-Fos) transcripts

relative to controls. Protein analysis showed significantly reduced phosphorylated

ERK at MOI 100, regardless of LPS presence **(Fig. 1C)**, while total and

phosphorylated levels of p38 and JNK, as well as total ERK levels were unaffected

(Fig. 1C and S1C). Minimal changes in phosphorylated c-Jun and c-Fos at MOI 100

suggest that *E. faecalis* likely interferes with AP-1 activation to a lesser degree than

with NF-κB **(Fig. S1C),** cumulatively suppressing macrophage activation.

To determine if *E. faecalis* affects other aspects of MyD88-related signaling, beyond

suppressing *Myd88* expression, we scrutinized the RNA-seq data to include a wider

range of immune signaling genes like pathogen recognition receptors. While *Tlr4*

transcript levels remained unchanged by *E. faecalis* infection, expression of *Cd14* was

reduced following 6 h of infection of LPS-treated cells, indicating that *E. faecalis* might

also impact cargo internalization, since CD14 mediates the LPS-induced

internalization of extracellular molecules [23] **(Fig. 1D and Table S1)**. We therefore

examined receptor endocytosis, but observed no marked difference in CD14

internalization, suggesting that *E. faecalis* infection-mediated suppression of NF-κB

cannot be explained by changes in CD14 levels and internalization **(Fig. 1D)**. Similarly,

E. faecalis infection had no effect on TLR2 internalization with or without LTA **(Fig.**

S1D). Taken together, these data show that *E. faecalis* infection suppresses NF-κB

activation in macrophages by reducing MyD88 protein levels preventing the

downstream phosphorylation cascade and therefore leading to NF-κB suppression.

***E. faecalis*-derived lactic acid is essential for NF-κB suppression in**

macrophages

To investigate the bacterial factors involved in suppression of macrophage activation,

we screened a ~15,000 member *E. faecalis* mariner transposon library [24] for mutants

that failed to suppress LPS-induced NF-κB activation in RAW 264.7 macrophages.

We identified 151 transposon mutants in our primary screen **(Fig. S2A)** which were

then subjected to secondary analyses for growth defects **(Fig. S2B)**, leading to a final

list of 47 transposon mutants that failed to suppress NF-κB activation **(Fig. 2A, Table**

S2). Since bacterial growth was conducted in media containing a pH indicator, we

noted that 18 of 47 mutants failed to acidify the media as a function of growth as

compared to WT *E. faecalis* **(Fig. 2A)**. Among these, we identified *ldh1*

(OG1RF_10199), encoding lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) **(Fig. 2A)**, which reduces

pyruvate to L-lactate to generate NAD^+ for ongoing glycolysis in *E. faecalis* [25, 26]. L-

lactate is released from *E. faecalis* in the form of lactic acid (LA), which is subsequently

deprotonated to L-lactate, releasing a hydrogen ion (H^+) and in turn lowering the pH in

the surrounding environment. Since acidification is a defining feature of *E. faecalis*

metabolism due to the release of lactic acid [27], we decided to further investigate the

impact of LDH on NF-κB activation.

The *E. faecalis* genome contains two LDH genes, *ldh1* and *ldh2,* where LDH1 plays

the major role in lactic acid production under laboratory conditions as compared to

LDH2 [25]. As predicted, and confirming the result of the transposon screen, infection

of RAW 264.7 macrophages with Δ*ldh1* or the Δ*ldh1*Δ*ldh2* double mutant (hereafter

called Ldh), failed to suppress LPS-induced NF-κB activation as compared to WT *E.*

faecalis, Δ*ldh2,* or *ldh1* complementation strains **(Fig. 2B).** Failure to suppress

macrophage activation was not due to a growth defect of the *ldh1* mutant, whether

grown in BHI or cell culture medium **(Fig. S3A-B)**. Lactic acid accumulated in culture

supernatants of WT *E. faecalis* infection in an MOI-dependent manner after 6 h of

incubation with RAW264.7 cells **(Fig. S3C-D)**. In contrast to WT *E. faecalis*, infection

with either the $\Delta ldh1$ and Ldh mutants produced less lactic acid and, consequently,

acidified the environment at a slower rate than WT *E. faecalis* **(Fig. S3E-G)**. Consistent

with previous reports, $\Delta ldh2$ was attenuated for lactate release **(Fig. S3E-G)** [25, 28].

To confirm that LDH-mediated macrophage suppression was not specific to RAW

264.7 macrophages, we assessed the release of the NF-κB-regulated cytokine IL-6

from murine bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMDM) infected with $\Delta ldh1$ and Ldh

mutants compared to WT *E. faecalis* **(Fig. 2C)**. Similar to RAW 264.7 macrophages,

infection with both the WT or the $\Delta ldh1$ complemented strains had no effect on the

release of IL-6 by BMDMs, whereas infection of LPS-treated cells with either $\Delta ldh1$ or

Ldh stimulated IL-6 production **(Fig. 2C)**. Additionally, infection of BMDMs and the

human monocyte-like cell line THP-1 with WT *E. faecalis* also decreased the levels of

MyD88 and p-ERK while the levels remained similar to uninfected cells following

infection with the Ldh mutant **(Fig. S3H)**. Accordingly, we also detected higher levels

of p-ERK and p-p65 in macrophages infected with the Ldh mutant as compared to WT

E. faecalis, further supporting a role for LDH in *E. faecalis* suppression of macrophage

NF-κB activation, which in turn leads to lower levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines **(Fig.**

S3I). Multiplex cytokine analysis of RAW264.7 cells also confirmed reduced levels of

pro-inflammatory cytokines (IL-6, IL-12 p70 and IFNγ) and chemokines (CCL3, CCL4,

CCL5, CSF2 and CSF3) for WT-infected macrophages in presence of LPS **(Fig. S3J)**.

Furthermore, supplementation of macrophages infected with the Ldh mutant with a

minimum of 20 mM lactic acid restored suppression of LPS-induced NF-κB activation

to similar levels as WT *E. faecalis* **(Fig. 2D)**. Under non-infectious conditions, lactic

acid concentrations above 40 mM were sufficient to suppress LPS-induced NF-κB

activation **(Fig. 2E)** without compromising macrophage viability **(S3D)**. Moreover, WT

E. faecalis suppressed LPS-induced NF-κB activation even in cells pre-activated with

LPS for 1 h prior to infection **(Fig. S4A-B)**. As expected, the Ldh mutant failed to

suppress NF-κB activation independent of LPS pre-exposure **(Fig. S4A-B)**. Overall,

these results demonstrate that *E. faecalis* suppression of NF-κB activation in

macrophages is mediated by LDH-derived LA.

***E. faecalis* reduction of extracellular pH is critical for suppressing the**

macrophage response to infection

Among the 47 transposon mutants that failed to suppress macrophage activation, 18

did not acidify the medium as well as WT *E. faecalis*. However, of these 18 "weakly

acidifying" mutants, only 11 produced less lactate **(Fig. 2A)**, indicating that overall

acidification - rather than lactic acid production alone - contributes to suppressing LPS-

induced NF-κB activation during *E. faecalis* infection. Given that lactic acid production

both lowers extracellular pH and increases extracellular lactate levels, we examined

whether lactate or low pH by lactic acid mediates the suppression of NF-κB activation.

Supplementation with 40 mM lactic acid effectively suppressed NF-κB activation,

whereas 40 mM sodium L-lactate did not, indicating that low pH, rather than lactate,

drives the suppression phenotype **(Fig. 3A)**. To confirm this, we mimicked the acidity

of filtered bacterial-free Ldh supernatants to pH 6.4 (the pH observed at MOI 100)

using HCl or neutralized WT supernatants to pH 7.8 (the pH observed at MOI 1) with

Tris. These supernatants were collected from *E. faecalis* cultures inoculated at various

MOI in cell culture medium and incubated for 6 h mirroring infection assays. All

acidified bacteria-free supernatants suppressed LPS-induced NF-κB activation across

all MOIs, while neutralized supernatants failed to do so **(Fig. 3B-C)** in the absence of

cytotoxicity **(S5B-C)**. Consistent with previous reports [29], acidifying cell culture

media to pH 6.4 using HCl or phosphoric acid (H_3PO_4) suppressed LPS-induced NF-

κB activation without affecting macrophage viability **(Fig. 3D and S5D).** Adjusting Ldh

mutant cell-free supernatants with HCl or H_3PO_4 to pH 6.4 also rescued suppression

of LPS-induced NF-κB activation to levels comparable to WT *E. faecalis* **(Fig. S5E-F)**.

p-p65 levels were also reduced in macrophages infected with the Ldh mutant with LPS

co-stimulation when supplemented either with lactic acid or HCl, compared to those

without acid supplementation **(Fig. S5G)**.

Since *E. faecalis* can persist and replicate within macrophages [9, 30], we investigated

whether intracellular *E. faecalis* contributed to NF-κB suppression. We therefore

infected macrophages with *E. faecalis* at different MOI for 3 h and killed the

extracellular *E. faecalis* with gentamicin and penicillin G as previously described [9].

In the absence of extracellular *E. faecalis* and its associated acidification of the

medium, we observed that NF-κB activation was significantly increased at all MOIs

during intracellular infection, without significant cell death **(Fig. S6A-B).** In fact, *E.*

faecalis infection resulted in higher NF-κB activation than the LPS positive control **(Fig.**

S6A). Together, our results suggest that extracellular acidification, rather than lactate

levels or intracellular infection, is important for the immune modulation mediated by *E.*

faecalis in macrophages.

***E. faecalis*-lowered pH suppresses MyD88 expression by disrupting STAT3**

activity

To understand the mechanism by which *E. faecalis*-mediated acidification impacts NF-

κB activation, we focused on the reduction of MyD88 levels, which would give rise to

the observed downstream signaling defects. STAT3 is a transcription factor that

regulates *Myd88* transcript levels [31]. STAT3 activation depends on its

phosphorylation [32] by ERK at serine 727, preceded by ERK phosphorylation by MEK

[33-35]. STAT3 activity can also be inhibited by acetylation [31]. Western blot analysis

following 6 h of *E. faecalis* infection showed reduced MyD88 levels in WT infections

compared to uninfected or Ldh-infected macrophages, along with reduced ERK, MEK,

and STAT3 phosphorylation in WT-infected macrophages **(Fig. 4A)**. Total STAT3

protein levels were slightly reduced in WT-infected macrophages whereas total MEK

protein levels were unchanged.

To evaluate whether *E. faecalis* infection reduces STAT3 binding to the *Myd88*

promoter, we performed chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) followed by qPCR.

Using the Eukaryotic Promoter Database (EPD), we identified six potential STAT3

binding sites near the *Myd88* transcription starting site that could be grouped and

probed based on their proximity: region 1 (R1; -1147 and -1065), region 2 (R2; -61

and -23) and region 3 (R3; 386 and 488). STAT3 binding was reduced at these regions

in WT *E. faecalis* infected macrophages treated with LPS, whereas Ldh-infected LPS-

treated macrophages showed no reduction **(Fig. 4B)**. These findings indicate that *E.*

faecalis suppresses *Myd88* expression by interfering with STAT3 activity. Further,

lactic acid alone was sufficient to reduce STAT3 binding at these sites, consistent with

a model in which *E. faecalis*-derived acidification governs *Myd88* expression by

impairing STAT3 activity.

Since STAT1 may also regulate *Myd88* transcript levels [36], we conducted NF-κB

reporter assays with MEK, STAT1 and STAT3 inhibitors and agonists to assess their

roles in NF-κB signaling **(Fig. 4C-D and S7A-C),** at concentrations that do not cause

cytotoxicity **(Table S3)**. RAW264.7 cells were pre-treated with each compound for 30

min to prime the cells. STAT3 inhibition with Stattic impaired NF-κB activation in the

presence of LPS, regardless of *E. faecalis* infection **(Fig. 4C)**. In addition, consistent

with MEK's role in the phosphorylation of STAT3 and, ultimately, in regulating NF-κB

[37], pharmacological inhibition of MEK with Selumetinib (Selu) suppressed LPS-

induced NF-κB **(Fig. S7A)**. By contrast, STAT1 inhibition with Fludarabine (Fluda)

reduced, but did not completely abolish, NF-κB activation **(Fig. S7B)**, indicating that

STAT3 plays a more critical role in NF-κB activation than STAT1. Moreover, LPS-

induced NF-κB activation was restored in *E. faecalis*-infected cells treated with the

STAT3 agonist ML115 but not with the STAT1 agonist 2NP **(Fig. 4D and Fig. S7C)**,

reinforcing the central role of STAT3 in NF-κB activation. Functionally, treatment of

macrophages with ML115 to overcome *E. faecalis*-mediated STAT3 suppression

enhanced intracellular bacterial clearance by ~1-log CFU, whereas treatment with 2NP

did not **(Fig. 4E)**. In a murine wound infection model, topical application of the infected

wounds with the STAT3 agonist ML115 reduced *E. faecalis* CFU by 1.1-log compared

to PBS treatment **(Fig. 4F)**. Collectively, these results demonstrate that *E. faecalis*

interferes with STAT3 activity to suppress *Myd88* transcription, thereby inhibiting NF-

κB activation and effective immune clearance.

MCT1 and GPR81 mediate NF-κB suppression in *E. faecalis*-infected

macrophages

Macrophages express several receptors that can sense lactate gradients and

extracellular pH variation [38, 39]. To investigate the role of pH-sensitive lactate

transporters and sensors during *E. faecalis* infection, we used RNA silencing in the

RAW 264.7 reporter cell line to knock down the genes that encode for

monocarboxylate transporter 1 (MCT1), G protein-coupled receptor 81 (GPR81, also

known as hydroxycarboxylic acid receptor 1), and G protein-coupled receptor 65

(GPR65). Individual knockdowns of these genes partially restored NF-κB activation in

E. faecalis-infected macrophages, with or without LPS **(Fig. S8A-C)**. Notably, double

knockdown of *Mct-1* and *Gpr81*, as well as a triple knockdown of *Mct-1*, *Gpr81* and

Gpr65, restored NF-κB activation in macrophages treated with LPS in the presence *E.*

faecalis **(Fig. 5A-B)**. By contrast, double knockdown of *Gpr65* with either *Mct-1* or

Gpr81 did not yield similar effects **(Fig. S8D-E)**, suggesting that GPR65 plays a lesser

role in sensing lactate/protons and mediating NF-κB suppression during *E. faecalis*

infection. As a control, GAPDH knockdown had no effect on NF-kB activation in LPS-

treated macrophages or suppression of NF-kB activation in *E. faecalis*-infected

macrophages **(Fig. S8F)**. The gene knockdown efficiencies were confirmed by RT-

PCR **(Fig. S9)**.

To further verify the roles of the MCT and GPCR proteins in NF-κB suppression, we

treated macrophages with the MCT-1/MCT-4 inhibitor 2-cyano-3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)-2-

propenoic acid (CHC) and the adenylyl cyclase inhibitor MDL-12330A hydrochloride

(MDL-12) in the presence and absence of both *E. faecalis* and LPS **(Fig. S10A-C)**.

MDL-12 treatment alone slightly reduced NF-κB activation **(Fig. S10B),** consistent with

the role of cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP) in NF-κB signaling [40]. However,

combined treatment of CHC and MDL-12 restored NF-κB activation in *E. faecalis*-

infected macrophages to levels comparable to LPS treatment alone **(Fig. S10C)**

indicating that G protein-coupled receptors and MCT-1 mediate lactic acid signal to

suppress macrophages activation.

Lactate from *Staphylococcus aureus* (*S. aureus*) biofilms alters histone acetylation in leukocytes by increasing histone deacetylase 6 (HDAC6) activity and reducing HDAC11 activity [41]. To assess HDAC contribution to lactic acid-mediated NF-κB suppression in macrophages during *E. faecalis* infection, we measured histone acetylation (H3Ac) in uninfected macrophages and macrophages infected with either *E. faecalis* WT or the Ldh mutant. H3Ac levels were unchanged in WT-infected macrophages but decreased in Ldh-infected cells **(Fig. S11A).** Treatment with the HDAC pan inhibitor trichostatin A (trichoA) partially restored NF-κB activation in LPS-treated, *E. faecalis*-infected macrophages **(Fig S11B)**. Selective inhibition of HDAC6 via tubastatin A (tubA) increased NF-κB activation in WT *E. faecalis*-infected LPS-treated macrophages, but not in *E. faecalis*-infected cells **(Fig S11C)**, suggesting that HDAC6 minimally impacts NF-κB suppression. Inhibition of other HDACs (HDAC11, HDAC8, HDAC4/5/7/9, and HDAC1) failed to prevent NF-κB suppression **(Fig S11D-G)**. Together these results show that MCT-1 and GPR81 play major roles in NF-κB suppression during *E. faecalis* infection, while HDACs have a minimal role.

E. faecalis lactate dehydrogenase contributes to E. faecalis persistence in wound infections

E. faecalis infection suppresses the immune response and impairs healing in a murine model of wound infection [42]. Hence, we reasoned that LDH-mediated immune modulation is important for *E. faecalis* survival in wounds. To test this, wounds were inoculated with either WT *E. faecalis* or the Ldh mutant. Both strains showed similar survival at 24 hpi **(Fig. 6A)**, despite LDH-dependent depletion of lactate in wound tissues at the same time point **(Fig. S12A)**. At 7 dpi, CFU of the Ldh mutant were ~1-log lower than those of WT **(Fig. 6B)**, indicating a stronger role for LDH in persistent

rather than in acute infection. Analysis of p-p65, p-ERK, and MyD88 in both uninfected

and infected wounds revealed a reduction in p-ERK at 24 hpi and all three proteins at

7 dpi for WT, but not Ldh mutant, infected wounds **(Fig. 6C)**. These results show that

LDH contributes significantly to persistent *E. faecalis* wound infections by modulating

immune signaling pathways.

***E. faecalis* LDH-mediated immune suppression promotes *E. coli* survival during**

mixed species infection

We previously showed that co-infection with *E. faecalis* enhances *E. coli* virulence and

growth in a mouse wound infection model [43]. We hypothesized that this phenotype

is partly due to *E. faecalis*-mediated immune suppression, creating a favorable

environment for *E. coli*. To test this, we examined whether infection with the Ldh

mutant fails to suppress NF-κB in the presence of *E. coli*. In fact, infection of RAW

264.7 macrophages with the Ldh mutant resulted in higher NF-κB activation compared

to co-infection with WT *E. faecalis*, indicating that the Ldh mutant is less effective at

suppressing *E. coli*-induced NF-κB activation **(Fig. 7A)**. During mixed-species wound

infection, co-inoculation with a 1:1 ratio of *E. coli* and either WT *E. faecalis* or the Ldh

mutant showed similar *E. faecalis* CFU regardless of *E. coli* presence at 24 hpi **(Fig.**

7B). However, *E. coli* growth was significantly enhanced during co-infection with WT

E. faecalis but not with the Ldh mutant **(Fig. 7C)**. To exclude lactate as a nutrient

source for *E. coli*, we tested its growth *in vitro* with increasing lactate concentrations

and found no growth enhancement **(Fig. S12B)**. These findings indicate that LDH-

mediated immune suppression by *E. faecalis* promotes *E. coli* growth during wound

infection.

Discussion

E. faecalis is among the top five pathogens associated with hospital acquired infections including CAUTI, central line-associated bloodstream infection and surgical site infection [4, 44]. While previous studies focused on host inflammatory responses at lower MOI [20, 45], we and others have shown that *E. faecalis* exhibits immunomodulatory properties at higher MOI via mechanisms and bacterial factors that were previously unclear [21, 22, 46]. Here we demonstrate that *E. faecalis* infection at MOI 100 suppresses macrophage activation by interfering with STAT3 activity, resulting in reduced MyD88 levels, and inhibition of downstream signaling events required for NF-κB activation **(Fig. 8)**. Additionally, we identify *E. faecalis* lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) and its lactic acid product as critical factors for macrophage suppression and persistence in wounds, as well as for promoting *E. coli* growth during co-infection.

Lactic acid production is a metabolic hallmark of *E. faecalis* fermentation [47]. *E. faecalis* LDH catalyzes the reduction of pyruvate to L-lactate, which is exported as lactic acid and deprotonates into L-lactate at physiological pH, reducing the local pH. Here we show that *ldh1* is necessary, and its byproduct (lactic acid) is sufficient, to suppress LPS-induced NF-κB activation. This may be why LDH-deficient *E. faecalis* exhibit reduced virulence in systemic murine infections [26]. Similarly, LDH is important for virulence of *S. aureus* in a murine sepsis model [48]. Lactic acid-induced immunosuppression appears widespread; other lactic acid bacteria, such as *Lactobacillus*, suppress NF-κB activation in macrophages and myometrial cells [49, 50]. While we focused on the role of LDH in this study, we identified additional mutants that failed to suppress LPS-induced NF-κB activation despite acidifying the

environment, suggesting additional immune suppressive mechanisms, calling for

further investigation. Beyond infection, lactic acid contributes to immune suppression

in tumor microenvironments, inducing tissue acidosis that suppresses NF-κB activity,

through mechanisms involving pH changes and histone acetylation [51-62]. Here we

show that *E. faecalis* lactic acid-mediated suppression of MyD88 levels and

downstream signaling events can be mimicked by acidic conditions, driven by pH

effects rather than phosphorylation changes. These mechanisms may be context

dependent and warrant further study.

The MEK-ERK-STAT3 axis is disrupted by *E. faecalis*-derived lactic acid, reducing

STAT3 phosphorylation and binding to the *Myd88* promoter, consistent with previous

reports [31]. While other bacterial infections activate the MEK/ERK cascade for

oxidative and nitrosative bursts, endosomal trafficking, and proinflammatory

macrophage polarization [63-65], *E. faecalis* subverts this defense [66, 67].

Salmonella typhimurium and *Helicobacter pylori*, for example, induce STAT3

phosphorylation via secreted factors to alter immune responses [66]. We propose that

pH sensitive kinases, including MEK and ERK, are disrupted at lower intracellular pH,

inhibiting STAT3 activity [68]. Indeed, pH 6.2-6.4 reduces MEK and ERK

phosphorylation in fibroblasts [69]. Moreover, reduced IL-6 secretion from *E. faecalis*-

infected macrophages likely contributes to diminished STAT3 phosphorylation [70],

necessitating further exploration.

How then does extracellular *E. faecalis*-derived lactic acid exert these pH-driven

intracellular effects? We identified the host lactate transporter MCT-1 and the lactate

sensor GPR81 as mediators of NF-κB suppression during *E. faecalis* infection. MCT-

1 import of lactate mediates the inhibition of HDAC11 activity that leads to the

activation of HDAC6 to promote IL-10 release, whereas GPR81 sensing of

extracellular lactate prevents the activation of the transcription factor YAP and,

ultimately, elicits NF-κB suppression [71, 72]. Expression of the genes encoding MCT-

1 and GPR81 is pH-dependent [25-27]. Moreover, MCT-1 can transport both lactate

and protons, and both MCT-1 and GPR81 are activated at lower pH [38, 73]. Lactate

supplementation alone did not replicate *E. faecalis* LDH-mediated immune

suppression, suggesting that MCT-1/GPR81 activation is pH dependent. In turn, we

therefore propose that MCT-1 transport of protons into the cell disrupts MEK-ERK-

STAT3 phosphorylation. Initially, our hypothesis seems to contrast with a study

showing that lactic acid can induce phosphorylation of ERK in rat hepatocyte RLN-10

cells via GPR81 sensing [74]. Nonetheless, that study was conducted under adjusted

neutral pH, ultimately excluding the potential effect of pH on ERK phosphorylation.

Similarly, studies showing increased MEK and ERK phosphorylation via GPR81 used

sodium lactate, which does not lower pH in their experiments [75, 76]. Conversely,

others have observed that acidosis (pH 4-5) can activate ERK2, but not ERK1, in

human epidermoid squamous carcinoma A431 cells [77], whereas pH 6.6 can

increase the phosphorylation of ERK after 2 h of incubation but gradually inhibit

phosphorylation after 4 h in human prostate carcinoma epithelial 22Rv1 cells [78].

Similarly, pH 6.3 was observed to inhibit ERK phosphorylation in Jurkat cells after 24

h [79]. Altogether, these studies are consistent with our model that pH affects the

phosphorylation status of these kinases.

E. faecalis wound infections are immune suppressive and delay wound healing [42].

We show that *E. faecalis* LDH activity drives immune suppression, *E. faecalis*

persistence in wounds, as well as the growth of *E. coli* during co-infection. Given the

prevalence of infections caused by lactic acid producing bacteria [80, 81], as well as

their contribution to healthy microbiomes, additional studies are needed to determine

mechanistically how pH and lactate promote polymicrobial interactions more broadly.

Importantly, compounds that override this suppression and activate macrophage NF-

κB signaling during *E. faecalis* infection are effective to enhance macrophage

intracellular killing of bacteria [82, 83]. Here, we observed that the STAT3 agonist

ML115 was also effective both *in vitro* and *in vivo* to reduce the bacterial burden of *E.*

faecalis infection, further highlighting the therapeutic potential of immunomodulation

for immunosuppressive bacterial infections. Overall, a comprehensive understanding

of the immunological pathways affected by *E. faecalis* infection could inform new

strategies to mitigate persistent infections.

462
463

Materials and Methods

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

Uropathogenic *E. coli* (UPEC) strain UTI89 [84, 85] was grown overnight in Luria-

Bertani (LB) (Difco, France) broth or agar at 37°C under static conditions. *E. faecalis*

strain OG1RF [86] or *ldh* mutants [87] were grown statically in brain heart infusion

(BHI) (Becton, Dickinson, USA) broth or agar at 37°C overnight. Overnight cultures of

bacteria were centrifuged at 6,000 g for 5 minutes and resuspended in PBS at OD_{600}

0.7 (2×10^8 CFU/mL) for *E. faecalis* and at OD_{600} 0.4 (2×10^8 CFU/mL) for *E. coli*.

Genetic manipulations

To create deletion mutants, we used a thermosensitive shuttle plasmid pCGP213

which was isolated using the Monarch Plasmid Miniprep Kit (New England BioLabs

Inc., USA) following the manufacturer's instruction [87]. OG1RF genomic DNA is

isolated using Wizard Genomic DNA Purification Kit (Promega, USA) and Phusion

DNA polymerase (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Singapore) was used to amplify

approximately 1 kb upstream and downstream of the gene of interested in accordance

to manufacturer's protocol. Primers used in the study are listed in **Table S4**.

Subsequently, the amplified products were sewn together using the primers

dLDH1_For, dLDH1_Rev, dLDH2_For and dLDH2_Rev. *ldh1* and *ldh2* constructs

were then subcloned individually into pGCP213 using In-Fusion HD Cloning Kit using

(Clontech, Takara, Japan) following manufacturer's instruction. Deletion constructs

were then transformed into *E. coli* and correct transformants were selected at 37°C

under erythromycin (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO) pressure 500 µg/mL (MP, France).

The amplified plasmids were the purified from *E. coli* using the Monarch Plasmid

Miniprep Kit. The plasmids were then transformed into OG1RF using electroporation,

and the correct transformants were selected at 30°C under erythromycin pressure 25

µg/mL. Chromosomal integrations were selected by passaging 37°C in the absence

of erythromycin. The loss of *ldh1* or *ldh2* is then verified by PCR using primer pairs

LDH1_F, LDH1_R, LDH2_F and LDH2_R. Δ*ldh1*Δ*ldh2* was created by subcloning the

pGCP213-*ldh1* deletion construct into Δ*ldh2*. All deletion constructs were

subsequently confirmed using whole genomic sequence to ensure that only the gene

of interested is deleted in the absence of any spontaneous mutation.

Growth kinetics and pH curve

Bacterial cultures were grown as described above and overnight cultures were

normalized to obtain a final concentration of 10^3 cells/mL before inoculating at 1:25

ratio into 200 µL of either BHI or DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS. Subsequently,

growth rates were measured by recording OD 600 over 20 h at 37°C using a microplate

reader (Tecan infinite M200 Pro, Switzerland).

For pH measurements, bacterial cultures were grown and normalized to 3.4 x 10^7

cells/mL (assuming MOI 100 for 10^6 macrophages) in DMEM supplemented with 10%

FBS. The pH was then measured at 1-h interval for up to 6 h, and subsequently

measured at 8 h and 24 h using a digital pH meter (Sartorius, Germany).

Cell culture

RAW 264.7 cells derived from RAW 264.7 macrophages (Invivogen, USA), containing

a plasmid encoding a secreted embryonic alkaline phosphatase (SEAP) reporter

under transcriptional control of an NF-κB-inducible promoter, were cultivated in

Dulbecco Modified Eagle medium (DMEM) containing 4500 mg/L high glucose (1X)

with 4.0 nM L-glutamine, without sodium pyruvate (Gibco, Thermo Fisher Scientific,

Singapore) and supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS; PAA) supplemented

with 200 µg/mL Zeocin (Gibco, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Singapore), at 37°C in 5%

CO_2.

Bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMDM) isolation and cultivation

BMDMs were harvested according to previously published protocol [88]. Briefly,

femurs were harvested from 6 to 10 weeks old C57BL/6J mice (InVivos Pte. Ltd.,

Singapore). Following euthanasia, the legs were first sprayed with 70% ethanol before

dissection and removing the skin and muscles. The bone was then placed in 70%

ethanol and transferred into a sterile flow hood. Subsequently, the bone was cut using

scissor and bone marrow was flushed out with cell culture media (containing DMEM

with 10% FBS and supplemented with 100 U/mL penicillin and 100 μg/mL

streptomycin (Gibco, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Singapore) using a 26G needle into a

sterile falcon tube (Becton, Dickinson and Company, Franklin Lakes, NJ).

Subsequently, cell suspension was centrifuged at 500 G for 5 mins and the

supernatant was removed. The cell pellet was then resuspended in 1X RBC Lysis

Buffer (eBioscience, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Singapore) for lysis of erythrocytes.

After 5 mins, PBS was added to inactivate the lysis buffer before centrifuging the cell

suspension. Supernatant was discarded, and cell pellet was resuspended in cell

culture media supplemented with 100 ng/mL macrophage colony-stimulating factor

(M-CSF) (Biolegend, San Diego, USA), 100 U/mL penicillin and 100 μg/mL

streptomycin. Cells were adjusted to 2×10^6 cells/mL and seeded into T175 flask (Nunc,

Thermo Fisher Scientific, China) and incubated at 37°C with 5% CO_2. After 2-3 days,

cells were washed, and fresh cell culture media supplemented with 100 ng/mL M-CSF

was added. Macrophages are fully differentiated after 6 to 7 days, ready for

experimental use.

RAW 264.7 macrophage or BMDM infection

RAW 264.7 cells and BMDM were seeded into 96-well and 6-well microtiter plates

(Nunc, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Singapore) with cell density of 1×10^5 or 1×10^6

cells/well respectively in antibiotic free media (DMEM with 10% heat inactivated FBS)

and incubated overnight at 37°C with 5% CO_2 when necessary. Following overnight

incubation, the cells were washed once with PBS and fresh media was added. The

SEAP reporter assay was established by empirically defining the minimal agonist LPS concentration that induced the maximum SEAP activity in the absence of cell death. Cells were stimulated using LPS purified from *E. coli* O111:B4 (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO) (100 ng/mL) as positive control, or media alone as a negative control. RAW 264.7 cells were infected with *E. faecalis* (at MOI of 100:1, 10:1 and 1:1) for 6 h with or without TLR agonists. For co-infection experiments, RAW 264.7 cells were simultaneously infected with *E. coli* UTI89 (MOI of 0.125:1) and *E. faecalis* (MOI of 100:1).

ChIP-qPCR and histone H3 acetylation assay

For each sample, chromatin immunoprecipitated DNA was captured using a STAT3 Rabbit mAb (D3Z2G; CST) and a high-sensitivity ChIP kit (Cat. #ab185913; Abcam) according to the manufacturer's instructions and as inspired by [72] .The captured and purified DNA was prepared for ChIP-qPCR, and specific primers (**Table S3**) were designed for the sites that we identified as potential STAT3 binding sites near the *Myd88* transcriptional starting site (TSS). The prediction of STAT3 binding sites around the *Myd88* TSS was made using the Eukaryotic Promoter Database (EPD) (https://epd.expasy.org/epd/). We identified six potential STAT3 binding sites near the *Myd88* TSS (-1147, -1065, -61, -23, 386 and 488). We named them region 1 (R1, -1147 and -1065), region 2 (-61 and -23), and region 3 (386 and 488). For R1, we designed primers that covered from region -100 to 0; for R2 from -1030 to -1182 and R3 from 362 to 464 **(Table S4)**. qPCR was performed for each primer set. Amplification was performed with KAPA SYBR Fast (Kapa Biosystems) with specific primers **(Table S4)** and detected by StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR machine (Applied Biosystems). Relative quantification was performed using the delta-delta method [89] with calibrator

primers that interrogate the *Gapdh* gene. Positive control was established for an RNA

polymerase binding site for the *Gapdh* gene. To measure the levels of histone H3

acetylation of samples infected with *E. faecalis*, the histone H3 acetylation assay Kit

(#ab115102, Abcam) was used as per the manufacturer's instructions.

Flow cytometry

To assess CD14 and TLR2 surface levels, flow cytometry was performed as described

in [23, 83]. RAW 264.7 cells were either infected or treated with LPS (1 μg/mL) or LTA

(10 μg/mL) alone or in combination for 30 min to 120 min before CD14 (LPS) and

TLR2 (LTA) endocytoses were examined by flow cytometry. Cells (10^7 per sample)

were then incubated with 10 µL of Fc-blocker (anti-CD16/CD32 antibody; BioLegend)

for 30 min, followed by incubation with a CD14 and TLR2 marker-conjugated

antibodies (BioLegend) (1:100 dilution) for 30 min at room temperature. Cells were

then centrifuged at 500 *g* for 5 min at 4°C and washed in FACS buffer (2% FBS and

0.2 mM ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) in PBS (Gibco, Thermo Fisher

Scientific)). Following which, cells were analyzed using the BD LSRFortessa X-20 Cell

Analyzer (Becton Dickinson). The samples were initially gated side scatter area (SSC-

A) by forward scatter area (FSC-A) to select the RAW264.7 populations. The

RAW264.7 population was subsequently gated forward scatter width (FSC-W) by

SSC-A to remove doublet populations. The resulting single-cell population was then

assessed for CD14 and TLR2 fluorescent marker. Data was calculated relative to

uninfected untreated cells which were set as 100% levels for the examined receptors.

siRNA transfection

Silencer select pre-designed siRNA (Thermo Fisher Scientific) against *Slc16a1 (Mct-1)*, *Hcar1 (Gpr81), Gpr65 and Gapdh* were used. RAW264.7 cells were seeded at 40% density the day before transfection in 6-well plates, and siRNA transfections were performed with Silencer™ siRNA Transfection II Kit (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Cells were used for experiments after 48 h and also harvested at the same time point after transfection to verify successful gene silencing by RT-PCR.

Collection of bacteria cell-free culture supernatants

Bacteria were grown in cell culture media for 6 h, and bacteria-free culture supernatants were collected after centrifugation (6,000 *g*) followed by filtration (using a 0.2 μm syringe filter). Alternatively, supernatants were collected after infecting macrophages with bacteria at various MOIs and then filtered by using a 0.2 μm syringe filter. Sterility of bacteria-free culture supernatants were verified by the absence of viable bacteria when plated on BHI agar.

NF-κB reporter assay

Post-infection, 20 μL of supernatant was added to 180 μL of QUANTI-Blue reagent (Invivogen) and incubated overnight at 37 °C. SEAP levels were determined at 640 nm using a TECAN M200 microplate reader. All experiments were performed in biological triplicate.

Cell viability assay

Simultaneously with supernatant collection for SEAP determination, culture supernatants were collected from each well to measure lactate dehydrogenase (LDH)

release, using an LDH cytotoxicity assay (Clontech) according to manufacturer's instructions. Background LDH activity was determined using mock (PBS) treated RAW 264.7 cells. Maximal LDH activity was determined by lysing cells with 1% Triton-X. Each condition was assayed in triplicate. Percentage cytotoxicity was calculated as follows: (sample absorbance-background absorbance)/(maximal absorbance-background absorbance) x 100.

Transposon library screen

The transposon library was kindly provided by Professor Dunny Gary [90]. To screen the library, the mutants were first inoculated into DMEM for 24 h and 20 µL of the bacteria suspension will be transferred to previously seeded RAW 264.7 cells with 180 µL fresh DMEM in the presence of 100 ng/mL of LPS in 96 well microtitre plate. Macrophages were stimulated for 6 h before the supernatant was collected and tested with SEAP assay to determine the NF-κB activity. LPS-only group was used as positive control for reporter activity and signals higher than the means of LPS-only group minus 1 standard deviation was considered positive hits and non-suppressing mutants. Growth kinetics of the selected mutants were performed to exclude the mutants that grow poorly in DMEM. In addition, pictures of the overnight cultures were taken to record the acidifying ability of each mutant by phenol red, a color indicator in DMEM.

Mutants that grew similarly to *E. faecalis* wildtype further underwent a secondary screening, where they were normalized to MOI 100 and infected the RAW 264.7 cells in the presence of LPS. For the secondary screen, wildtype was used as control and signals higher than means of wildtype group plus 2 standard deviations were

considered weak-suppressing mutants and validated hits. To measure the acidification

ability of the validated hits, 10^8 CFU of bacteria were inoculated into 5 mL of DMEM

for indicated time, and the pH value was determined by pH meter.

Lactate concentration measurement

Bacteria were grown in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS for 6 h in the absence of

macrophages before collecting the supernatant and storing it at -80°C until

assessment by the L-Lactate Assay Kit (Abcam, Cambridge, UK), according to

manufacturer's recommendations. All samples were assessed using the same kit lot

and at the same time to avoid inter-assay variability. Alternatively, blood gas analysis

using abl90 flex series analyser (Radiometer Medical, Singapore) to quantify lactate

concentration.

IL-6 quantification

Supernatants were collected from RAW 264.7 cells 6 hpi and stored at -80°C until

assessment by the ELISA MAX Deluxe Set Mouse IL-6 assay kit (Biolegend, San

Diego, USA), according to manufacturer's recommendations. All samples were

assessed using the same kit lot and at the same time to avoid inter-assay variability.

Cytokine Luminex xMAP analysis

Supernatants were collected from RAW 264.7 cells 6 hpi and stored at -80°C until

assessment by the Bio-Plex ProTM mouse cytokine 23-plex assay kit (Bio-Rad

Laboratories), according to manufacturer's recommendations. All samples were

assessed using the same kit lot and at the same time to avoid inter-assay variability.

Mouse model of wound infection

Bacterial cultures, prepared as described above, were used to infect wounds in 7 to 8 weeks old, 20 to 23 g female C57BL/6J mice (InVivos, Singapore). Wounds were prepared as previously described [43]. Briefly, mice were anesthetized with isoflurane (3%) and the dorsal hair was trimmed. After trimming, remaining fine hairs were removed by first applying Nair Cream (Church and Dwight Co, Charles Ewing Boulevard, USA) and shaving using a scalpel. Next, the skin was first disinfected using 70% ethanol and a 6 mm biopsy punch (Integra Miltex, New York, USA) was used to create a fill-thickness wound and inoculated with bacteria subsequently. Inoculum volumes of 10 µL, containing a bacterial suspension of either single or polymicrobial species prepared in PBS: (i) 10^2 CFU of *E. coli* strain UTI89 with 10^6 CFU *E. faecalis* wildtype, and (ii) 10^2 CFU of *E. coli* strain UTI89 with 10^6 CFU *E. faecalis* Ldh. Single species controls (10^2 CFU of *E. coli* strain UTI89, 10^6 CFU *E. faecalis* OG1RF, or 10^6 CFU *E. faecalis* Ldh) were performed alongside polymicrobial infections. The wound site was then sealed with a sterile transparent dressing (Tegaderm 3M, St Paul Minnesota, USA). After 24 h, animals were euthanized by carbon dioxide inhalation and cervical dislocation and a 1 cm by 1 cm squared piece of skin surrounding the wound was excised and homogenized in 1 mL PBS for CFU enumeration by serial dilution on MacConkey agar (Becton, Dickinson and Company, Franklin Lakes, NJ) or BHI agar supplemented with 10 µg/mL colistin (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO) and 10 µg/mL nalidixic acid (BHI-CNA) (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO) to isolate *E. coli* or *E. faecalis*, respectively.

RNA extraction

After 6 hpi with *E. faecalis* at various MOIs in the presence or absence of LPS (100

ng/mL), cells were washed once with the tissue culture grade 1X PBS (Gibco, Thermo

Fisher Scientific, Singapore) prior to RNA extraction. 1 mL of Trizol (Invitrogen,

Thermo Fisher, USA) per well and was stored at -80°C until RNA extraction using

Direct-zol RNA Miniprep Plus kit (Zymo Research, USA) according to manufacturer's

protocol. Briefly, 200 µL of chloroform (Sigma Aldrich, USA) was first added to 1 mL

of Trizol extracted samples, mixed vigorously for 2 min and allowed to stand at room

temperature for minimum 10 min. The samples were centrifuged at 12,000 *g* for 15

min at 4°C and the top layer (aqueous phase) was transferred to 500 µL of ethanol

(Fisher Scientific, Canada) before loading into the Zymo-Spin IIICG Column.

Subsequently, RNA extraction was performed according to manufacturer's protocol

for Direct-zol RNA Miniprep Plus kit. Next, extracted RNA samples were further

cleaned and concentrated using RNA Clean & Concentrator-5 (Zymo Research, USA)

following the manufacturer's protocol.

RNA samples were first screened using TapeStation (Aligent Technologies, USA) to

obtain RIN value and concentration. Qubit analysis was also performed to measure

the DNA and RNA concentration using Qubit dsDNA HS Assay Kit (Invitrogen, Thermo

Fisher Scientific, USA) and Qubit RNA BR Assay Kit (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher

Scientific, USA), before storage at -80°C until sequencing using an Illumina

Hiseq®2500 v.2 (Illumina, Singapore), 150 bp paired-end.

Protein extraction and western blot analysis

Following infection with *E. faecalis* as described previously, proteins were harvested

using 2x Laemmli buffer (Bio-rad, Hercules, CA) containing 50 mM dithiothreitol

(Sigma Aldrich, USA) and denatured at 99°C for 10 min. 30 µL of protein samples

were loaded and subjected to Sodium Dodecyl Sulfate-Polyacrylamide Gel

Electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) using NuPAGE 4-12% Bis-Tris Gel (Invitrogen, Thermo

Fisher Scientific, USA) in 1 x NuPAGE MOPS SDS Running Buffer (Invitrogen,

Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). The protein samples were transferred to

polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membrane using iBlot® Gel Transfer Device

(Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) as per manufacturer's instructions. The

PVDF membrane was then blocked using 5% BSA in Tris-buffered saline (20 mM Tris-

HCl pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl) containing 0.1% Tween-20 (Sigma Aldrich, USA) at room

temperature for 1 h. Subsequently, primary antibodies such as MyD88, TAK1,

phospho-TAK1, IKKα, IKKβ, phospho-IKKα/β, IκBα, phospho- IκBα, p65, phospho-

p65, SAPK/JNK, p38 MAPK, phospho-p38, p44/p42 MAPK (ERK1/2), phospho-

p44/p42 MAPK, c-Jun, phospho-c-Jun, c-Fos, phospho-cFos and GADPH (Cell

Signalling Technology, USA) were used for probing overnight at 4 °C. The membranes

were washed with Tris-buffered saline and incubated with 1:3000 diluted anti-rabbit

IgG antibodies conjugated with horseradish peroxidase (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher

Scientific, USA) at room temperature for 1 h. Following which, membranes were

washed, and proteins were detected using SuperSignal West Femto Maximum

Sensitivity Substrate (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) and autoradiography

films (Kodak, USA).

Transcriptomics analysis

Sequencing data are available at NCBI's BioProject (accession no. GSE188916). The

sequencing was performed at the Singapore Centre for Environmental Life Sciences

Engineering High Throughput Sequencing Unit, NTU, Singapore. Following quality

control (FastQC v0.11.9), trimming (cutadapt v4.2) and pre-processing using

TrimGalore (v0.6.6), the reads were mapped to the Gencode Mouse Release M32

(GRCm39) using Salmon (v.1.10.0). Differentially expressed gene analysis was

conducted in DESeq2 (v1.38.3) from raw counts. For over-representation and gene

set enrichment analysis (GSEA), we utilised clusterProfiler (v 4.6.0), enrichplot (v

1.18.3) and DOSE (v 3.24.2) packages for Gene Ontology (GO) analyses. The

workflow can be found at https://github.com/cenk-celik/Tien_et_al.

Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis was performed utilizing GraphPad Prism V6 and V10.4.1 software

(GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA). One-way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) were

used to compare between median and the different conditions. Statistical significance

for multiplex immunoassay was determined using Kruskal-Wallis statistical analysis.

CFU titers were compared using the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test. *P*-values

less than 0.05 were deemed significant. Unless otherwise stated, values represented

means ± SEM derived from at least 3 independent experiments.

Ethics Statement

All animal experiments were performed with approval from the Institutional Animal

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767
768

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R.A.G.d.S., B.Y.Q.T., P.H.N.K., A.Z.C.T., and K.K.L.C. performed experiments.

R.A.G.d.S., B.Y.Q.T., P.H.N.K., C.C., M.H.I., and G.H. analyzed data. R.A.G.d.S.,

B.Y.Q.T. and K.A.K. interpreted the results. B.Y.Q.T. and K.A.K. conceived the project.

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R.A.G.d.S., B.Y.Q.T. and K.A.K. wrote the manuscript. All authors reviewed and

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788
789

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Figures

Figure 1 – *E. faecalis* **modulates the macrophage response to bacteria by**

reducing MyD88 protein levels and preventing ERK and p65 phosphorylation.

(A) GSEA using gene ontology biological process gene sets showing significantly

enriched pathways in RAW 264.7 macrophages infected with *E. faecalis* OG1RF for 6

h at MOI 100 in the presence of LPS (100 ng/mL) compared to uninfected LPS-treated

1047 macrophages. Activated and suppressed pathways were determined based on genes

1048 that are over and under expressed in the analysed pathways. **(B)** Heatmap of

1049 differentially expressed NF-κB/ AP-1-related genes. **(C)** Western blots performed on

1050 protein extracted from RAW 264.7 macrophages infected with *E. faecalis* at the

1051 indicated MOI (100, 10, 1) with or without LPS for 6 h and probed with antibodies

1052 specific for MyD88, ERK, p-ERK, p65, p-p65 and GAPDH. The two bands for ERK

1053 and p-ERK immunoblots represent ERK isoforms 1 and 2. Data shown are

1054 representative of at least 3 independent experiments. **(D)** RAW 264.7 cells were either

1055 infected or treated with LPS alone or in combination for the times indicated before

1056 CD14 endocytosis was examined by flow cytometry. Data (mean ± SEM) are a

1057 summary of three independent experiments and calculated relative to uninfected

1058 untreated cells which were set as 100% levels for the examined receptor. Statistical

1059 analysis was performed using ordinary one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's

1060 multiple comparison test $*p<0.05$, $**p<0.01$ and $***p<0.001$.

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Figure 2 – *E. faecalis* LDH is essential for suppression of NF-κB activation in

macrophages.

(A) Bacterial genes identified in a transposon library screen for genes important in

macrophage suppression at MOI 100. The heat map shows the degree of NF-κB

suppression, medium acidification, lactate production, and cytotoxicity in RAW 264.7

macrophages infected at MOI 100 at 6 hpi relative to WT levels set to 100%. **(B)** RAW

264.7 macrophages were infected with WT, Δ*ldh1,* Δ*ldh2,* Ldh*,* or *ldh1*

complementation strains alone or concurrently with LPS at MOI 100 for 6 h prior to

measurement of NF-κB-driven SEAP reporter activity. **(C)** BMDMs were infected with

Δ*ldh1,* Ldh, or *ldh1* complemented strain for 6 h prior to measurement of IL-6

production. **(D)** RAW 264.7 cells were infected with WT *E. faecalis* or Ldh

supplemented with lactic acid (LA) at various concentration (mM) for 6 h prior to

measurement of NF-κB-driven SEAP reporter activity. **(E)** RAW 264.7 cells were

incubated with cell culture media supplemented with lactic acid at various

concentrations for 6 h prior to measurement of NF-κB-driven SEAP reporter activity.

Data (mean ± SEM) are a summary of at least three independent experiments.

Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA with Fisher's LSD in **(B)** or

Tukey's multiple comparison test where $*p<0.05$, $**p<0.01$, $***p<0.001$ and

$****p<0.001$ as indicated or as compared to media alone for **(C)** and **(E)**, and LPS for

(D).

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Figure 3 – Acidification is necessary and sufficient for *E. faecalis* suppression of macrophage activation.

(A) RAW 264.7 macrophages were infected with WT or Ldh or incubated with cell culture media supplemented with lactic acid or sodium lactate (40 mM) in the presence or absence of LPS for 6 h prior to measurement of NF-κB-driven SEAP reporter activity. RAW 264.7 macrophages were incubated with (B) lactic acid-acidified, (C) neutralised bacterial-free supernatant (equivalent to shown MOI starting bacterial culture grown for 6 h in cell culture media in the absence of macrophages) and (D) HCl and H_3PO_4 acidified media for 6 h prior to measurement of NF-κB-driven SEAP reporter activity. Data (mean ± SEM) are a summary of at least three independent experiments. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison tests where NS indicates $p > 0.05$, **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$ and ****$p<0.001$ as compared to media alone unless otherwise indicated.

1112 **Figure 4 – *E. faecalis* infection reduces MyD88 expression by decreasing STAT3**

1113 **activity in macrophages. (A)** Western blot was performed on protein extracted from

1114 RAW 264.7 macrophages WT or Ldh mutant that were incubated for 6 h and probed

1115 with antibodies raised against STAT3, acetyl-STAT3, p-STAT3, MEK1/2, p-MEK1/2,

1116 p-ERK, MyD88 and GAPDH. **(B)** ChIP–qPCR for STAT3 of the three regions

1117 associated with the MyD88 transcriptional starting site in purified DNA of RAW 264.7

cells that were infected with WT or Ldh strains with or without LPS treatment for 6 h.

Treatment with LA in the presence of LPS was also included. A depiction of these

regions relative to the transcriptional starting site (gray arrow) of *Myd88* is shown. The

positive control was established for an RNA polymerase binding site for the *Gapdh*

gene. Replicates from 3 independent experiments are shown. RAW 264.7

macrophages were infected with the WT strain and incubated with cell culture media

in presence or absence of LPS and **(C)** Stattic (10 μM) and **(D)** ML115 (1 μM) for 6 h

prior to measurement of NF-κB-driven SEAP reporter activity. Stattic and ML115 were

added 30 min before the beginning of the experiment. Data (mean ± SEM) are a

summary of at least three independent experiments. Statistical analysis was

performed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison tests where ns,

$p > 0.05$, **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$ and ****$p<0.001$ as compared to LPS unless otherwise

indicated. **(E)** RAW264.7 cells were infected with *E. faecalis* for 3 h, followed by 1 h of

antibiotic treatment to kill extracellular bacteria. The antibiotic-containing medium was

removed, cells were washed, and a new solution with antibiotics was added together

with ML115 (1 μM) and 2NP (45 μM). Viable intracellular CFU were enumerated after

18 h incubation. Data (mean ± SEM) are a summary of at least three independent

experiments. Statistical analysis was performed using ordinary one-way ANOVA

followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test ns, $p>0.05$; *$p\leq0.05$. **(F)** Using a murine

wound model, mice were infected with 10^6 CFU of WT *E. faecalis* and CFU were

enumerated at 24 hpi after treatment with either PBS or 10 μL of ML115 (100 μM).

Each symbol represents one mouse with the median indicated by the horizontal line.

Data are from at least 2 independent experiments with three to five mice per

experiment. Statistical analysis was performed using the nonparametric Mann-

Whitney test to compare ranks; **$p<0.01$.

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Figure 5 – The pH-sensitive lactate transporter MCT-1 and lactate sensor GPR81

mediate the suppression of NF-κB by _E. faecalis_. RAW 264.7 macrophages, with

or without siRNA silenced lactate transporters and sensors, were infected with the

OG1RF and incubated with cell culture media in the presence or absence of LPS for

6 h prior to measurement of NF-κB-driven SEAP reporter activity. Silencing the

expression of _Mct-1 + Gpr81_ or _Mct-1 + Gpr81 + Gpr65_ was achieved by siRNA. Data

(mean ± SEM) represent three independent experiments. Statistical analysis was

performed using ordinary one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison

test ns, p>0.05; *p≤0.05; and **p<0.01.

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Figure 6 – *E. faecalis* LDH activity contributes to persistence in the wound. (A)

Using a wound model, mice were infected with 10^6 CFU each of WT or Ldh mutant

and CFU were enumerated at 24 hpi and 7 dpi. Each symbol represents one mouse

with the median indicated by the horizontal line. Data are from at least 2 independent

experiments with three to five mice per experiment. Statistical analysis was performed

using the nonparametric Mann-Whitney test to compare ranks; ns, p>0.05, *p≤0.05.

(B) Western blot performed on protein extracted from harvested wound lysates of WT

or Ldh infections 24 hpi or 7 dpi and probed with antibodies raised against p-p65,

MyD88, p-ERK and GAPDH.

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Figure 7 – *E. faecalis* LDH-mediated immune suppression promotes *E. coli*

growth during polymicrobial infection.

(A) RAW 264.7 macrophages were infected with *E. coli* strain UTI89 at MOI 0.125,

WT *E. faecalis* or Ldh mutant at MOI 100 in single species control or mixed species

infection for 6 h prior to measurement of NF-κB-driven SEAP reporter activity. Data

(mean ± SEM) are summary from at least 3 independent experiment. Statistical

analysis was performed using ordinary one-way ANOVA, followed by Tukey's multiple

comparison test; ns, p>0.05; ***p≤ 0.001; and ****p≤ 0.0001. Using a wound model,

mice were infected with 10^2 CFU/wound *E. coli* UTI89 or 10^6 CFU each of WT *E.*

faecalis or Ldh mutant in single-species control for UTI89 or mixed species infections.

24 hpi CFU enumeration was performed for **(B)** *E. faecalis* and **(C)** *E. coli*. Each

symbol represents one mouse with the median indicated by the horizontal line. Data

are from at least 2 independent experiments with four to five mice per experiment.

Statistical analysis was performed using the nonparametric Mann-Whitney test to

compare ranks **(B)** and using Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's posttest **(C)**; ns, p>0.05;

*p≤ 0.05; and **p≤ 0.01.

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Figure 8 – Model for *E. faecalis*-derived lactic acid suppression of NF-κB

activation.

TLR receptors in macrophages sense agonists to trigger NF-κB activation mediated

by MyD88. *E. faecalis*-derived lactic acid leads to acidic pH, which contributes to the

decrease of the phosphorylation of proteins involved in STAT3 activation and,

consequently, *Myd88* expression. The low abundance of MyD88 will prevent MyD88-

dependent TLR signaling and, ultimately, NF-κB activation. Created with

BioRender.com.

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Supplementary Figures

Figure S1 – *E. faecalis* **infection modulates macrophage response to bacteria by**

1206 **affecting the production and phosphorylation status of different proteins of the**

1207 **NF-κB pathway.**

1208 **(A)** Western blot performed on protein extracted from RAW 264.7 macrophages

1209 infected with WT *E. faecalis* at the indicated MOI (100, 10, 1) with or without LPS (100

1210 ng/mL) for 6 h and probed with antibodies specific for TAK1, phospho-TAK1, IKKα,

1211 IKKβ, phospho-IKKα/β, IκBα, phospho-IκBα, p65, phospho-p65 and GAPDH. M

1212 represents uninfected macrophages. GAPDH was used as an internal control for

loading control. **(B)** TLR-NF-κB signaling pathway and cross-talk between NF-κB and

AP-1 are shown. **(C)** Western blot performed on protein extracted from RAW 264.7

macrophages infected with wildtype *E. faecalis* at the indicated MOIs (100, 10, 1) with

or without LPS for 6 h and probed with antibodies specific for p38, phospho-p38, JNK,

ERK, c-Jun, phospho c-Jun, c-Fos, phospho c-Fos and GAPDH. **(D)** RAW 264.7 cells

were either infected or treated with LTA (10 μg/mL) for the times indicated before TLR2

endocytosis was examined by flow cytometry. Data (mean ± SEM) are a summary of

three independent experiments and calculated relative to uninfected untreated cells

which were set as 100% levels for the examined receptor. Statistical analysis was

performed using ordinary one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple comparison

test ***$p < 0.001$ and ****$p < 0.001$.

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Figure S2 – Methodology for transposon library screen to identify bacterial

factor(s) important in macrophage suppression.

(A) Primary screening workflow: all mutants were inoculated in DMEM + 10% FBS for

24 h before 20 μL of the bacteria suspension was transferred to RAW 264.7 cell culture.

The macrophages were stimulated in the presence of LPS for 6 h and supernatant

was collected for SEAP assay. Mutants showed significant higher NF-κB activity were

identified as weak-suppressing mutants. **(B)** Secondary screening: the shortlisted

mutants were grown in BHI overnight (16 h) and normalized to indicated concentration

and tested for suppressing effect, growth, and acidifying ability in DMEM + 10% FBS.

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1242 **Figure S3 – LDH mutant does not have growth defects and acidifies the**

1243 **environment weakly.**

Growth curve for *E. faecalis* strains grown overnight in either **(A)** BHI or **(B)** cell culture media supplemented with 10% FBS. **(C)** Lactate present in bacterial-free supernatant was quantified via blood gas analysis. **(D)** RAW 264.7 macrophages was incubated with cell culture media supplemented with lactate at various concentrations for 6 h prior to measurement of LDH activity to measure cytotoxicity. **(E)** pH for *E. faecalis* strains grown in cell culture media measured over a time course. **(F)** RAW 264.7 macrophages infected with WT OG1RF or Ldh mutant supplemented with lactic acid at various concentration for 6 h prior to measurement of LDH activity. **(G)** Lactate concentration was measured using 6 hpi bacterial free supernatant. Western blot performed on protein extracted from BMDMs, THP-1s and RAW 264.7 macrophages infected with *E. faecalis* MOI 100 for 6 h and probed with antibodies specific for **(H)** MyD88, p-ERK and GAPDH, and **(I)** p-p65, p-ERK and GAPDH. Samples in **(H)** are with or without LPS. Data (mean ± SEM) are a summary of at least three independent experiments. **(J)** Spider plot showing the fold changes of cytokines, chemokines, and growth factors detected in filtered supernatants collected at 6 hpi for WT *E. faecalis* and Ldh mutant after normalization against the medium control. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test where ****$P<0.0001$ among all the different *E. faecalis* strains as compared to wildtype.

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Figure S4 – *E. faecalis* suppresses NF-κB activation in LPS pre-treated cells.

(A) RAW 264.7 cells were pre-treated for 1 h with LPS prior to measurement of NF-

κB-driven SEAP reporter activity. **(B)** RAW 264.7 cells infected with WT *E. faecalis* or

Ldh mutant for 6 h prior to measurement of NF-κB-driven SEAP reporter activity were

either pre-treated or not with LPS for 1 h prior to infection. Data (mean ± SEM) are a

summary of at least three independent experiments. Statistical analysis was

performed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test where NS,

$p>0.05$ and ****$p<0.001$

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1274 **Figure S5 – pH adjusted medium does not affect macrophages viability.**

1275 **(A)** Picture of bacterial-free supernatant at indicated MOI. The colour indicator in the

1276 cell culture medium turns yellow upon acidification. RAW 264.7 macrophages were

1277 incubated with **(B)** acidified bacterial-free Ldh supernatant, **(C)** neutralised bacterial-

free WT supernatant, **(D)** acidified cell media in the absence of bacteria, and **(E, F)** WT *E. faecalis* or Ldh deletion mutant treated concurrently with LPS at specific MOI for 6 h prior to measurement of NF-κB or LDH activity. **(B-D, F)** Triton-X treatment served as a positive control (high control) for cell death. **(E-F)** RAW 264.7 macrophages incubated with WT or Ldh mutant were also supplemented with different acids to acidify the pH for the duration of the experiment prior to measurement of NF-κB-driven SEAP reporter activity. **(B-F)** Data (mean ± SEM) are a summary of at least three independent experiments. **(G)** Western blots were performed on protein extracted from RAW 264.7 macrophages infected with WT or Ldh that were incubated in acidified cell culture media in the presence or absence of LPS for 6 h and probed with antibodies specific for p65, p-p65, and GAPDH. Cell culture media was acidified to pH 6.4 with lactic acid and with the inorganic acids H_3PO_4 and HCl. Data shown are representative of at least 3 independent experiments.

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Figure S6 – Intracellular *E. faecalis* do not contribute to NF-κB suppression in

macrophages.

RAW 264.7 macrophages was incubated with *E. faecalis* wildtype (MOI 100, 50, 25,

10, 1) 3 h and treated with 500 µg/mL of gentamicin with penicillin G overnight at 37˚C

prior to measurement of **(A)** NF-κB-driven SEAP reporter activity and **(B)** LDH assay.

Data (mean ± SEM) are a summary of at least three independent experiments.

Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple with

comparison where ****p<0.0001 as compared to media control.

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Figure S7 – STAT1 does not play a role in suppressing NF-κB in *E. faecalis*

infection.

RAW 264.7 macrophages were infected with the WT *E. faecalis* and incubated with

cell culture media in presence or absence of LPS and **(A)** Selu (1 μM) and **(B)** Fluda

(10 μM) and **(C)** 2NP (45 μM) for 6 h prior to measurement of NF-κB-driven SEAP

reporter activity. The compounds were added 30 min before the beginning of the

experiment. Data (mean ± SEM) are a summary of at least three independent

experiments. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's

multiple comparison tests where ****$p < 0.001$ as compared to LPS unless otherwise

indicated.

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Figure S8 – The lactate transporters MCT-1 and GPR81 are redundant in their

role in the suppression of NF-κB activation of *E. faecalis* infection. RAW 264.7

macrophages, with successfully silenced lactate transporters as indicated, were

infected with the wildtype *E. faecalis* and incubated with cell culture media in the

presence or absence of LPS for 6 h prior to measurement of NF-κB-driven SEAP

reporter activity. Silencing the expression of *Mct-1*, *Gpr81* and *Gpr65* alone or in

combination was achieved by siRNA. Data (mean ± SEM) are a summary of three

independent experiments. *Gapdh* was also silenced as a control for adverse effects of

the technique. Statistical analysis was performed using ordinary one-way ANOVA

followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test ns, $p>0.05$; *$p≤0.05$; and **$p<0.01$;

***$p<0.001$ and ****$p<0.001$.

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1351 **Figure S9 – Successful knockdown of lactate transporters of interest was**

1352 **verified with RT-PCR.** Transcript levels of the silenced genes of interest were

1353 assessed with specific primers for each target. Negative control used was the Silencer

1354 Select Negative Control siRNAs that contain siRNAs with sequences that do not target

1355 any gene product.

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Figure S10 – MCT1 and GPCR sensors mediate *E. faecalis* suppression of NF-

κB activation in macrophages. RAW 264.7 macrophages were infected with the WT

E. faecalis and incubated in cell culture media in presence or absence of LPS and **(A)**

CHC (5 mM) and **(B)** MDL-12 (20 μM) and **(C)** CHC + MDL-12 for 6 h prior to

measurement of NF-κB-driven SEAP reporter activity. The compounds were added

30 min before the beginning of the experiment. Data (mean ± SEM) are a summary of

at least three independent experiments. Statistical analysis was performed using one-

way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison tests where NS, $p > 0.05$ and

****$p < 0.001$.

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Figure S11 – HDACs likely play a partial role in mediating *E. faecalis* suppression

of NF-kB activation in macrophages. (A) Relative abundance of H3Ac by ELISA of

uninfected or WT and Ldh infected macrophages. RAW 264.7 macrophages were

infected with the WT strain and incubated with cell culture media in the presence or

absence of LPS and **(B)** TrichoA (10 nM) and **(C)** TubA (15 nM), **(D)** Ele (1 μM), **(E)**

HDAC8-IN-1 (100 nM), **(F)** TMP-269 (10 μM) and **(G)** 9-HAS (100 μM) for 6 h prior to

measurement of NF-κB-driven SEAP reporter activity. The compounds were added

30 min before the beginning of the experiment. Data (mean ± SEM) are a summary of

at least three independent experiments. Statistical analysis was performed using one-

way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison tests where ns, $p > 0.05$; *$p \leq 0.05$; and

****$p < 0.001$.

Figure S12 – Lactic acid does not promote *E. coli* growth at tested

concentrations.

Lactate concentration of wound measured at **(A)** 24 hpi for the indicated condition. **(B)**

Growth curve for *E. coli* strain UTI89 grown overnight in LB media supplemented with

different concentration of lactate.

Supplementary Tables

Table S1 – Differentially expressed NF-κB/ AP-1-related genes

		Condition					
		Uninfected LPS-treated vs uninfected untreated		**MOI 100 untreated vs uninfected untreated**		**MOI 100 LPS-treated vs uninfected LPS-treated**	
Gene	**Gene product**	**Log2FC**	**Significant?**	**Log2FC**	**Significant?**	**Log2FC**	**Significant?**
NF-κB							
Tlr4	TLR4	-0.84	No	-0.66	No	-1.33	No
Cd14	CD14	2.15	Yes	0.31	No	-2.13	Yes
Myd88	MyD88	1.11	No	-1.06	No	-1.86	Yes
Tirap	TIRAP	0.38	No	-1.03	No	-1.16	No
Ly96	MD-2	0.89	No	0.29	No	-0.14	No
Ticam1	TRIF	1.84	No	1.59	Yes	0.28	No
Ticam2	TRAM	-1.35	No	1.28	No	2.48	Yes
Traf6	TRAF6	0.46	No	0.57	No	-0.09	No
Map3k7	TAK1	-0.06	No	0.07	No	0.17	No
Chuk	IKKα	0.32	No	0.35	No	0.004	No
Ikbkb	IKKβ	0.37	No	-0.02	No	-0.13	No
Nfkbia	IKBα	2.95	Yes	3.01	Yes	0.95	No
Rel	p65	1.60	Yes	3.55	Yes	0.29	No
Nfkb1	p105	3.20	Yes	2.33	Yes	0.11	No
Nfkb2	p100	1.98	Yes	1.84	Yes	0.89	No
AP-1							
Mapk14	p38	-0.62	No	-1.87	Yes	-0.94	No
Mapk8	JNK	0.28	No	0.54	No	0.40	No
Jun	cJun	0.47	No	0.82	No	-0.34	No
Fos	cFos	0.39	No	-0.65	No	-1.79	Yes
Common							
Rps6ka5	MSK1	-2.58	Yes	-1.87	Yes	-0.99	No
Rps6ka4	MSK2	0.29	No	-0.30	No	0.22	No
Mapk1	ERK	-0.09	No	0.11	No	0.05	No

1435 **Table S2-** List of hits after transposon screen for genes that contribute to suppress
1436 NF-κB activation in macrophages

Gene	Gene product	Locus tag
OG1RF_10013	Adenylosuccinate synthase	OG1RF_10013
mptD	Mannose PTS enzyme IID component	OG1RF_10021
ldh1	L-lactate dehydrogenase 1	OG1RF_10199
OG1RF_10329	PaaI family thioesterase	OG1RF_10329
OG1RF_10418	YlbF family regulator	OG1RF_10418
pptB	ABC-family peptide pheromone efflux transporter, membrane protein	OG1RF_10427
rpoN	RNA polymerase factor sigma-54	OG1RF_10514
pgmB	β-phosphoglucomutase	OG1RF_10682
dapA	4-hydroxy-tetrahydrodipicolinate synthase	OG1RF_10956
yycH	YycH protein	OG1RF_10967
trpX	Tryptophan ABC transporter substrate-binding protein	OG1RF_11022
OG1RF_11023	ABC transporter permease	OG1RF_11023
OG1RF_11036	Putative transporter, P-type ATPase family	OG1RF_11036
OG1RF_11131	ABC transporter ATP-binding protein/permease	OG1RF_11131
nrnA	5'-3' exonuclease NrnA	OG1RF_11161
OG1RF_11270	Hypothetical protein	OG1RF_11270
aroE	Shikimate dehydrogenase	OG1RF_11280
aroC	Chorismate synthase	OG1RF_11283
tkt	Transketolase	OG1RF_11300
pflB	Formate C-acetyltransferase	OG1RF_11329
lepB	Signal peptidase I	OG1RF_11391
pbp1B	putative bifunctional peptidoglycan glycosyltransferase/DD-transpeptidase, penicillin-binding protein 1B	OG1RF_11450
OG1RF_11602	Putative transporter, P-type ATPase family	OG1RF_11602
dcm	DNA (cytosine-5-)-methyltransferase	OG1RF_11622
relA	Bifunctional (p)ppGpp synthase/hydrolase	OG1RF_11636
OG1RF_11669	DUF1033 family protein	OG1RF_11669
efaC	Mn^{2+} ABC transporter ATP-binding protein	OG1RF_11677
efrE	ABC family efflux transporter ATP-binding protein/permease EfrE	OG1RF_11766
OG1RF_11854	Metalloregulator ArsR/SmtB family transcription factor	OG1RF_11854
OG1RF_11923	Hypothetical protein	OG1RF_11923
OG1RF_12024	ABC transporter ATP-binding protein	OG1RF_12024
OG1RF_12033	ATP-dependent RecD-like DNA helicase	OG1RF_12033
OG1RF_12043	ClpXP adapter SpxH family protein	OG1RF_12043
OG1RF_12058	SMC family ATPase	OG1RF_12058
OG1RF_12066	5-bromo-4-chloroindolyl phosphate hydrolysis family protein	OG1RF_12066
OG1RF_12113	ABC transporter permease	OG1RF_12113
OG1RF_12190	YkuJ family protein	OG1RF_12190
OG1RF_12284	Putative transporter, sulfate permease family	OG1RF_12284
ireP	PP2C-type protein-serine/threonine phosphatase	OG1RF_12385
def	Peptide deformylase	OG1RF_12388
OG1RF_12401	Gluconate-specific PTS enzyme IID component	OG1RF_12401
OG1RF_12446	ArgE/DapE family deacylase	OG1RF_12446
OG1RF_12459	Isochorismatase/nicotinamidase	OG1RF_12459

menA	1,4-dihydroxy-2-naphthoate polyprenyltransferase	OG1RF_12507
croS	HAMP domain-containing sensor histidine kinase	OG1RF_12536
citE	Citrate (pro-3S)-lyase subunit beta	OG1RF_12565
citC	[citrate (pro-3S)-lyase] ligase	OG1RF_12567

Table S3 – Cytotoxicity as measured by LDH assay of compounds used in this study.

Condition	% Cytotoxicity	Source
DMEM (Baseline)	5.15	Gibco
Stattic (10 μM)	14.92	MedChemExpress
ML115 (1 μM)	12.01	MedChemExpress
2NP (45 μM)	25.34	MedChemExpress
Selu (1 μM)	15.33	MedChemExpress
Fluda (40 μM)	12.01	MedChemExpress
CHC (5 mM)	15.54	MedChemExpress
MDL-12 (20 μM)	11.58	MedChemExpress
TrichoA (10 nM)	19.47	MedChemExpress
TubA (15 nM)	4.92	MedChemExpress
Ele (1 μM)	5.54	MedChemExpress
HDAC8-IN-1 (100 nM)	5.01	MedChemExpress
TMP-269 (10 μM)	26.12	MedChemExpress
9-HAS (100 μM)	27.80	MedChemExpress

 Table S4- List of primers used in this study

Gene	Oligo Name	Sequence 5' to 3'
		ldh deletion
ldh1	dLDH1_For	CATGCTCGAGCGGCCATTATATGTTGGCACATCCAGG
	dLDH1_Rev	CAGTGTGCTGGAATTAATTTAACGCACTCACTCGAT
	dLDH1_SewF	AAGCGGAGTAACAATAGTGGGTAGCTCTTACATGTGCGTAAT
	dLDH1_SewR	ATTACGCACATGTAAGAGCTACCCACTATTGTTACTCCGCTT
	LDH1_F	GAAGAATAAATTAACCATTGCTTCTTCATC
	LDH1_R	CTTATCTCACGCATTAGCATTTAC
ldh2	dLDH2_For	CATGCTCGAGCGGCCGTCGTTTACTCTGTCCATCATTT
	dLDH2_Rev	CAGTGTGCTGGAATTTTTTCATTGTCCAGACCGAT
	dLDH2_SewF	ATAATCGCGTTGTGTACTTCACACGAACTTTTTAGGTGTGGTT
	dLDH2_SewR	AACCACACCTAAAAAGTTCGTGTGAAGTACACAACGCGATTAT
	LDH2_F	GAGGCAATTACTAAAATTCCATCAAAAC
	LDH2_R	CAATTGACTTATTAGATGGTGTGTCTT
		ChIP-qPCR
Myd88 (R1)	M_STAT3_1_F	GGCCCCGTAGTCTAG
	M_STAT3_1_R	CGCCTGTGGAGTTTC
Myd88 (R2)	M_STAT3_2_F	GGAAGCCAATCGTAATG
	M_STAT3_2_R	AAGGGGAGGGACTCC
Myd88 (R3)	M_STAT3_3_F	GCATCGGTGAGGAAAC
	M_STAT3_3_R	CCTCCCTAGCGCACC
Gapdh	M_gapdh_F	GCCCTTCTACAATGCCAAAG
	M_gapdh_R	TTGTGATGGGTGTGAACCAC
		siRNA RT-PCR
Hcar1	GPR81_M_F	GGTGGCACGATGTCATGTT
	GPR81_M_R	GACCGAGCAGAACAAGATGATT
SLC16A1	MCT1_M_F	TTGTCTGTCTGGTTGCGGCTTGATCG
	MCT1_M_R	CACCTCCAATAACACCAATG
Gpr65	GPR65_M_F	TGCGGCACAACCAAGCCACGGA
	GPR65_M_R	ATGTCGCGCTCTAAAACGCAGCG

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