***Enterococcus faecalis*-derived lactic acid suppresses macrophage activation to**

facilitate persistent and polymicrobial wound infections

Ronni A. G. da Silva[1,2], Brenda Yin Qi Tien[2], Patrick Hsien Neng Kao[2], Haris Antypas[2],

Cenk Celik[3], Ai Zhu Casandra Tan[2], Muhammad Hafiz Ismail[2], Guangan Hu[5], Kelvin

Kian Long Chong[2], Guillaume Thibault[3,4], Jianzhu Chen[1,5], Kimberly A. Kline[1,2,6*]

[1] Singapore-MIT Alliance for Research and Technology Centre, Antimicrobial

Resistance Interdisciplinary Research Group, Singapore

[2] Singapore Centre for Environmental Life Sciences Engineering, Nanyang

Technological University, 60 Nanyang Drive, Singapore 637551.

[3] School of Biological Sciences, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore

[4] Mechanobiology Institute, National University of Singapore, Singapore

[5] Koch Institute for Integrative Cancer Research and Department of Biology,

Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA, United States of America

[6] Department of Microbiology and Molecular Medicine, Faculty of Medicine, University

of Geneva, Switzerland

[*]Correspondence: Kimberly.Kline@unige.ch

Graphical Abstract

Highlights

- *E. faecalis* lactate dehydrogenase mutants fail to acidify the environment and cannot

suppress NF-κB signaling.

- Lactic acid is necessary and sufficient to drive NF-κB suppression in macrophages.

- Lactic acid NF-κB suppression is relayed through two complementary routes: MCT-

1 transport and the lactate sensor GPR81.

- MCT-1-dependent signaling blunts ERK/STAT3 phosphorylation, lowering MyD88

levels; whereas GPR81 drives YAP phosphorylation, reducing NF-κB activation.

- *E. faecalis*-derived lactic acid drives immunosuppression, potentiates persistence,

and promotes multi-species wound infection *in vivo*.

Summary

Macrophage activation is essential for innate immunity, and its suppression enables

pathogen persistence. We show that *Enterococcus faecalis* suppresses macrophage

activation through lactic acid-mediated extracellular acidification. Mutants lacking

lactate dehydrogenase (*ldh*), and thus unable to acidify the environment, fail to inhibit

NF-κB. *E. faecalis*-derived lactic acid acts via MCT-1 and GPR81 through two distinct

but complementary mechanisms that culminate in the reduction of NF-κB activity.

Lactic acid acts through MCT-1 to inhibit ERK and STAT3 phosphorylation, leading to

reduced STAT3 binding to the *Myd88* promoter, and reduced MyD88 protein levels.

Lactic acid signaling to GPR81 mediates the phosphorylation of the transcriptional

factor YAP, ultimately attenuating NF-κB signaling. In a murine wound infection model,

this lactic acid-driven immunosuppressive niche enables prolonged *E. faecalis*

persistence and enhances the fitness of co-infecting bacteria such as *Escherichia coli.*

These findings reveal how bacterial lactic acid subverts innate immunity to support

chronic and polymicrobial infections.

Introduction

Enterococcus faecalis are commensal, lactic acid producing, Gram-positive bacteria

that are ubiquitous in the healthy human gastrointestinal tract [1]. *E. faecalis* are also

opportunistic pathogens in the nosocomial environment, particularly among

immunocompromised individuals, contributing to considerable morbidity and mortality

in susceptible populations [2, 3]. *E. faecalis* infections are often polymicrobial in nature

with two or more species present at an 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 central regulator of the immune response to bacterial and 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, initiates a signaling cascade that

ultimately activates the IκB kinase (IKK) complex [13]. The IKK complex

phosphorylates IκB, leading to its ubiquitin-dependent degradation and release of the

NF-κB transcription factor (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].

Recent work highlights the importance of host metabolic and epigenetic regulators in

controlling inflammatory signaling [14, 15]. The monocarboxylate transporter 1 (MCT-

1, encoded by *SLC16A1*) facilitates proton-coupled lactate transport, thereby

influencing intracellular pH and redox balance [16]. MCT-1 activity can alter

macrophage transcription and inflammatory responses [17]. Similarly, the G-protein-

coupled lactate receptor GPR81 (also known as hydroxycarboxylic acid receptor 1,

HCAR1) senses extracellular lactate to regulate AMPK–YAP signaling, which can

suppress NF-κB-driven cytokine expression and dampen inflammation [18, 19]. In

addition, histone deacetylases (HDACs) fine-tune NF-κB responses by deacetylating

histones and NF-κB subunits such as p65/RelA, thereby influencing chromatin

accessibility and transcriptional activity [20, 21]. Together, these systems link

metabolic cues, pH homeostasis, and epigenetic regulation to immune signaling

control in macrophages.

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, 22-

28]. *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* [29, 30]. We

previously demonstrated that *E. faecalis* infection suppresses NF-κB signaling in RAW

264.7 macrophages at high multiplicities of infection (MOI 100) [31]. 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 [31]. However, the *E.*

faecalis and host factors involved in NF-κB suppression in macrophages were not

reported.

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

as critical factors in macrophage suppression. *E. faecalis*-derived lactic acid lowers

the extracellular pH [39]. Lower extracellular pH increases the activity of MCT-1 to

transport protons and lactate into the intracellular environment driving down the

intracellular pH [16, 32, 33] which impairs STAT3-dependent transcription of *Myd88*,

ultimately preventing signaling transduction leading to NF-κB activation. In parallel,

low extracellular pH likely enhances GPR81 affinity for extracellular lactate, in turn

triggering AMPK-LATS signaling, increasing inhibitory YAP phosphorylation [19, 34],

and limiting NF-κB activation. In addition, lactic acid-mediated immune suppression

promotes persistent *E. faecalis* wound infection and 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

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 for 6 h with *E. faecalis* strain OG1RF 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 [35] 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 by ~2-fold in MOI

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

treated macrophages **(Fig. 1B, Table S1)**. This suppression may explain why NF-κB

is inactive following MOI 100 infection, despite higher transcript levels of genes

encoding p100 and p105 compared to uninfected cells **(Fig. 1B, Table S1, SI 4-6)**.

Consistently, the levels of MyD88 protein were lower in MOI 100-infected

macrophages with or without LPS, as well as the downstream phosphorylated TAK1,

IKK, IκBα, and p65 but not the levels of the unphosphorylated TAK1, IKKα and p65

(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)**.

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

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

range of immune signaling genes. 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 as

CD14 mediates the LPS-induced internalization of extracellular molecules [23] **(Fig.**

1B and Table S1). Although there was a significant delay in CD14 internalization at

early times in *E. faecalis* infected cells, there was no marked difference in CD14

internalization at the end of the experiment, 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)**. These data show that *E. faecalis* infection suppresses NF-κB activation in macrophages by reducing MyD88 protein levels and preventing the downstream phosphorylation cascade and leading to NF-κB suppression.

Lactate dehydrogenase-dependent lactic acid production by *E. faecalis* drives suppression of macrophage NF-κB activation

To investigate the bacterial factors involved in suppression of macrophage activation, we screened a ~15,000 member *E. faecalis* mariner transposon library [36] 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, leading to a final list of 47 transposon mutants that failed to suppress NF-κB activation **(Fig. S2B, Table S2)**. Bacterial growth in media containing a pH indicator showed that 18 of 47 mutants failed to acidify the media as a function of growth as compared to wild type (WT) *E. faecalis* **(Fig. S2B).** Among these was *ldh1* (OG1RF_10199), encoding lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) **(Fig. S2B)**, which reduces pyruvate to L-lactate to generate NAD^+ for ongoing glycolysis in *E. faecalis* [37, 38]. L-lactate is released from *E. faecalis* in the form of lactic acid, 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 [39], we further investigated 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 [37]. 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. 2A).** Immunofluorescence using

confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM) to investigate p65 nuclear localization

confirmed WT suppression and Ldh activation of NF-κB **(Fig. 2B and S3)**. Failure to

suppress macrophage activation was not due to a growth defect of the mutants,

whether grown in BHI or cell culture medium **(Fig. S4A-B)**. Lactic acid accumulated in

culture supernatants of WT *E. faecalis* infected cells in an MOI-dependent manner,

resulting in a pH decrease that is delayed for the Ldh mutant **(Fig. S4C-D)**. In contrast

to WT *E. faecalis*, macrophage infection with either the Δ*ldh1* or Ldh mutants produced

less lactic acid and, consequently, acidified the environment at a slower rate than WT

E. faecalis, in agreement with lesser suppression of NF-κB **(Fig. 2A and S4E-F)**.

Consistent with previous reports, Δ*ldh2* was not attenuated for lactate release [37, 40].

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 Δ*ldh1* and Ldh

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

infection with either WT or the Δ*ldh1* complemented strains had no effect on IL-6

release by BMDM, whereas infection of LPS-treated cells with either Δ*ldh1* or Ldh

stimulated IL-6 production **(Fig. 2C)**. qRT-PCR analysis of representative genes

showed that *E. faecalis* infection of BMDM, as in RAW264.7 cells, decreased *Myd88*

expression **(Fig. S5)**. Infection of BMDM or the human monocytic cell line THP-1 with

E. faecalis similarly showed an LDH-dependent decrease of MyD88, p-ERK, and p-

p65 levels **(Fig. S6A-B)**. Multiplex cytokine analysis of RAW264.7 cells also confirmed

an LDH-dependent reduction of pro-inflammatory cytokines (IL-6, IL-12 p70 and IFNγ)

and chemokines (CCL3, CCL4, CCL5, CSF2 and CSF3) for *E. faecalis*-infected

macrophages **(Fig. S6C)**. 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)**. In the absence

of infection, 40 mM lactic acid was sufficient to suppress LPS-induced NF-κB

activation **(Fig. 2E)** without compromising macrophage viability **(S6D)**. In addition, WT

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

LPS for 1 h prior to infection **(Fig. S6E-F)**. As expected, the Ldh mutant failed to

suppress NF-κB activation independent of LPS pre-exposure **(Fig. S6E-F)**. Overall,

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

macrophages is mediated by LDH-derived lactic acid.

Extracellular acidification, rather than lactate alone, underlies NF-κB

suppression during *E. faecalis* infection

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

did not acidify the medium to the same extent as WT *E. faecalis*, but only 11 produced

less lactate **(Fig. S2B)**, suggesting that pH reduction rather than lactic acid production

alone is the primary driver of NF-κB suppression. Indeed, supplementation with 40

mM lactic acid suppressed NF-κB activation, whereas 40 mM sodium L-lactate did not

(Fig. 3A). To confirm this, we acidified filtered Ldh mutant supernatants to pH 6.4 (pH

equivalent to WT MOI 100) or neutralized WT supernatants to pH 7.8 (pH equivalent

to MOI 1). Acidified supernatants suppressed LPS-induced NF-κB activation across

all MOI in the absence of cytotoxicity, while neutralized supernatants failed to do so

(Fig. 3B-C, S7A-E). Consistent with previous reports [41], acidifying cell culture media

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

activation without affecting macrophage viability **(Fig. 3D and S7F).** p-p65 levels were

also reduced in LPS-stimulated macrophages infected with the Ldh mutant when

supplemented either with lactic acid or HCl, compared to those without acid

supplementation **(Fig. S7G)**.

Since *E. faecalis* can persist and replicate within macrophages [9, 42], we investigated

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

infected macrophages with *E. faecalis* for 3 h, followed by antibiotic killing of

extracellular bacteria [9]. In the absence of extracellular *E. faecalis*-mediated

acidification of the medium, we observed increased NF-κB activation at all MOI during

intracellular infection, without significant cell death **(Fig. S8A-B).** In fact, *E. faecalis*

infection resulted in higher NF-κB activation than the LPS positive control **(Fig. 3E)**.

Heat and UV-killed *E. faecalis* similarly were not capable of suppressing NF-κB at high

MOI **(Fig. S8C-D)**. Together, our results suggest that extracellular acidification, rather

than lactate levels or intracellular infection, is important for *E. faecalis*-mediated

immune suppression in macrophages.

***E. faecalis* suppresses MyD88 expression by pH-dependent STAT3 inactivation**

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* expression [43]. STAT3 activation depends on its phosphorylation by

ERK at serine 727 (S727) [44], preceded by ERK phosphorylation by MEK [45-47].

STAT3 activity can also be regulated by phosphorylation at tyrosine 705 (Y705) (34)

and inhibited by acetylation [43]. Consistent with reduced MyD88 level, WT *E. faecalis*

infection of macrophages also reduced the level of p-ERK, p-MEK and STAT3

phosphorylation at the S727 residue as compared to uninfected or Ldh-infected

macrophages **(Fig. 4A)**. Total STAT3 protein levels were slightly reduced in WT-

infected macrophages whereas total MEK protein levels were unchanged.

Since MEK enzymatic activity is pH sensitive [48], we measured the intracellular pH

and MEK activity in macrophages following *E. faecalis* infection. Using the pH-

sensitive fluorescent reporter BCECF-AM, we observed that the intracellular pH (pHi)

in macrophages infected with WT *E. faecalis* decreased to ~6.3, whereas it remained

between 6.9 and 7.2 in the Ldh-infected and non-infected cells, respectively **(Fig. S9A-**

B). To determine whether reduced pHi could affect MEK-driven signal transduction,

we assessed MEK activity by immunoprecipitating MEK from WT-infected

macrophages and measuring its *in vitro* phosphorylation capacity of non-

phosphorylated ERK from cell lysates. We confirmed that MEK activity from infected

cells was reduced **(Fig. 4B-D)**. These findings support the hypothesis that *E. faecalis*-

induced changes in pHi ultimately disrupt the MEK–ERK–STAT3 signaling cascade,

consistent with report of MEK signaling in fibroblasts [48].

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, 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. 4E)**. Further, lactic acid alone was sufficient

to reduce STAT3 binding at these sites. Overexpressing *Myd88* in RAW264.7 cells

alleviated NF-κB suppression by *E. faecalis* **(Fig. S9G-H)**. Although

immunofluorescence of WT *E. faecalis* infected macrophages in the presence or

absence of LPS did not reveal major changes in STAT3 localization **(Fig. S9F)**,

subcellular fractionation revealed an absence of S727-phosphorylated STAT3 in the

nucleus of WT *E. faecalis* infected macrophages **(Fig. S9I)**, while Y705-

phosphorylated STAT3 was detected **(Fig. S9J).** These results suggest a mechanism

by which reduced STAT3 phosphorylation directly leads to reduced transcription of

Myd88 [49].

We also assessed whether STAT1 contributes to NF-κB activity in infected

macrophages [50]. As expected, inhibition of either MEK or STAT3 with Selumetinib

or Stattic, respectively, impaired NF-κB activation in the presence of LPS, regardless

of *E. faecalis* infection **(Fig. 4F, Fig. S10A)**. By contrast, STAT1 inhibition with

Fludarabine reduced, but did not completely abolish, NF-κB activation **(Fig. S10B)**.

Moreover, LPS-induced NF-κB activation was restored in *E. faecalis*-infected

macrophages that were treated with the STAT3 agonist ML115 but not with the STAT1

agonist 2NP **(Fig. 4G and Fig. S10C)**, indicating that STAT3 plays a central role in

NF-κB activation. Immunoblot of infected cell lysates treated with ML115 with or

without LPS confirmed increased in MyD88 expression **(Fig. S10D)**. Functionally,

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

suppression enhanced intracellular bacterial clearance by ~10 fold, whereas treatment

with 2NP did not **(Fig. 4H)**. Agonist and inhibitor concentrations did not cause

cytotoxicity **(Table S3)**. Collectively, these results show that *E. faecalis* interferes with

STAT3 activity to suppress *Myd88* transcription, thereby inhibiting NF-κB activation.

MCT-1 and GPR81 mediate NF-κB suppression in *E. faecalis*-infected

macrophages

Macrophages sense extracellular lactate and pH gradients via monocarboxylate

transporters and G-protein coupled receptors [34, 51]. To investigate their contribution

to *E. faecalis*-mediated immune suppression, we silenced the genes encoding MCT-

1, GPR81 (also known as hydroxycarboxylic acid receptor 1), and GPR65 in RAW

264.7 macrophages. Knockdown was confirmed by RT-PCR and viability of

knockdown cells remained >80% **(Fig. S11F-H and S12)**. Individual knockdowns

partially restored NF-κB activation, whereas combined *Mct-1+Gpr81*, or a triple

knockdown of *Mct-1+Gpr81+Gpr65*, fully restored NF-κB activation in the presence *E.*

faecalis and LPS, while non-targeting controls had no effect **(Fig. 5A-B, Fig. S11A-E)**.

These results identify MCT-1 and GPR81 as the main mediators of lactate/pH sensing

during *E. faecalis* infection.

To define the mechanism by which MCT-1 and GPR81 contribute to NF-κB regulation,

we focused on GPR81-YAP and MCT-1-pH signaling. We hypothesized that GPR81

activation by extracellular lactate promoted YAP phosphorylation, limiting its nuclear

cooperation with p65 [19], and thereby attenuating NF-κB activation. Consistent with

this, the YAP agonist PY60 increased NF-κB activity in *E. faecalis*-infected cells,

whereas the YAP inhibitor verteporfin blunted NF-κB activation **(Fig. S13A-B)**.

Although the lactate-driven YAP response is reported to be adenylyl-cyclase

independent [19], and lactate is reported to reduce cAMP and inhibit NF-κB [52],

infection did not alter intracellular cAMP **(Fig. S13C)**, supporting a possible

noncanonical GPR81-YAP pathway. Combining PY60 with the adenylyl cyclase

inhibitor MDL-12330A (MDL-12) further increased LPS-driven NF-κB activation,

independent of infection, suggesting that GPR81-mediated YAP phosphorylation

dominates during infection **(Fig. S13D)**. Immunofluorescence and subcellular

fractionation confirmed altered pYAP localization and increased nuclear YAP **(Fig. S9I**

and Fig. S13E).

MCT-1 imports lactate in a proton-dependent manner, reducing intracellular pH [53].

At pH 6.4, NF-κB activation was suppressed in LPS-treated siRNA control cells, and

addition of lactate further enhanced suppression **(Fig. 5C)**. In *Gpr81*-silenced cells,

lactate did not increase suppression, indicating that MCT-1 alone can mediate NF-κB

inhibition under acidic conditions **(Fig. 5D)**. By contrast, *Mct-1* knockdown cells

showed stronger NF-κB suppression with increasing lactate at low pH, demonstrating

that GPR81 activity requires both acidity and lactate **(Fig. 5E)**. Notably, DMEM

supplemented with 10% FBS contains baseline lactate that may activate GPR81 under

low pH, contributing to NF-κB inhibition **(Fig. S14A)**. Finally, dual *Mct-1/Gpr81*

knockdown restored NF-κB activation, with any residual suppression likely mediated

by other pH sensors such as GPR65 **(Fig. 5F)**.

To further clarify the contribution of MCT-1 to NF-κB suppression, we used the MCT-

1/4 inhibitor α-cyano-4-hydroxycinnamate (CHC), the selective MCT-1 inhibitor

AZD3965, and the MCT inhibitor 7ACC2, either alone or in combination with the

adenylyl cyclase inhibitor MDL-12, in the presence or absence of *E. faecalis* and LPS

(Fig. S14). MDL-12 was included to keep intracellular cAMP levels low, thereby ruling

out residual cAMP-driven effects and focusing on pH- and transport-dependent

mechanisms. Consistent with its role in NF-κB activation, MDL-12 alone reduced NF-

κB reporter activity under neutral pH conditions **(Fig. S14B)**. In infected macrophages,

MCT-1 inhibition modestly relieved suppression when using AZD3965 or 7ACC2, but

not CHC **(Fig. S14C-D)**. Importantly, combining MCT inhibitors with MDL-12 restored

NF-κB activation to levels comparable to LPS stimulation alone **(Fig. S14D-E)**. These

results support that MCT-1 activity contributes to NF-κB suppression and that the

effect is independent of canonical cAMP signaling, as blocking both lactate transport

and adenylyl cyclase eliminates the suppression phenotype.

NF-κB suppression by *E. faecalis* occurs independently of HIF-1α, IL-10, and

HDAC pathways

We also considered whether the pH sensor HIF-1α [54] was involved in *E. faecalis*

immunosuppression of macrophages. HIF-1α was stabilized in WT *E. faecalis*-infected

macrophages, enhancing IL-1β production **(Fig. S15A-D)**. Hypoxia response element

(HRE) reporter assays confirmed enhanced HIF-1α activity during infection and an IL-

1R reporter assay similarly confirmed bioactive IL-1β, which was reduced with HIF-1α

inhibition by LW6 and enhanced by the HIF-1α activator O-phenanthroline **(Fig. S15E-**

G). However, NF-κB remained suppressed despite elevated IL-1β during infection **(Fig.**

5G), in line with the ability of *E. faecalis* to disrupt MyD88 expression and thereby

impair IL-1β signaling, which depends on MyD88 **(Fig. S15H)**.

IL-10 activates IL-10R, triggering JAK1/TYK2-dependent STAT3 Y705

phosphorylation **(Fig. S16A)** [55]. Since IL-10 is produced during *E. faecalis* wound

infection regardless of strain **(Fig. S16B-D)**, we asked whether infection-derived IL-10

could contribute to NF-κB suppression during infection. We first exposed NF-κB

reporter cells ± LPS to 20 µL bacteria-free supernatants from WT *E. faecalis*-infected

macrophages. These supernatants activated NF-κB **(Fig. S16E-F)**, consistent with our

prior findings on IL-1β signaling, suggesting that infection-derived IL-1β overrides, or

that endogenous IL-10 is insufficient to drive macrophage suppression. By contrast,

supernatants from IL-10-supplemented infections suppressed LPS-driven NF-κB

activity, consistent with carry-over of exogenous IL-10, while blockade with anti-IL-10R

yielded a response similar to untreated supernatant **(Fig. S16F)**. Finally, we directly

infected NF-κB reporter cells with WT *E. faecalis* under all combinations of LPS, IL-10,

and αIL-10R. NF-κB suppression remained robust regardless of IL-10 modulation **(Fig.**

5H). These results indicate that although IL-10 is produced during infection, it plays

little to no role in *E. faecalis*-mediated NF-κB suppression.

Finally, we measured HDAC contribution to lactic acid-mediated NF-κB suppression

in macrophages during *E. faecalis* infection. WT *E. faecalis* infection did not alter

global H3 acetylation, whereas the Ldh mutant reduced it **(Fig. S17A).** Pan HDAC

inhibition with trichostatin A (trichoA) partially restored NF-κB activation in LPS-treated,

E. faecalis-infected macrophages **(Fig S17B)** and HDAC6 inhibition with tubastatin A

(tubA) modestly relieved suppression, but inhibition of other isoforms had no effect

(Fig S17C-G). Together these results show that *E. faecalis*-derived lactic acid suppresses NF-κB primarily through MCT-1-mediated proton import and GPR81-driven YAP phosphorylation, whereas HIF-1α/ IL-1β responses occur but do not rescue NF-κB activation and HDAC activity contributes only marginally.

E. faecalis **LDH 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 [56]. We predicted 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 reduction of lactate in wound tissues at the same time point **(Fig. S18A),** but in agreement with *in vitro* data that show no difference between WT and Ldh survival in RAW264.7 cells and BMDMs 24 hpi **(Fig S18B)**. By 7 dpi, however, Ldh CFU were ~1-log lower than WT **(Fig. 6B)**, indicating that LDH primarily supports *E. faecalis* persistence rather than acute infection. Supporting this, a modified killing assay maintaining extracellular acidosis revealed reduced macrophage bactericidal capacity at low pH, independent of strain **(Fig. S18C)** or the source of bacterial-free supernatant **(Fig. S18D)**. Importantly, combined inhibition of MCT-1 with AZD3965 and YAP activation with PY-60 enhanced bacterial killing in both RAW264.7 cells and BMDMs **(Fig. S18E)**.

To define how LDH influences immune signaling *in vivo*, we examined p-p65, p-ERK, and MyD88 in wound tissues. WT *E. faecalis* infection, but not Ldh mutant, reduced p-ERK at 24 hpi and all three proteins at 7 dpi **(Fig. 6C)**. Flow cytometry revealed that macrophages expanded to ~80% of immune cells at 7 dpi in WT *E. faecalis* -infected

wounds versus ~25% at 1 dpi **(Fig. 6D, S18F)**, coinciding with the stronger reduction

in signaling proteins **(Fig. 6C)**. Direct analysis of macrophages confirmed marked

reductions in MyD88 and p-ERK at 7 dpi in WT *E. faecalis*-infected wounds compared

to uninfected or Ldh-infected wounds **(Fig. 6E-F)**. By contrast, topical application of

the STAT3 agonist ML115 on WT-infected wounds reduced *E. faecalis* CFU by 1.1-

log compared to PBS treatment **(Fig. 6G)**, further supporting the model that *E. faecalis*

suppresses macrophages killing via MyD88 downregulation. Altogether, these results

demonstrate that LDH contributes significantly to persistent *E. faecalis* wound infection

by promoting an acidic environment that impairs macrophage killing and dampens

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 [57]. To test whether immune suppression

contributed to this phenotype, we co-infected RAW 264.7 macrophages with *E. coli*

and either WT or Ldh *E. faecalis* and observed higher NF-κB activation for the Ldh co-

infection compared to WT **(Fig. 7A)**. Similarly, WT *E. faecalis* supernatants

suppressed NF-κB activation by other species, including *E. faecium*, *P. aeruginosa*

(PA), *S. aureus* (USA300), *L. monocytogenes* (LM), and *S. Typhimurium* (ST),

highlighting the potential of *E. faecalis* to promote a variety of polymicrobial infections

(Fig. 7B). With the exception of the *E. faecalis* Ldh mutant, *P. aeruginosa* PAO1, and

L. monocytogenes ATCC19115, each of these species also acidified the medium to

below pH 7 **(Fig. S19A)**. However, only enterococci and *S. aureus* produced

detectable amounts of lactic acid **(Fig. S19B)** and suppressed LPS-induced NF-κB

activation at high MOI **(Fig. S19C)** in the absence of marked cytotoxicity **(Fig. S19D)**.

In a murine wound model, co-inoculation with *E. coli* and either WT *E. faecalis* or the

Ldh mutant yielded similar *E. faecalis* CFU at 24 hpi **(Fig. 7C)**, whereas *E. coli* growth

was significantly enhanced during co-infection with WT, not the mutant **(Fig. 7D)**. To

exclude *E. faecalis*-derived lactate as a nutrient source for *E. coli*, we tested *E. coli*

growth *in vitro* with increasing lactate concentrations and observed no enhancement

(Fig. S19E). Altogether, these findings demonstrate that LDH-dependent lactic acid

production by *E. faecalis* suppresses host NF-κB signaling, thereby facilitating *E. coli*

proliferation during wound infection. Lactic acid-driven immune suppression may thus

represent a conserved strategy among certain lactic-acid producing species to

modulate host responses and promote polymicrobial persistence.

Discussion

E. faecalis is among the top pathogens associated with hospital acquired infections

including CAUTI, central line-associated bloodstream infection, and surgical site

infection [4, 58]. While previous studies focused on host inflammatory responses at

lower MOI [29, 59], we and others have shown that *E. faecalis* exhibits

immunomodulatory properties at higher MOI via mechanisms and bacterial factors that

were previously unclear [30, 31, 60]. Here we demonstrate that *E. faecalis* infection at

MOI 100 suppresses macrophage activation by interfering with STAT3 and YAP

activity, resulting in reduced MyD88 levels and inhibition of downstream signaling

events required for NF-κB activation. 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 [61]. *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 [38]. Similarly, LDH is

important for virulence of *S. aureus* in a murine sepsis model [62]. Lactic acid-induced

immunosuppression appears widespread; other lactic acid bacteria, such as

Lactobacillus, suppress NF-κB activation in macrophages and myometrial cells [63,

64]. 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. 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 [17, 65-75]. 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 [43]. While other bacterial infections activate the MEK/ERK cascade for oxidative and nitrosative bursts, endosomal trafficking, and proinflammatory macrophage polarization [76-78], *E. faecalis* subverts this defense [79, 80]. *Salmonella typhimurium* and *Helicobacter pylori*, for example, induce STAT3 phosphorylation via secreted factors to alter immune responses [79]. We show that pH sensitive kinases, including MEK and ERK, are disrupted at lower intracellular pH, inhibiting STAT3 activity in alignment with previous studies [81]. Indeed, pH 6.2-6.4 also reduces MEK and ERK phosphorylation in fibroblasts and prevent NF-kB activation in macrophages [48, 82].

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, other metabolites and protons was previously shown to mediate the inhibition of HDAC11 activity that leads to the activation of HDAC6 to promote IL-10 release [83]. Here we show that MCT-1 transport of protons is driving intracellular pH down which disrupts the MEK-ERK-STAT3 phosphorylation signaling cascade leading to lower MyD88 expression. At the same time, GPR81 sensing of extracellular lactate prevents the activation of the transcription factor YAP and, ultimately, leads to NF-κB suppression [19, 83]. Classically, lactate activates GPR81 to lower cAMP, whereas lower cAMP via PKA activates LATS1/2 to phosphorylate YAP and retain it in the cytoplasm. Therefore, logically, a simple drop in cAMP would be expected to decrease, not increase, YAP phosphorylation leading to greater NF-κB activation [84]. However, lactate-GPR81 signaling increases YAP phosphorylation in macrophages likely in an adenylyl cyclase-dependent manner, consistent with the hypothesis that

GPR81 can drive AMPK-LATS signaling pathway to rather inactivate YAP and

dampen NF-κB [19]. In line with this model, *E. faecalis* infection did not measurably

reduce intracellular cAMP in our system, and the adenylyl-cyclase inhibitor MDL-12

reduced rather than increased NF-κB activation in uninfected and infected

macrophages. Interestingly, we also detected nuclear pYAP signal, although Ser127

phosphorylation typically promotes cytoplasmic retention, suggesting non-canonical

nuclear YAP pools during infection.

Expression of the genes encoding MCT-1 and GPR81 is pH-dependent [25-27].

Moreover, both MCT-1 and GPR81 may be activated at lower pH [34, 85]. Lactate

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

suppression, suggesting that MCT-1/GPR81 activation is indeed pH dependent.

Initially, our study seems to contrast a study showing that lactic acid can induce

phosphorylation of ERK in rat hepatocyte RLN-10 cells via GPR81 sensing [86].

However, that study was conducted under adjusted neutral pH, 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 [87, 88]. Conversely, others have observed that acidosis (pH 4-5)

can activate ERK2, but not ERK1, in human epidermoid squamous carcinoma A431

cells [89], 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 [90]. Similarly, pH 6.3 was observed to inhibit ERK

phosphorylation in Jurkat cells after 24 h [91]. 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 [92, 93], as well as

their beneficial contributions to healthy microbiomes, further studies are needed to

delineate how extracellular pH and lactate mechanistically shape polymicrobial

interactions. We found that several bacterial species can acidify their environment,

often through metabolites other than lactate, although many exhibited cytotoxicity at

higher MOI. At lower MOI, when these species activated NF-κB, *E. faecalis*

supernatant alone was sufficient to suppress this activation. Together, these findings

reveal *E. faecalis* as a paradigm for metabolic immune modulation, demonstrating how

bacterial acidification can reprogram host signaling to foster interspecies coexistence

and persistence within infected tissues. Importantly, compounds that override this

suppression and activate macrophage NF-κB signaling during *E. faecalis* infection

enhance macrophage intracellular killing of bacteria [94, 95]. 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.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

E. coli strains used in this study were grown overnight in Luria-Bertani (LB) (Difco)

broth or agar at 37°C under static conditions. *E. faecalis* strain OG1RF or *ldh* mutants

and other bacterial strains **(Table S4)** 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 x 10^8 CFU/mL) for *E. faecalis* and at OD_{600} 0.4 (2 x 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 [96]. 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 according to

the manufacturer's protocol. Primers used in the study are listed in **Table S5**.

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. The amplified

plasmids were then 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 interest 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. For MyD88 rescue experiments and HIF-1α reporter assays cells were

transduced with pCMV3-mMYD88 (Sino Biological) and pGL4.42[luc2P/HRE/Hygro] (Promega), respectively, using the Lipofectamine LTX with Plus Reagent (Thermo Fisher Scientific) following the manufacturer's instructions at least 1 day before the assays were performed. HEK-Blue IL1R cells (Invivogen), which is a HEK 293 reporter cells for human and murine IL-1α & IL-1β cytokines, were cultured in DMEM (Gibco) supplemented with 10% (v/v) heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum, 100 U/mL penicillin, 100 μg/mL streptomycin, and 1x HEK-Blue selection (Invivogen) at 37°C in a humidified incubator with 5% CO_2. Cells were passaged when they reached 80% confluency. For passaging or harvesting cells for assays, cells were washed and incubated in PBS for 2 min at 37°C, followed by vigorous pipetting of PBS over the cell monolayer to detach the cells.

Bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMDM) isolation and cultivation

BMDMs were harvested according to previously published protocol [97]. 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 min 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. Variations of this assay included lowering the pH to 6.4 with

lactic acid, H_3PO_4 or HCl, and also neutralizing acidic supernatants to pH 7.8 with Tris.

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). For killing assays, cells

were infected at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 10 or 100 for up to 6 hours. Following

infection, the medium was aspirated, and the cells were washed three times in PBS

and incubated with gentamicin (150 µg/mL) (Sigma-Aldrich) and vancomycin (20

µg/mL) (Sigma-Aldrich) to kill extracellular bacteria in complete DMEM for up to 24 h

to selectively kill extracellular bacteria. The antibiotic-containing medium was then

removed, and the cells were washed three times in PBS before addition of 2% Triton

X-100 (Sigma-Aldrich) PBS solution to lyse the cells for enumeration of the intracellular

bacteria. Variations of this assay included lowering the pH to 6.4 with wither LA or HCl,

pretreatment of mammalian cells for 30 min, before bacterial infection, with AZD3965

(10µM), PY60 (10 µM) or both followed by antibiotic treatment also containing these

compounds.

Fluorescent staining and microscopy

Cells were seeded at 2×10^5 cells/well in a 24-well plate with 10 mm coverslips and

allowed to attach overnight at 37 °C and 5% CO_2. Infection and LPS treatment were

performed for 6 h prior to fixation with 4% PFA at 4 °C for 15 min. Cells were then

blocked for 1 h with PBS supplemented with 0.1% saponin and 2% bovine serum

albumin (BSA). For antibody labelling, antibody solutions were diluted in PBS with 0.1%

saponin at a 1:100 dilution for anti-p65 (Cell Signaling Technology), anti-STAT3 (Cell

Signaling Technology) and anti-p-Yap (Cell Signaling Technology) and incubated

overnight at 4°C. The following day, coverslips were washed 3 times in 1× PBS with

0.1% saponin and incubated with a 1:100 dilution of goat anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L) Alexa

Fluor 568 secondary antibody (Thermo Fisher Scientific) for 1 h at room temperature.

For actin labeling, the phalloidin-Alexa Fluor 647 conjugate (Thermo Fisher Scientific)

was diluted 1:40 in blocking solution and incubated for 1 h. Coverslips were then

washed three times in PBS with 0.1% saponin. For nuclei staining, Hoechst 33342

was added in a dilution of 1:1000 for 5 min. Coverslips were then subjected to a final

wash with PBS thrice. Finally, the coverslips were mounted with SlowFade Diamond

Antifade (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and sealed. Confocal images were then acquired

on a 63×/NA1.4, Plan Apochromat oil objective fitted onto an Elyra PS.1 with an LSM

780 confocal unit (Carl Zeiss), using the Zeiss Zen Black 2012 FP2 software suite.

Laser power and gain were kept constant between the experiments. Z-stacked images

were processed by using Zen 2.1 (Carl Zeiss). Acquired images were visually

analyzed using ImageJ.

Intracellular pH measurement

BCECF AM (Thermo Fisher Scientific) was used to measure intracellular pH as per

manufacturer's instructions. Cells were loaded with 1 mM BCECF AM for 30 min prior

to infection. After 6 h of infection, fluorescence at excitation 440 nm and emission 535

nm was measured using a plate reader. To calibrate intracellular fluorescence ratio to

pH, the CCCP technique was used [98]. Cells were first loaded with BCECF AM, then

treated with 2 mM CCCP for 30 min following addition of pH-defined medium and

fluorescence measurement.

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 [83] .The captured and

purified DNA was prepared for ChIP-qPCR, and specific primers (**Table S5**) 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

(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 S5)**. qPCR was performed for each primer set. Amplification

was performed with KAPA SYBR Fast (Kapa Biosystems) with specific primers **(Table**

S5) and detected by StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR machine (Applied Biosystems).

Relative quantification was performed using the delta-delta method [99] 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 [35, 95]. 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 1 μL of Fc-blocker (anti-CD16/CD32 antibody; BioLegend)

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

BV605 and PE, respectively, 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 gated on side scatter area (SSC-A) versus forward scatter area (FSC-A) to select the RAW264.7 population. The RAW264.7 population was subsequently gated on side scatter width (SSC-W) versus SSC-A to exclude doublets. 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.

For wound samples, flow cytometry was performed as described in [9]. Excised skin samples were placed in 1.5 mL Eppendorf tubes containing 2.5 U/ml liberase prepared in DMEM with 500 μg/mL of gentamicin and penicillin G (Sigma-Aldrich). The mixture was then transferred into 6-well plates and incubated for 1 h at 37 °C in a 5% CO_2-humidified atmosphere with constant agitation. Dissociated cells were then passed through a 70 μm cell strainer to remove undigested tissues and spun down at 1350 rpm for 5 min at 4 °C. The enzymatic solution was then aspirated, and cells were blocked in 500 μL of FACS buffer (2% FBS and 0.2 mM ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) in PBS (Gibco, Thermo Fisher Scientific). 10^7 cells per sample were then incubated with 1 μL of Fc-blocker (anti-CD16/CD32 antibody, Biolegend) for 30 min, followed by incubation with an antimouse CD45, CD11b, and F4/80 (macrophages) plus MyD88 (ProteinTech) and p-ERK (Biolegend) markers conjugated with PE-Cy5, PE-Cy7, BV605, FITC and APC, respectively, antibodies (1:100 dilution) for 30 min at room temperature. Cells were then centrifuged at 500g for 5 min at 4 °C and washed in FACS buffer. Cells were fixed in 4% PFA for 15 min at 4 °C, before a final wash in

FACS buffer and final resuspension in this buffer. Following which, cells were analyzed

using a BD LSRFortessa X-20 Cell Analyzer (Becton Dickinson). Samples were first

gated on side scatter area (SSC-A) versus forward scatter area (FSC-A) to identify the

wound cell population. This population was then gated on forward scatter height (FSC-

H) versus FSC-A to exclude doublets. The resulting single-cell population was

analyzed for CD45 expression to identify immune cells, followed by assessment of

CD11b and F4/80 fluorescence to define the macrophage population. Compensation

was done using AbC Total Antibody Compensation Bead Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific)

as per manufacturer's instructions.

siRNA transfection

Silencer select pre-designed siRNA (Thermo Fisher Scientific) against *Slc16a1 (Mct-1), Hcar1 (Gpr81), Gpr65, Gapdh* and NT siRNA 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 MOI 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.

IL-1 reporter assay

After RAW264.7 infection, bacteria were pelleted and supernatants were filter-

sterilized. 20 μl of bacterial supernatant filtrate were added to 50,000 HEK-Blue IL-1R

cells (Invivogen) in 180 μl DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS and 100 U/mL

Penicillin-Streptomycin in a 96-well plate. As negative control, DMEM was used

instead of bacterial supernatants. DMEM supplemented with human mature IL-1β (100

pg/mL) served as a positive control. Some RAW264.7 cells were pre-treated with HIF-

1α inhibitor LW6 (10 μM) or HIF-1α activator O-phenanthroline (5 μM) for 30 min prior

to the beginning of the assay. Samples were incubated for 6 h at 37°C. Next, 20 μl of

HEK-Blue IL-1R cell supernatants were transferred to 180 μl of QUANTI-Blue Solution

(invivogen) in a 96-well plate and incubated at 37°C for 1 h, followed by absorbance

at 640 nm in a plate reader (TECAN).

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 [100]. 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* WT 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, WT was used as control and signals

higher than means of WT 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 and cAMP levels 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), 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) or or QuantiQuik L-Lactic acid quick test strips

(BioAssay Systems) were used to quantify lactate concentration. Intracellular levels of

cAMP were assessed using cAMP Direct Immunoassay Kit (Abcam) according to the

manufacturer's instructions.

IL-6, IL-1β and IL-10 quantification

Wound lysates from 24 hpi and supernatants collected from RAW 264.7 cells 6 hpi

were stored at -80 °C until assessment by the ELISA MAX Deluxe Set Mouse for IL-

6, IL-1β and IL-10 assay kit (Biolegend), 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). Wounds were prepared as

previously described [57]. 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) and shaving using a scalpel. Next, the skin

was first disinfected using 70% ethanol and a 6 mm biopsy punch (Integra Miltex) 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* WT, 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)

or BHI agar supplemented with 10 µg/mL colistin (Sigma-Aldrich) and 10 µg/mL

nalidixic acid (BHI-CNA) (Sigma-Aldrich) to isolate *E. coli* or *E. faecalis*, respectively.

RNA extraction

After 6 hpi with *E. faecalis* at various MOI 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) prior to RNA extraction. 1 mL of Trizol (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher)

per well and was stored at -80°C until RNA extraction using Direct-zol RNA Miniprep

Plus kit (Zymo Research) according to manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, 200 μL of

chloroform (Sigma Aldrich) 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) following the manufacturer's protocol.

RNA samples were first screened using TapeStation (Aligent Technologies) 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) and Qubit RNA BR Assay Kit (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific), before

storage at -80°C until sequencing using an Illumina Hiseq®2500 v.2 (Illumina), 150 bp

paired-end.

qRT-PCR

To quantify the levels of RNA transcripts, total RNA was extracted from noninfected or

WT-infected RAW264.7 cells in presence or absence of LPS (100 ng/mL) with the

RNeasy MinElute Kit (QIAGEN) and reverse-transcribed using SuperScript III First-

Strand Synthesis SuperMix (Thermo Fisher Scientific), followed by amplification with

KAPA SYBR Fast (Kapa Biosystems) and detected by StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR

machine (Applied Biosystems). Relative quantification of gene expression was

performed using the comparative CT method [101], where the CT values were

normalized with the housekeeping gene glyceraldehyde phosphate dehydrogenase

(GAPDH) for comparison.

Protein extraction and immunoblot

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

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

Aldrich) 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) in 1

x NuPAGE MOPS SDS Running Buffer (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific). 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) 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) 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) and autoradiography films

(Kodak).

Subcellular Protein Fractionation

The subcellular protein fractionation kit for cultured cells (Thermo Fisher Scientific)

was used as per manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, after infection cells were washed

and harvested, then gently plasma membrane permeabilized to collect the cytosolic

proteins. Cellular membranes were solubilized to remove membrane-associated

proteins while keeping nuclei intact. Nuclear proteins were then extracted using

nuclear buffer. Collected samples were then used for immunoblot.

In vitro MEK activity assay

In vitro MEK activity assay was performed using the MEK Activity Assay Kit (Sigma,

code CS0490) instructions with some modifications. MEK was immunoprecipitated

from samples with anti-MEK antibody (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and Protein A/G

magnetic beads (Abcam). The immunoprecipitated MEK was used to phosphorylate

the non-phosphorylated ERK substrate from cells that were treated with Selumetinib

(1 μM) for 6h and further depleted of MEK via IP. The level of ERK phosphorylation

was detected by immunoblotting using anti-p-ERK.

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/daSilva_et_al.

Statistical Analysis

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

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Ethics Statement

All animal experiments were performed with approval from the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) in Nanyang Technological University (NTU),

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R.A.G.d.S., B.Y.Q.T., P.H.N.K., H.A., 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.

G.T., J.C., and K.A.K. supervised, acquired funding, and provided resources.

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

approved the final manuscript.

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1340   **Figures**
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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

macrophages. Activated and suppressed pathways were determined based on genes

that are over and under expressed in the analyzed pathways. The size of the circle

indicates the number of genes in each pathway gene set that are up- or down-

regulated. **(B)** Heatmap of differentially expressed NF-κB/ AP-1-related genes. **(C)**

Immunoblots performed on protein extracted from RAW 264.7 macrophages infected

with *E. faecalis* for 6 h at the indicated MOI (100, 10, 1) with or without LPS and probed

with antibodies specific for MyD88, ERK, p-ERK, p65, p-p65 and GAPDH. The two

bands for ERK and p-ERK immunoblots represent ERK isoforms 1 and 2. Data shown

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

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

before CD14 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 $*p<0.05$, $**p<0.01$ and $***p<0.001$.

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

 (A) 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. (B) Immunofluorescence of p65 in RAW264.7 cells at 6 hpi infection with WT or Ldh in the presence or absence of

LPS. Magenta, p65 and cyan, dsDNA stained with Hoechst 33342. Images are

representative of 2 independent experiments. Scale bar: 5 µm. **(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. 25 mM lactic acid best

approximates the lactate concentration measured in MOI 100 supernatants in

Fig. S4C. **(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 ****$p<0.0001$ 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 (LA) or sodium lactate (Lac) (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. **(E)** RAW 264.7 macrophages were incubated with *E. faecalis* WT

(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 NF-κB-driven SEAP reporter activity. **(A-**

E) 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 ****$p<0.0001$

as compared to media alone unless otherwise indicated.

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

activity in macrophages. (A) Immunoblot of STAT3, acetyl-STAT3, p-STAT3 (S727),

p-STAT3 (Y705), MEK1/2, p-MEK1/2, p-ERK, MyD88 and GAPDH with protein

extracted from RAW 264.7 macrophages infected with WT *E. faecalis* or Ldh mutant.

(B) *In vitro* MEK activity assay. **(C-D)** pERK immunoblot of whole cell lysate (WCL) of

cells treated with Selu demonstrating Selu effectively diminishes ERK phosphorylation

(C). ERK and pERK Immunoblot post *in vitro* MEK activity assay using

immunoprecipitated MEK of WT infected WCL. GAPDH immunoblot shows initial

reaction input were equal **(D)**. Immunoblot images represent two independent

experiments **(C-D)**. **(E)** ChIP–qPCR for STAT3 of the three regions at the MyD88

transcriptional starting site in purified DNA of RAW 264.7 cells that were infected with

WT *E. faecalis* or Ldh mutant with or without LPS treatment for 6 h. Treatment with LA

in the presence of LPS was also included. A depiction of the three regions relative to

the transcriptional starting site (gray arrow) of *Myd88* is shown. *Myd88* coding

sequence is represented in red. The positive control was established for an RNA

polymerase binding site for the *Gapdh* gene. Replicates from 3 independent

experiments are shown. Statistical analysis was performed using Kruskal-Wallis test

followed by uncorrected Dunn's multiple comparison tests where ns, $p > 0.05$; *$p \leq 0.05$

and **$p < 0.01$. **(F-G)** RAW 264.7 macrophages were infected with the WT *E. faecalis*

and incubated with cell culture media in the presence or absence of LPS and **(F)** Stattic

(10 μM) and **(G)** 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 $p < 0.0001$ as

compared to LPS unless otherwise indicated. **(H)** 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 fresh medium

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≤0.05.

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

mediate suppression of NF-κB by *E. faecalis*.

(A-B) RAW 264.7 macrophages, with or without siRNA-silenced lactate transporters

and sensors, were infected with *E. faecalis* in the presence or absence of LPS for 6 h

prior to measurement of NF-κB-driven SEAP reporter activity. **(C-F)** Non-targeting,

Gpr81 (*Hcar1*), *Mct-1* (*Slc16a1*) siRNA alone or combined were used to silence RAW

264.7 cells in pH 7.6 or pH 6.4 in the presence or absence of LPS, in increasing

concentrations of lactate, for 6 h prior to measurement of NF-κB-driven SEAP reporter

activity. **(G)** RAW 264.7 macrophages were infected with the WT *E. faecalis* and

incubated in cell culture media in presence or absence of IL-1β for 6 h prior to

measurement of NF-κB-driven SEAP reporter activity. **(H)** NF-κB reporter activity

assay with RAW 264.7 cells uninfected or 6 h WT infected that were left untreated or

treated with LPS. RAW 264.7 cells were pre-treated with IL-10 or antibody αIL-10R for

30 min prior to the beginning of the assay. Data (mean ± SEM) represent at least two

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

ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test **(A-B and D-G)** or Fisher's LSD

(C and H), ns, $p>0.05$; *$p \leq 0.05$; **$p<0.01$ and ****$p<0.0001$.

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

B) 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, $p > 0.05$, *$p \leq 0.05$.

(C) Immunoblot performed on protein extracted from harvested wound lysates of WT

or Ldh infections 24 hpi or 7 dpi and probed with antibodies against p-p65, MyD88, p-

ERK and GAPDH. **(D)** Percentage of CD11b$^+$ F4/80$^+$ macrophages recovered from

uninfected or infected wounds with WT or Ldh after 24 hpi or 7 dpi. Comparison of

mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of MyD88 **(E)** and p-ERK **(F)** staining gating on

CD11b$^+$ F4/80$^+$ macrophages recovered from uninfected or infected wounds with WT

or Ldh after 24 hpi or 7 dpi. **(D-F)** Each dot represents one mouse. Data (mean ± SEM)

are a summary of at least two independent experiments with two to four mice per

experiment. Statistical analysis was performed using Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's

posttest; ns, p>0.05; *p≤ 0.05; and **p≤ 0.01. **(G)** Mouse wounds 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 is 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 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. **(B)**

RAW 264.7 macrophages were infected with different bacterial species as indicated

at MOI 1 for 6 h in the presence or absence of WT supernatant prior to measurement

of NF-κB-driven SEAP reporter activity. **(A-B)** Data (mean ± SEM) are summary from

at least 3 independent experiments. Statistical analysis was performed using ordinary

one-way ANOVA, followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test; ns, $p>0.05$;

***$p ≤ 0.001$; and ****$p ≤ 0.0001$. Mouse wounds 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

1519   four to five mice per experiment. Statistical analysis was performed using the

1520   nonparametric Mann-Whitney test to compare ranks **(B)** and using Kruskal-Wallis test

1521   with Dunn's posttest **(C)**; ns, p>0.05; *$p \leq$ 0.05; and **p$\leq$ 0.01.

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Supplementary Figures

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

affecting the production and phosphorylation status of different proteins of the

NF-κB pathway.

(A) Immunoblot performed on protein extracted from RAW 264.7 macrophages

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

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

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

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)** Immunoblot performed on protein extracted from RAW 264.7

macrophages infected with WT *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<0.0001.

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Figure S2 – Methodology for transposon library screen to identify bacterial

factor(s) important in macrophage suppression.

(A) 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)** 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

1583 WT levels set to 100%.

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1586 **Figure S3 – *E. faecalis* infection prevents p65 nuclear translocation.** CLSM

1587 orthogonal view of RAW 264.7 macrophages at 6 hpi with WT or Ldh strains in

1588 presence or absence of LPS. Magenta, p65; cyan, dsDNA stained with Hoechst 33342;

1589 yellow, F-actin stained with phalloidin. Images are representative of 2 independent

1590 experiments. Scale bar: 5 μm.

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Figure S4 – LDH mutant does not have growth defects and acidifies the 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)** pH for *E. faecalis* strains grown in cell culture media measured over a time course. **(E)** 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 cytotoxicity. **(F)** Lactate concentration was measured using 6 hpi bacterial free supernatant. 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 WT.

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Figure S5 – *E. faecalis* infection affect transcription of immune response genes in BMDM. qRT-PCR analysis of NF-κB-related genes transcript level in RAW 264.7 cells that were infected with WT *E. faecalis* for 6 h in the presence or the absence of LPS. Each dot represents one biological replicate. 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 S6 – *E. faecalis*-derived lactic acid suppresses NF-κB activation in LPS

pre-treated cells.

Immunoblot performed on proteins 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 **(A)** MyD88, p-ERK and GAPDH, and **(B)** p-p65, p-ERK and GAPDH.

Samples in **(B)** are with or without LPS. Data (mean ± SEM) are a summary of at least

two independent experiments. **(C)** Heatmap showing $\log_2$-transformed, row-scaled

fold changes in cytokine, chemokine, and growth factor expression relative to

uninfected controls, detected in filtered supernatants at 6 hpi from WT *E. faecalis* and

the Ldh mutant. The scale bar represents z-scores (mean = 0, SD = 1). **(D)** RAW 264.7

macrophages were incubated with cell culture media supplemented with lactate at

various concentrations for 6 h prior to measurement of cytotoxicity. **(E)** RAW 264.7

cells were pre-treated for 1 h with LPS prior to measurement of NF-κB-driven SEAP

reporter activity. **(F)** RAW 264.7 cells infected with WT *E. faecalis* or Ldh mutant for 6

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1634   **Figure S7 – pH adjusted medium does not affect macrophage viability.**

1635   **(A)** Picture of bacterial-free supernatant at indicated MOI. The color indicator in the

1636   cell culture medium turns yellow upon acidification. RAW 264.7 macrophages were

1637   incubated with **(B)** acidified bacterial-free Ldh supernatant, **(C)** neutralized bacterial-

free WT supernatant, **(D-E)** WT *E. faecalis* or Ldh deletion mutant treated concurrently

with LPS at specific MOI for 6 h, and **(F)** acidified cell media in the absence of bacteria,

prior to measurement of NF-κB activity or cytotoxicity. **(B-C, E-F)** Triton-X treatment

served as a positive control (high control) for cell death. **(D-E)** 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 and LDH activity. **(B-F)** Data (mean ± SEM) are a

summary of at least three independent experiments. **(G)** Immunoblots 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 S8 – Intracellular, heat or UV killed *E. faecalis* do not contribute to NF-κB

suppression in macrophages.

RAW 264.7 macrophages were incubated with *E. faecalis* WT (MOI 100, 50, 25, 10,

1) for 3 h and treated with 500 µg/mL of gentamicin with penicillin G overnight at 37°C

(A) and were incubated with live, heat killed or UV killed WT (MOI 100, 50, 25, 10, 1)

for 6 h **(B)** prior to measurement of NF-κB-driven SEAP reporter activity and **(A and**

C) measurement of cytotoxicity. **(A-C)** 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<0.001 and ****p<0.0001 as

compared to media control.

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Figure S9 - Low pH during *E. faecalis* infection prevents ERK phosphorylation.

(A) BCECF-AM calibration curve used in the BCECF-AM experiments. **(B)** pHi in non-

infected, WT or Ldh infected RAW264.7 6 hpi using BCECF-AM. **(C)** CLSM orthogonal

view of RAW264.7 macrophages at 6 hpi with WT in the presence or absence of LPS.

Magenta, STAT3; cyan, dsDNA stained with Hoechst 33342; yellow, F-actin stained

with phalloidin. Images are representative of 2 independent experiments. Scale bar: 5

µm. **(D-E)** MyD88 rescue experiment using the mammalian expression vector pCMV3-

mMyd88. A representative MyD88 immunoblot of successfully transduced RAW264.7

cells that were uninfected or infected with *E. faecalis* is shown **(D)**. **(E)** Cells were

transduced 24 h prior to performing NF-κB reporter assay. Data (mean ± SEM)

represent three independent experiments. Statistical analysis was performed using

ordinary one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test**,** ns, $p > 0.05$;

*$p \leq 0.05$; and ****$p < 0.0001$. **(F)** Immunoblot was performed on proteins from RAW

264.7 macrophages subcellular fractions after WT or Ldh mutant infection for 6 h and

probed with antibodies raised against STAT3, p-STAT3 (S727), p-STAT3 (Y705), YAP,

p-YAP, p65, p-p65, histone H3 and GAPDH. CE and NE stand for cellular and nuclear

extract, respectively. Immunoblot images represent two independent experiments **(D**

and F). **(G)** Heatmap of differentially expressed STAT3-related genes.

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Figure S10 – STAT1 does not play a role in suppressing NF-κB in *E. faecalis*-

infected macrophages.

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 ****$p < 0.0001$ as compared to LPS unless otherwise

indicated. (D) Immunoblot was performed on proteins from RAW 264.7 macrophages

uninfected or infected with WT in presence or absence of ML115 (± LPS) for 6 h and

probed with antibodies raised against MyD88 and GAPDH.

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Figure S11 – The lactate transporters MCT-1 and GPR81 are redundant in their

role in the suppression of NF-κB activation of *E. faecalis* infection. (A-G) RAW

264.7 macrophages, with successfully silenced lactate transporters as indicated, were

infected with the WT *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 at least two independent

experiments. NT siRNA was used so was *Gapdh* siRNAs controls 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<0.0001. (H) Ldh assay was performed to evaluate potential

cytotoxicity of the technique under the different siRNAs used.

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1736 **Figure S12 – Successful knockdown of lactate transporters of interest was**

1737 **verified with RT-PCR. (A-D)** Transcript levels of the silenced genes of interest were

1738 assessed with specific primers for each target. Negative control (NT) used was the

1739 Silencer Select Negative Control siRNAs that contain siRNAs with sequences that do

1740 not target any gene product.

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Figure S13 - *E. faecalis* infection disturbs pYAP function and localization.

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

culture media in the presence or absence of LPS and **(A)** PY-60 (10 μM), **(B)**

verteporfin (10 μM), **(D)** MDL-12 alone or in combination with either PY-60 or

verteporfin 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, $p>0.05$, *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, and ****$p<0.0001$. **(C)** Intracellular cAMP

quantification of RAW264.7 cells uninfected or infected with WT or Ldh in presence or

LPS. **(E)** CLSM orthogonal view of RAW264.7 macrophages at 6 hpi with WT in the

presence or absence of LPS. Magenta, p-YAP; cyan, dsDNA stained with Hoechst

33342; yellow, F-actin stained with phalloidin. Images are representative of 2

independent experiments. Scale bar: 5 μm.

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Figure S14 – MCT1 mediate *E. faecalis* suppression of NF-κB activation in

macrophages. (A) Lactic acid concentration of DMEM + 10 % FBS media. RAW 264.7

macrophages were infected with the WT *E. faecalis* and incubated in cell culture media

in presence or absence of LPS and **(B)** CHC (5 mM) and **(C)** MDL-12 (20 μM),**(D-E)**

AZD3965 (1μM), 7ACC2 (1μM) and CHC alone or in combination with MDL-12 for 6 h

prior to measurement of NF-κB-driven SEAP reporter activity. The cell cultures were

treated with compounds for 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 ****$p < 0.0001$.

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Figure S15 – *E. faecalis* prevents IL-1β activation of NF-κB in RAW264.7

macrophages

(A) Heatmap of differentially expressed HIF-1α-related genes. **(B)** Levels of IL-1β from

the supernatants of uninfected or infected with WT or Ldh RAW264.7 macrophages

treated with LPS, HCl, LA or sodium lactate (Lac). **(C)** Immunoblot performed on

protein extracted from RAW 264.7 macrophages infected with WT or Ldh for 6 h and

probed with antibodies specific for IL-1β and GAPDH. **(D)** Levels of IL-1β and IL-6

from uninfected or WT-infected wound lysates at 24 hpi. Each dot represents one

mouse. **(E)** HIF-1α reporter activity assay in RAW264.7 macrophages that were

uninfected or infected with WT treated with O-phenanthroline (+) or LPS. **(F-G)** IL-1R

reporter activity assay with HEK-Blue IL-1R cells treated with 20 μl bacteria-free

supernatants from uninfected or infected with WT or Ldh RAW264.7 macrophages that

were left untreated or treated with LPS, HCl, or LA for 6 h. Some RAW264.7 cells pre-

treated with LW6 or O-phenanthroline for 30 min prior to the beginning of the assay.

(H) IL-1β activation of NF-kB signaling pathway. Data (mean ± SEM) are summary of

at least 2 independent experiments **(B-G)**. Statistical analysis was performed using

unpaired t test with Welch's correction **(D)**, ordinary one-way ANOVA followed by

Tukey's multiple comparison test **(B, E)** or Fisher's LSD **(F-G),** ns, $p > 0.05$; *$p ≤ 0.05$;

**$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, and ****$p < 0.0001$.

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Figure S16 – IL-10 from *E. faecalis* infected macrophages does not suppress NF-κB during enterococcal infection.

(A) IL-10 signaling pathway. **(B)** Heatmap of differentially expressed IL-10-related genes. **(C)** IL-10 levels from uninfected or WT-infected wound lysates at 24 hpi. Each dot represents one mouse. **(D)** Levels of IL-10 from the supernatants of uninfected or infected with WT or Ldh RAW264.7 macrophages treated with LPS, HCl, lactic acid (LA) or sodium lactate (Lac). **(E-F)** NF-κB reporter activity assay with RAW264.7 cells treated with 20 μl bacteria-free supernatants from uninfected or 6 h WT infected RAW264.7 macrophages that were left untreated or treated with LPS. RAW264.7 cells

1805 were pre-treated with IL-10 or antibody αIL-10R for 30 min prior to the beginning of

1806 the assay. Data (mean ± SEM) are summary of at least 3 independent experiments

1807 **(C-D and F)**. Statistical analysis was performed using unpaired t test with Welch's

1808 correction **(C)**, ordinary one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test

1809 **(D)** or Fisher's LSD **(F)**, ns, $p > 0.05$; *$p ≤ 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, and ****$p < 0.0001$.

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1814 **Figure S17 – HDACs likely play a partial role in mediating *E. faecalis* suppression**

1815 **of NF-kB activation in macrophages. (A)** Relative abundance of H3Ac by ELISA of

1816 uninfected or WT and Ldh infected macrophages. RAW 264.7 macrophages were

1817 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

****$p < 0.0001$.

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Figure S18 – Lactic acid reduces macrophage killing of bacteria.

(A) Lactate concentration of wound measured at 24 hpi for the indicated condition. **(B-E)** RAW264.7 cells or BMDMs were infected with either WT or Ldh without any other treatment **(B)**, in the presence of LA (40 mM) or HCl to lower the extracellular pH **(C)**, bacterial free supernatant from WT or Ldh cultures that were neutralized with NaOH or acidified with HCl **(D)**, or in the presence of AZD3965 (10 μM), PY60 (10 μM), or

both **(E).** Intracellular bacterial CFU was quantified. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison tests where p>0.05; *p≤0.05; **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, and ****p<0.0001. **(F)** Representative gating strategy for macrophages (CD45+ CD11b+ F4/80+) from wounds that were treated with PBS or infected with WT or Ldh strains at 24 hpi or 7 dpi. The number indicate percentages of cells within the gated areas. Recorded MFI levels of MyD88 and p-ERK derived from this group.

Figure S19 – Lactic acid-producing species acidify the medium and suppress macrophage NF-κB activation at high MOI.

(A) Lactic acid concentration of several bacterial species grown in cell culture media at initial MOI 100 measured after 6 hpi. (B) Extracellular pH following bacterial growth in cell culture media with starting inoculum equivalent to MOI 100 measured after 6 hpi. (C) RAW 264.7 macrophages were infected with the non-cytotoxic bacterial species of *E. faecalis* strain V583, *E. faecium* strains AUS0004 and E745 and *S. aureus* strain USA300 at initial MOI 100 for 6 h prior to NF-kB reporter assay. (D) RAW 264.7 macrophages were infected with different bacterial species at initial MOI 100 for 6 h prior to LDH assay to measure cytotoxicity. Data (mean ± SEM) are summary of at least 2 independent experiments (A-D). Statistical analysis was performed using ordinary one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test (C) ***$p<0.001$, and ****$p<0.0001$. (E) Growth curve for *E. coli* strain UTI89 grown overnight in LB media supplemented with different concentration of lactate.

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1883 **Supplementary Tables**

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1917   **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	c-Rel	1.60	Yes	1.70	Yes	0.29	No
Rela	p65	-0.07	No	0.41	No	0.59	No
Relb	RelB	1.26	No	2.33	Yes	1.01	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
Mapk3	ERK1	0.22	No	0.87	No	1.00	No
Mapk1	ERK2	-0.09	No	0.11	No	0.05	No

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1935 **Table S2-** List of hits after transposon screen for genes that contribute to suppress

1936 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

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1956 **Table S3 –** Cytotoxicity as measured by LDH assay of compounds used in this

1957 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

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1965 **Table S4-** Strains used in this study

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Strain	Reference
E. faecalis OG1RF	[102]
E. faecalis OG1RF Ldh (ΔΙdh1ΔΙdh2)	This study
E. faecalis OG1RF ΔΙdh1	This study
E. faecalis OG1RF ΔΙdh2	This study
E. faecalis OG1RF pldh1 (+ pGCP123::ldh1)	This study
E. faecalis V583	[103]
E. coli MG1655	[104]
E. coli EC958	[105]
E. coli UTI89	[106]
S. aureus USA300	[107]
S. *typhimurium* 14028S	[108]
P. aeruginosa PAO1	[109]
E. faecium E745	[110]
E. faecium AUS0004	[111]
Listeria monocytogenes ATCC19115	[112]

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1971 **Table S5-** 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	CATGCTCGAGCGGCCGTCGTTACTCTGTCCATCATTT
	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

qRT-PCR		
Cd14	CD14_F	TTGAACCTCCGCAACGTGTCGT
	CD14_R	CGCAGGAAAAGTTGAGCGAGTG
Myd88	Myd88_F	ACCTGTGTCTGGTCCATTGCCA
	Myd88_R	GCTGAGTGCAAACTTGGTCTGG
Tlr4	Tlr4_F	AGCTTCTCCAATTTTTCAGAACTTC
	Tlr4_R	TGAGAGGTGGTGTAAGCCATGC
Tlr2	Tlr2_F	ACAGCAAGGTCTTCCTGGTTCC
	Tlr2_R	GCTCCCTTACAGGCTGAGTTCT
Il1b	Il1b_F	TGGACCTTCCAGGATGAGGACA
	Il1b_R	GTTCATCTCGGAGCCTGTAGTG
Hif1a	Hif1a_F	CCTGCACTGAATCAAGAGGTTGC
	Hif1a_R	CCATCAGAAGGACTTGCTGGCT
Stat3	Stat3_F	AGGAGTCTAACAACGGCAGCCT
	Stat3_R	GTGGTACACCTCAGTCTCGAAG
Rela	Rela_F	TCCTGTTCGAGTCTCCATGCAG
	Rela_R	GGTCTCATAGGTCCTTTTGCGC
p105	p105_F	GCTGCCAAAGAAGGACACGACA

	p105_R	GGCAGGCTATTGCTCATCACAG
p100	p100_F	TGCTGATGGCACAGGACGAGAA
	p100_R	GTTGATGACGCCGAGGTACTGA
Mapk1	Mapk1_F	TCAAGCCTTCCAACCTCCTGCT
	Mapk1_R	AGCTCTGTACCAACGTGTGGCT
Il10	Il10_F	CGGGAAGACAATAACTGCACCC
	Il10_R	CGGTTAGCAGTATGTTGTCCAGC

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