

Which microbial factors really *are* important in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* infections?

Audrey Crousilles¹, Eve Maunders¹, Sean Bartlett², Catherine Fan¹, Emem-Fong Ukor³, Yassmin Abdelhamid¹, Ysobel Baker², Andres Floto³, David R Spring² and Martin Welch^{1*}

1. Department of Biochemistry (Hopkins Building), Tennis Court Road, Cambridge CB2 1QW, United Kingdom.
 2. Department of Chemistry, Lensfield Road, Cambridge CB2 1EW, United Kingdom.
 3. Department of Respiratory Medicine, Cambridge Biomedical Campus, Wellcome Trust/MRC Building, Hills Road, Cambridge, CB2 0XY, United Kingdom.
- *Corresponding author (mw240@cam.ac.uk).

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Abstract. Over the last two decades, tens of millions of dollars have been invested in understanding virulence in the human pathogen, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. However, the top “hits” obtained in a recent TnSeq analysis aimed at identifying those genes that are conditionally essential for infection did not include most of the known virulence factors identified in these earlier studies. Instead, it seems that *P. aeruginosa* faces metabolic challenges *in vivo*, and unless it can overcome these, it fails to thrive and is cleared from the host. In this review, we look at the kinds of metabolic pathways that the pathogen seems to find essential, and comment on how this knowledge might be therapeutically exploited.

A changing landscape. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* is an opportunistic human pathogen – one that has the dubious accolade of featuring regularly among the “top ten” offenders in lists of common hospital “superbugs” worldwide. The organism is capable of causing infections in a wide range of tissue types (especially in immunocompromised hosts) although it exhibits a particular predilection for soft tissues, where the resulting infections can become either acute or chronic. By definition, chronic infections fail to clear through normal immune intervention or following antibiotic treatment, and can often persist for months or even years without resolution. For example, by their ‘teens, the airways of many cystic fibrosis (CF) patients often become chronically-colonized by *P. aeruginosa*, and these infections can persist for decades, in spite of regular aggressive antibiotic scourings’ [1]. By contrast, acute infections often begin locally, but can rapidly spread to become systemic. Such infections can kill in a matter of days, and for this reason, *P. aeruginosa* remains the scourge of hospital burns units. The key question is, why are the outcomes of these two types of infection – chronic and acute – so radically different? Recent efforts to address this question have forced us to reconsider our previously rather “anthropocentric” notions about which microbial factors really are important for maintaining

42 successful infection. It turns out that the answer(s) to this question are not necessarily what we
43 thought. In this review we assess how these recent contributions may lead to a change in our
44 perception of the “virulence paradigm” that has guided research into *P. aeruginosa* pathogenicity for
45 the last few decades.

46 **Some History.** First, a bit of background. *P. aeruginosa* has long been known to be the archetypal
47 “secretor” and its large (ca. 6.4 Mbp) genome encodes an extensive repertoire of secreted virulence
48 factors [2]. Of these, proteases seem to play a particularly important role. Indeed, of the 5568 open
49 reading frames (ORFs) encoded in the genome of the type strain, PAO1, 155 (2.8%) are listed as
50 proteases in the MEROPS database [3]. Moreover, in the right conditions, the manifold secretory
51 systems (six at the last count) encoded by *P. aeruginosa* churn out vast quantities of these tissue-
52 damaging exoenzymes, which in addition to the proteases, also include phospholipases, exotoxins and
53 endotoxins (Figure 1). A vivid snapshot of the complexity and diversity of the secretome can be
54 garnered by inspection of any of the manifold 2D-PAGE analyses of *P. aeruginosa* exoproteins that
55 have been carried out over the years [4, 5]. The importance of these virulence factors in infection was
56 inferred from that fact that mutants defective in their synthesis, regulation or secretion often
57 displayed reduced pathogenicity in e.g., rodent pulmonary models of infection. This was especially
58 true of “pleiotropic” mutants affecting multiple virulence phenotypes. For example, the cell-cell
59 signalling mechanism, quorum sensing (QS) has been shown to exert decisive control over the
60 synthesis of many secreted virulence factors in *P. aeruginosa* [4, 6]. Consistent with this, QS mutants
61 display drastically reduced virulence *in vivo* [7, 8]. The inescapable conclusion from these studies was
62 that “virulence factors” are a (if not the) key tactical weapon in the infection strategy of *P. aeruginosa*,
63 and this line of thinking has dominated the direction of research in the area since its inception.

64 In parallel with the work being carried out on virulence factors, an influential hypothesis began to
65 develop which posited that infection type (acute versus chronic) may be integrally-linked with growth
66 mode. Essentially (so the argument goes) chronic infections are mostly associated with the sessile or
67 “biofilm-like” mode of microbial growth, whereas acute infections involve cells whose physiology
68 more closely resembles that observed in planktonic cultures [9, 10] (Figure 2). This was (and remains)
69 an attractive hypothesis for two reasons. First, planktonic cultures of *P. aeruginosa* are known to
70 secrete virulence factors in far greater quantity than their sessile counterparts; a feature that
71 correlated well with the apparently more aggressive nature of acute infections. [Recent work has also
72 shown that biofilms not only secrete fewer exoproteins, but also that the spectrum of proteins
73 secreted is different [4].] Second, due to their polysaccharide coating and altered physiology, biofilms
74 are known to be highly-resistant to antibiotics and also display reduced clearance by the host immune
75 system. These are precisely the features that we associate with chronic infections. Moreover, and
76 consistent with the overall notion that chronic infections are associated with reduced virulence, *P.*
77 *aeruginosa* isolates harvested from CF patients frequently display impaired virulence factor
78 production (often due to mutation of the master pleiotropic regulator of QS, *lasR* [11]) and/or
79 increased antibiotic resistance e.g., due to the acquisition of mutations in genes encoding repressors
80 of normally-cryptic antibiotic efflux pumps [12].

81 In the light of the above, and if we had access to technologies that would allow us to “ask the cell”
82 which of its hardware really is important for infection, we would expect to see a list dominated by
83 virulence factors, genes involved in lifestyle decisions, antibiotic resistance, “social functions”
84 (quorum sensing) and so on. Fortunately, such a technology does now exist: TnSeq ([13], Figure 3).
85 This technique exploits the quantitative nature of next-generation DNA sequencing to measure the
86 abundance of a particular transposon (Tn) insertion mutant among a library comprising hundreds of

87 thousands of individual mutants disrupted in different genes. The utility of TnSeq is that if a library of
88 mutants is introduced into an infection model, those mutants containing Tn insertions in genes that
89 are conditionally essential for infection should be negatively selected, and this will be reflected by a
90 reduction in the corresponding abundance of DNA sequence reads associated with those gene(s)
91 compared with either the input pool or with DNA harvested from a similarly inoculated *in vitro* axenic
92 culture. Based on recent TnSeq analyses (see below), it seems that our preconceptions about infection
93 may have been unnecessarily skewed towards the role(s) played by virulence factors, and that other
94 areas of microbial physiology make an equal - if not greater - contribution. Moreover, the same work
95 also put paid to the widely-held assumption that gene expression (transcript levels, measured by
96 RNASeq for example) during infection are a good proxy for the relative importance of the
97 corresponding gene in the infection process (as revealed by TnSeq). It turns out that this is not true.

98 **A different picture emerges.** Last year, Turner *et al.* published a ground-breaking study which
99 combined both TnSeq (i.e., mutant fitness profiling) and RNASeq (transcriptome profiling) to
100 investigate which *P. aeruginosa* genes are conditionally important for acute and chronic infections in
101 mice [14]. In their murine model, they used a subcutaneously infected dorsal burn to mimic an acute
102 infection. This type of infection led to rapid sepsis and 100% mortality in 48 hr. By contrast, a surgically-
103 delivered dorsal excision was used to mimic a chronic infection. When covered with an adhesive
104 bandage to prevent contractile healing such wounds deposit granulation tissue, are recalcitrant to
105 antibiotic clearance, and can persist for many weeks. As a reference sample for comparison of their *in*
106 *vivo* RNASeq and TnSeq data, these workers used planktonic cultures grown to mid-log phase in MOPS-
107 buffered defined medium with succinate as a sole carbon source – a condition in which the physiology
108 of *P. aeruginosa* is well-defined.

109 **RNASeq data.** Interestingly, the RNASeq analysis revealed that 14% and 19% of ORFs were
110 differentially-transcribed (>4-fold change) in the acute (24 hr post-infection) and chronic (3 days post-
111 infection) models, respectively. Moreover, there was substantial overlap in the genes that were
112 differentially regulated in each case, suggesting that the cues sensed by the bacteria in both types of
113 infection are similar. Reassuringly, many of the modulated genes – the “usual suspects” - were
114 involved in virulence or protein secretion. Indeed, some of the greatest fold-changes in expression
115 were associated with known virulence factors, although the direction of modulation was not always
116 as expected. For example, transcripts encoding pyochelin (siderophore) synthesis, rhamnolipid
117 synthesis and alkaline protease (all known virulence factors) were strongly up-regulated in *both* acute
118 and chronic infection models, whereas the *psl* biosynthetic genes were strongly down-regulated. The
119 latter was unexpected because Psl polysaccharide is the main matrix component of *P. aeruginosa*
120 biofilms [15], and as noted earlier, biofilms are thought to be associated with the development of
121 chronic infections. However, these were minor incongruities compared with the picture emerging
122 from the parallel TnSeq analyses.

123 **TnSeq data.** As in the RNASeq, a sizeable proportion of the mutants displayed differential fitness in
124 the acute and chronic infection models, and some interesting general patterns became evident. For
125 example, the TnSeq data indicated that flagellum-based motility is clearly extremely important in
126 acute but not chronic infection. In contrast, the Type III and Type VI secretion systems were important
127 for fitness in chronic, but not acute infections. This was somewhat unexpected since laboratory
128 experiments have shown that these two secretion systems are reciprocally-regulated *in vitro*: Type III
129 secretion is thought to be primarily associated with planktonic growth (and therefore, with the
130 development of acute infections) whereas Type VI systems are thought to be primarily associated with
131 biofilm growth (i.e., chronic infection (Figure 2) and [9, 10]). Presumably, living cells in “real” infections

132 are less dogmatic. Alternatively, the distinction between what constitutes planktonic and biofilm-like
133 growth *in vivo* is more blurred than we think. Another intriguing finding was that the genes encoding
134 the *psl* biosynthetic cluster contribute strongly to fitness in both the acute and chronic infection
135 models. Recalling that RNASeq indicated that transcription of the *psl* gene cluster was down-regulated
136 in these infection types, this too was unexpected. However, the *psl* example was not unique – indeed,
137 for most classes of gene, RNASeq was generally found to be a very poor predictor of genes important
138 for fitness in the wound models. Critically though, there were some notable exceptions to this trend
139 – primarily involving genes that encode enzymes involved in metabolism - and for the remainder of
140 this review, we will focus on these.

141 **You are what you eat...** For some functional categories of gene – especially those involved in primary
142 metabolism – expression levels were found to be a good predictor of mutant fitness. Indeed, it seems
143 that *P. aeruginosa* “rewires” its metabolic pathways during infection to take advantage of the
144 particular set of nutrients available in the host environment. So what kinds of nutrient does *P.*
145 *aeruginosa* eat as it tucks into a nice meal of mammal? The RNASeq/TnSeq analysis of Turner *et al*
146 allowed – for the first time - the *in vivo* dietary preferences of *P. aeruginosa* to be inferred. Projection
147 of the RNASeq data for metabolic genes onto the KEGG pathways map for *P. aeruginosa* revealed
148 some unexpected results. It turns out that *P. aeruginosa* – previously thought to be an amino acid
149 lover [16] (which would be commensurate with the plethora of proteases encoded in its genome) – is
150 particularly partial to long-chain fatty acids. The *faoAB* genes (encoding the 2-enoyl-CoA hydratase /
151 3-hydroxyacyl-CoA dehydrogenase subunit (FaoA) and 3-oxoacyl-CoA thiolase subunit (FaoB) of the
152 fatty acid oxidase complex [17]) were up-regulated in the acute infection model, and the same genes
153 displayed fitness defects when disrupted by Tn insertions. Moreover, a defined *faoA* deletion mutant
154 was attenuated in both chronic and acute infection models, suggesting that fatty acid oxidation plays
155 a key role in survival *in vivo*.

156 **2C or not 2C?** The problem with utilizing fatty acids is that they are broken down *via* β -oxidation to
157 acetyl-CoA units. These acetate moieties are then combined with oxaloacetate to yield citrate, which
158 then enters the TCA cycle. Normally, as they progress around the cycle, these two acetate-derived C
159 atoms are liberated as CO₂. This means that the two input C atoms (acetate moieties) cannot be used
160 to generate biomass. The cell can therefore generate energy (i.e., NADH and thence ATP equivalents)
161 but cannot grow; gluconeogenesis is not possible when fatty acids are the sole C source. However,
162 bacteria have evolved a clever solution to this problem. Prior to the CO₂-producing steps of the TCA
163 cycle, a proportion of the carbon skeletons are “siphoned off” the main sequence of TCA cycle
164 reactions in a pathway known as the glyoxylate shunt (Figure 4). Here, *isocitrate* is cleaved by *isocitrate*
165 *lyase* (encoded by *aceA*) to yield glyoxylate and succinate (which re-enters the TCA cycle following the
166 oxidative decarboxylation steps). The glyoxylate is not wasted though; malate synthase G (encoded
167 by *glcB* in *P. aeruginosa*) combines glyoxylate with an additional acetyl-CoA molecule to yield the
168 gluconeogenic precursor, malate. The net effect of this is that C skeletons are preserved for anabolic
169 reactions and the creation of biomass [18, 19]. Consistent with this proposed redirection of carbon
170 flux, Turner *et al* found that the transcripts encoding enzymes involved in the oxidative
171 decarboxylation steps of the TCA cycle (*isocitrate dehydrogenase(s)* and α -ketoglutarate
172 *dehydrogenase*) are down-regulated, whereas the transcript encoding the first enzyme of the
173 glyoxylate shunt (*aceA*) was up-regulated [14].

174 The importance of the glyoxylate shunt in infections has been noted before. Lindsey *et al.* found that
175 an *isocitrate lyase* (*aceA*) mutant displays reduced virulence in a rat lung infection model and noted
176 that *isocitrate lyase* activity is often up-regulated in CF-derived isolates adapted to chronic infection

177 [20]. More recently, Fahnoe *et al* inactivated both *aceA* and *glcB* in *P. aeruginosa* i.e., completely
178 inactivating the glyoxylate shunt [21]. This double mutant was completely cleared by 48 hr post-
179 infection in a mouse pulmonary infection model, indicating that the shunt is absolutely essential for
180 colonization *in vivo*. Remarkably, the same team also identified a collection of small molecules that
181 could simultaneously inhibit both *isocitrate* lyase and malate synthase G in laboratory cultures of *P.*
182 *aeruginosa*. Unfortunately, Fahnoe *et al.* did not report on whether their “top hit” compounds could
183 resolve *in vivo* infections – presumably, these compounds may be toxic in mammalian systems, but
184 the overall approach still looks promising. Indeed, nature has already exploited this strategy; recent
185 work has shown that the human enzyme Irg1 synthesizes large quantities of itaconate (an inhibitor of
186 *isocitrate* lyase) during macrophage activation, directly contributing towards the antimicrobial activity
187 of these cells (reviewed in [22]). However, and in a remarkable evolutionary tit-for-tat, *P. aeruginosa*
188 (along with other pathogens such as *Yersinia pestis*) has also acquired the ability to degrade itaconate,
189 and can even live off this compound as a sole C source ([23]). Furthermore, recent data suggest that
190 *P. aeruginosa* can also degrade other *isocitrate* lyase inhibitors, such as nitropropionic acid (produced
191 by some plants and fungi) *via* the nitronate monooxygenase activity of the gene encoded by PA4202
192 (*nmoA*) [24].

193 Interestingly, recent ¹³C flux analyses have indicated that unlike the situation in *Escherichia coli*, where
194 *aceA* is only expressed during growth on acetate (or acetate-producing substrates), in *P. aeruginosa*,
195 there is significant flux through the pathway even during growth on glucose [25]. This suggests that
196 the shunt may play a more general role in the physiology of the organism beyond simply redirecting C
197 skeletons for gluconeogenesis. Indeed, inhibition of the glyoxylate shunt may deliver a double
198 whammy to *P. aeruginosa*; our own team recently showed that *isocitrate* lyase activity stimulates Type
199 III Secretion during *microaerobic* growth, suggesting that the absence of the glyoxylate shunt not only
200 results in metabolic insufficiency – it also diminishes virulence *per se* [26]. Moreover, itaconate could
201 suppress Type III Secretion when added to microaerobic cultures *in vitro*. Crucially in this regard, the
202 RNASeq/TnSeq data of Turner *et al.* strongly suggest that oxygen limitation plays a key role in infection
203 – the anaerobic regulator [27] encoded by *anr* was among the most strongly attenuated Tn mutants
204 that they identified, especially during acute infection [14]. These data suggest that oxygen limitation
205 may be a common feature of many *P. aeruginosa* infections.

206 Quite why *P. aeruginosa* chooses a metabolic strategy that is dependent upon the glyoxylate shunt
207 (instead of utilizing more “available” nutrients) is not clear. However, inspection of the rank-ordered
208 list of attenuated Tn mutants obtained by Turner *et al* reveals that insertions in *glpD* (glycerol 3-
209 phosphate dehydrogenase) were also essentially avirulent *in vivo*. GlpD converts glycerol 3-phosphate
210 into dihydroxyacetone phosphate, and a mutant in *glpD* was recently shown to produce lower levels
211 of certain virulence determinants (pyocyanin and pyoverdine) *in vitro* [28]. One major possible source
212 of glycerol *in vivo* is phospholipids, which are broken down to yield fatty acids and glycerol.

213 To get a better insight into what kinds of nutrient are on the *P. aeruginosa* menu in a mouse, Turner
214 *et al.* compared the biosynthetic pathways expressed during growth on minimal succinate media
215 (where most biosynthetic pathways are necessarily “on”) with those expressed *in vivo*. The logic here
216 was that biosynthetic pathways are generally only transcribed when the corresponding pathway
217 product is not available from the environment (after all, why waste valuable metabolic resources
218 synthesizing say, an amino acid, if the same amino acid is plentiful in the growth media?). Therefore,
219 by comparing these two datasets, they could infer which nutrients might be available to *P. aeruginosa*
220 *in vivo* during wound infections. The results were surprising; non-available metabolites included
221 certain amino acids (glutamate, aspartate, tyrosine, phenylalanine and asparagine) as well as purines,

222 *p*-aminobenzoate and B-group vitamins (the precursors for many cofactors). Indeed, and further
223 confirming these results, *in vitro*-constructed *pabC* and *purA* mutants (deficient in *p*-aminobenzoate
224 and purine biosynthesis, respectively) were avirulent *in vivo*. In contrast, mutants defective in
225 metabolites predicted to be “available” *in vivo* were unaffected in virulence. This striking result
226 strongly suggests that components of the pathways required for synthesis of “non-available”
227 metabolites may make excellent targets for the development of new anti-pseudomonal agents.

228 **The situation is slightly different in CF infections.** More recently, Turner *et al.* have been using Monte
229 Carlo simulations to rigorously interrogate a new set of TnSeq data in which the growth requirements
230 of *P. aeruginosa* in CF sputum have been investigated. These data have enabled them to refine the
231 composition of artificial CF sputum medium [29]. The gene fitness requirements in this new medium
232 now so closely resemble that in “real” CF sputum that they are all but indistinguishable, thereby
233 providing a far better laboratory model for the study of CF-associated *P. aeruginosa* infections than
234 previously possible. In the same study, the authors also compared the list of genes that are
235 conditionally essential for the survival of two strains of *P. aeruginosa* (PAO1 and PA14) when grown
236 in minimal medium containing authentic CF sputum as a sole nutrient source. Interestingly, most of
237 the conditionally essential genes were located in the conserved “core” genome of both strains.
238 However, clear differences were observed in the *relative* essentiality of different genes in each strain.
239 Moreover, and although common pathways (e.g., those for chorismate, panthothenate,
240 diaminopimelate, purines, pyridoxal phosphate, riboflavin and certain polyamines) were deemed
241 essential for infection in both wound [14] and CF infections [29], some important differences were
242 apparent. For example, as outlined earlier, fatty acid oxidation is essential in wound infections but
243 seems to play a much less important role during growth in CF sputum. In general, the authors
244 concluded that CF sputum presents a far less harsh environment compared with that encountered in
245 wound infections, although cynically, this may simply be a reflection of the fact that the *in vitro* CF
246 model used by those workers contains no immune cells, whereas presumably, an exuberant immune
247 response is mounted in the *in vivo* wound models. Nevertheless, the results of Turner *et al* [14, 29]
248 and Fahnoe *et al* [21] strongly suggest that the targeting specific domains of metabolism may offer a
249 real opportunity to develop some truly innovative antimicrobial interventions. In this regard, it is ironic
250 to note that one of the first antibiotics, sulfanilimide (introduced in the 1930s), targets *p*-
251 aminobenzoate metabolism.

252 **Real-life infections are more complex.** One fly-in-the-ointment in the case for targeting specific
253 metabolic nodes is that *P. aeruginosa* isolates which are auxotrophic for certain amino acids arise
254 frequently in chronic CF infections [30]. Indeed, we too have identified auxotrophs in CF sputum that
255 are defective in the synthesis of one or more of the 20 common amino acids, as well as in the synthesis
256 of certain cofactors (MW/E-FU/AF, *unpublished data*). This is surprising given that the availability of
257 several amino acids (e.g., Gln, Tyr, Asn, Asp) is predicted by Turner *et al.* to be limiting in CF sputum
258 [29]. However, and as noted by Barth & Pitt, CF sputum is certainly rich enough in amino acids to
259 support the growth of some auxotrophs [31]. Additionally, there is even evidence to suggest that high
260 total amino acid concentrations in sputum coincide with acute pulmonary exacerbation episodes and
261 an increased prevalence of auxotrophs [32]. One possibility is that these sputum amino acids are host-
262 derived. If this is so, then the case for targeting *P. aeruginosa* amino acid biosynthesis for possible
263 therapeutic intervention is weakened. Alternatively, the sputum amino acids could be microbially-
264 derived. In this regard, biofilm and anaerobic planktonic cultures of *P. aeruginosa* (PAO1) grown in
265 defined medium *in vitro* are known to accumulate large quantities of amino acids [33], presumably
266 due to overflow metabolism. [We note here that the sputum samples used in the study of Tuner *et al.*
267 that were found to be limiting for Gln/Tyr/Asn/Asp were (understandably) obtained from a patient

268 with a low bacterial load [29].] This raises the possibility that the population structure of *P. aeruginosa*
269 in any given chronically-infected CF patient may be self-stabilized *via* intra-species cross-feeding. For
270 example, Tyr⁻ *P. aeruginosa* auxotrophs could be sustained off the tyrosine provided by Tyr⁺
271 prototrophs, and so on. If this is indeed the case, then amino acids (and presumably, other metabolites
272 too) can be viewed as bacterially-produced “public goods” in much the same way that virulence
273 factors have been [34, 35]. While this possibility has not yet been rigorously tested experimentally,
274 there is good evidence to suggest that the population of *P. aeruginosa* in a given sputum sample is
275 both phenotypically and genomically heterogeneous [36-39]. If true and the *P. aeruginosa* population
276 structure *is* stabilized by cross-feeding of nutrients, then by targeting the synthesis of one or more of
277 these nutrients, the network of interactions that maintains population cohesion should collapse (or at
278 least undergo radical remodelling). However, a potential counter-argument lies in the fact that CF
279 infections are rarely associated with *P. aeruginosa* monocultures; a veritable zoo of microbes can be
280 identified (usually from their 16S rDNA signatures) in many CF sputa [40, 41], raising further
281 opportunities for cross-feeding. Consequently, drugs targeting specific domains of metabolism may
282 need to have rather broad specificity, allowing them to target enzymes in multiple genera of bacteria.

283 **Parting comments.** *P. aeruginosa* is not a professional pathogen; in spite of its genomic arsenal of
284 putative virulence determinants, it is primarily an opportunist that has to adapt to the host
285 environment in order to survive. The TnSeq analyses of Turner *et al* have yielded insights into what
286 the cell itself finds important during this process. The precise physiological adaptations that appear to
287 be truly important are tuned to some extent by the subtle nuances attending the different types of
288 infection in different tissues. However, there is enough common ground between the requirements
289 in these different infection types to raise the hope that generic new anti-pseudomonal compounds
290 might be discovered through this avenue of investigation. This notwithstanding, and aside from the
291 issues raised earlier in this discussion, there are caveats. One is the issue of redundancy. For example,
292 although FaoA/FaoB clearly play an important role in wound infections, the acyl-CoA dehydrogenases
293 that necessarily precede the action of these enzymes were not identified as being conditionally
294 essential in infection. Presumably, this is because multiple copies of genes encoding acyl-CoA
295 dehydrogenases are present in the *P. aeruginosa* genome (seven genes are annotated as putative acyl-
296 CoA dehydrogenases in PAO1) and inactivation of any one of these genes may be compensated by the
297 residual activity of the other isozymes present. A similar argument could be made for ppGpp
298 generating enzymes. The stress alarmone, ppGpp, is required for amino acid biosynthetic pathway
299 expression [42] and has been implicated in virulence in many bacterial pathogens (reviewed in [43]).
300 However, for a noticeable virulence phenotype to be manifest, *both* ppGpp-generating enzymes (RelA
301 and SpoT) need to be inactivated [44]. Similarly, cyclic di-GMP is also known to play a key role in
302 determining lifestyle and virulence in *P. aeruginosa*, yet this small molecule is made and sensed by a
303 multitude of gene products [45]. Another potential issue relates to the nature of the medium
304 employed for growth of the TnSeq reference samples (recall that Turner *et al* used MOPS-buffered
305 succinate medium). This is because the “essential gene set” varies somewhat during growth *in vitro* in
306 different media (Lee *et al*, [46]). Although there is an apparent “core” set of ca. 350 genes (many of
307 which are involved in central carbon metabolism) that seem to be essential in most common
308 laboratory growth media, Lee *et al* identified ca. 200 genes that appear to be conditionally essential
309 in different growth media. Thus, the conclusions of Turner *et al* will be inevitably biased somewhat by
310 their specific choice of MOPS-succinate for growth of the reference sample. However, and
311 commensurate with the results discussed earlier, Lee *et al* also found that CF sputum is likely to be
312 rich in amino acids and unsaturated fatty acids [46].

313 **Future Perspective.** These arguments aside, the results of Turner *et al.* must at the very least cause us
314 to re-assess our notions about *P. aeruginosa* virulence. The past two decades of *P. aeruginosa*
315 virulence research have been dominated by the role(s) played by quorum sensing and biofilm
316 formation. However, it turns out that although the “key regulators” associated with these phenotypes
317 (*retS*, *ladS*, *lasR*, *gacA*, *gacS*, *rsmA*, *rsmY*, *rsmZ* etc – [9, 10, 47]) do feature on the “TnSeq attenuated-
318 list”, for the most part they do not make the “top 200” for any infection type. That is not to say that
319 they do not play an important role in infection under some circumstances – they do, and we know
320 that. It’s just that some rather more mundane (and perhaps, overlooked?) phenotypes seem to be
321 more important. This may actually be good news; unlike many of the pleiotropic virulence regulators
322 that have become a favoured target for antimicrobial research over the last two decades, the enzymes
323 of central metabolism are generally (i) highly conserved across the bacterial genera, and (ii) contain
324 discrete “drug-able” binding pockets that are amenable to drug development. Moreover, we have
325 historical proof-of-principle that the targeting of metabolic nodes (re: the sulphonamides) works.
326 Given the dearth of new antimicrobials in the pipeline, coupled with the inexorable spread of
327 resistance to existing antibiotics, it seems likely that over the next few years we will see a renewed
328 interest in targeting central metabolism.

329 **Executive Summary.**

- 330 ● *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* is an opportunistic pathogen which produces a wealth of secreted
331 virulence factors and secondary metabolites. These secreted factors have been assumed to play a
332 pivotal role in infection.
- 333 ● New technologies are allowing us to “ask the bacterial cell” which of its genes are important for
334 infection in mammalian systems. For example, RNASeq allows quantitation of transcript levels
335 whereas TnSeq reports on the contribution of specific genes towards fitness *in vivo*.
- 336 ● In a recent analysis, RNASeq and TnSeq were used in parallel to investigate which *P. aeruginosa*
337 genes are required for optimal virulence in a murine infection model. Surprisingly, for most classes of
338 gene (including known virulence factors) this analysis revealed that there was very little correlation
339 between transcript abundance and the contribution of the corresponding gene towards overall
340 fitness. However, for certain “metabolic genes”, these factors *were* strongly correlated.
- 341 ● During some types of infection, *P. aeruginosa* exhibits a predilection for metabolizing fatty acids.
342 Mutants in the fatty acid oxidase complex are severely attenuated in virulence. In addition, the
343 glyoxylate shunt (an anaplerotic pathway which bypasses the oxidative decarboxylation steps of the
344 TCA cycle) makes an important contribution towards fitness *in vivo*.
- 345 ● Certain metabolites (amino acids and vitamins) are not available to *P. aeruginosa* during *in vivo*
346 infections, making the biosynthetic pathways producing these compounds excellent potential targets
347 for the development of novel antimicrobials.
- 348 ● Not all types of infection elicit the same metabolic requirements in *P. aeruginosa*. Moreover, the
349 relative essentiality of different genes varies between different *P. aeruginosa* strains.

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532 **Figure Legends.**

533 **Figure 1. Virulence factors and their associated secretion systems in *P. aeruginosa*.** The genes
534 encoding type I secretion systems (“T1” in the figure) are generally tightly-associated with their
535 respective substrates (e.g., the *aprDEF* cluster encodes the alkaline protease T1 secretion system,
536 which is located immediately adjacent to the genes encoding its secreted substrates, AprX and AprA).
537 In contrast, the passenger proteins secreted through the type II secretion systems (T2) are distributed
538 around the genome and carry cleavable N-terminal signal sequences or Tat signals. Two T2 systems
539 have been described in *P. aeruginosa*; the Xcp system [48] (which transports most of the proteins
540 shown in the figure) and the Hxc system [49] which exports the alkaline phosphatase, LapA. The T3
541 and T6 systems are “injectisomes” which export proteins directly from the bacterial cytosol into the
542 recipient cell [50], which may be either a host cell or another bacterium. *P. aeruginosa* encodes one
543 dedicated type III secretion system (T3SS) comprised of around 40 genes, and three T6SSs (HSI-I, HSI-
544 II and HSI-III) each comprising around 15-20 genes. However, the flagellar apparatus (also a virulence
545 factor in its own right, but not shown for clarity in the figure) can arguably be defined as a T3SS too.
546 Finally, *P. aeruginosa* also encodes two varieties of T5SS [51]; the T5a autotransporter secretes the
547 cell surface-associated esterase EstA whereas the T5b “two-partner” systems secrete e.g., the
548 protease LepA (which targets NF- κ B) or the chaperone usher protein, CupB5. There are four other T5b
549 systems known to be encoded in the *P. aeruginosa* genome. In addition, *P. aeruginosa* also secretes
550 polysaccharides such as Psl [15] and Pel [52], which are thought to constitute the biofilm/pellicle
551 matrix, as well as alginate (whose production is essentially pathognomic of CF).

552 **Figure 2. Reciprocal regulation of virulence factors in laboratory cultures: the “lifestyle paradigm”.**

553 In laboratory growth conditions, planktonic cultures of *P. aeruginosa* secrete large quantities of tissue-
554 damaging exoproteins, primarily due to the operation of the T1 and T2 secretion systems (see Figure
555 1). Expression of the T1 and T2 secretion systems and of many of their substrates is controlled by
556 quorum sensing (QS) [5, 6]. In contrast, expression of the T3 system is only minimally affected by QS.
557 Instead, T3 secretion – which leads to the subversion of host cell function - thought to be primarily
558 turned “on” as a consequence of RetS signalling. In the activated state, RetS forms inhibitory
559 heterodimers with the sensor kinase, GacS. This leads to less GacA phosphorylation and consequently,
560 less expression of the RsmA antagonistic RNA species, rsmZ and rsmY. RsmA activity therefore
561 becomes unfettered, leading to increased T3 secretion and motility and a concomitant decrease in T6
562 secretion/*psl* gene expression [45]. This reciprocal regulation is further fine-tuned by cyclic di-GMP
563 levels (low cyclic-di-GMP concentrations favour motility and T3 secretion). In contrast, when a biofilm
564 forms, LadS signalling dominates. This leads to a decrease in free RsmA levels, and combined with high
565 cyclic-di-GMP concentrations, promotes increased T6 secretion and *psl* gene expression. Oddly, QS
566 has been posited as being important for biofilm formation too, yet *in vitro*-grown biofilms exhibit only
567 low levels of T1/T2-dependent protein secretion [4]. It is not yet clear why QS should impact so
568 differently on protein secretion during planktonic and biofilm growth.

569 **Figure 3. Overview of the TnSeq method.**

570 A library of *in vitro*-generated Tn mutants is prepared and
571 is used to inoculate a laboratory culture and an animal infection model. After the requisite amount of
572 time, bacterial DNA is harvested from each sample and the DNA flanking the Tn insertions is PCR
573 amplified. Bar-coded sequencing primers are then ligated to each PCR product and the mixture is sent
574 for DNA sequencing (usually using an Illumina sequencer). The quantitative nature of Illumina
575 sequencing means that the number of reads associated with each Tn insertion can be determined,
allowing the representation of each Tn mutant in the output pool (*cf.* the input pool or control growth

576 condition) to be established. In the figure, Tn insertions in “gene B” are strongly negatively-selected
577 in the mouse infection model, so the read frequency of Tn insertions in that gene/condition are
578 negligible. This indicates that gene B is essential for *in vivo* infection.

579 **Figure 4. Overview of the glyoxylate shunt pathway in *P. aeruginosa*.** In the glyoxylate shunt (pale
580 orange arrows and metabolites) carbon skeletons are redirected away from the CO₂ producing steps
581 of the TCA cycle and retained for gluconeogenesis. The glyoxylate shunt requires two enzymes:
582 *isocitrate lyase* (ICL) and *malate synthase* (GlcB), and the net effect of their activity is to convert two
583 molecules of acetyl-CoA into one molecule of malate (a gluconeogenic precursor). In the chronic and
584 acute wound models, the acetyl-CoA is generated as a consequence of FaoAB-mediated fatty acid
585 oxidation. Unlike *E. coli*, in *P. aeruginosa* there are two *isocitrate dehydrogenase* enzymes (ICD and
586 IDH), only one of which (ICD) is likely to be inhibitable by AceK-mediated phosphorylation [53].

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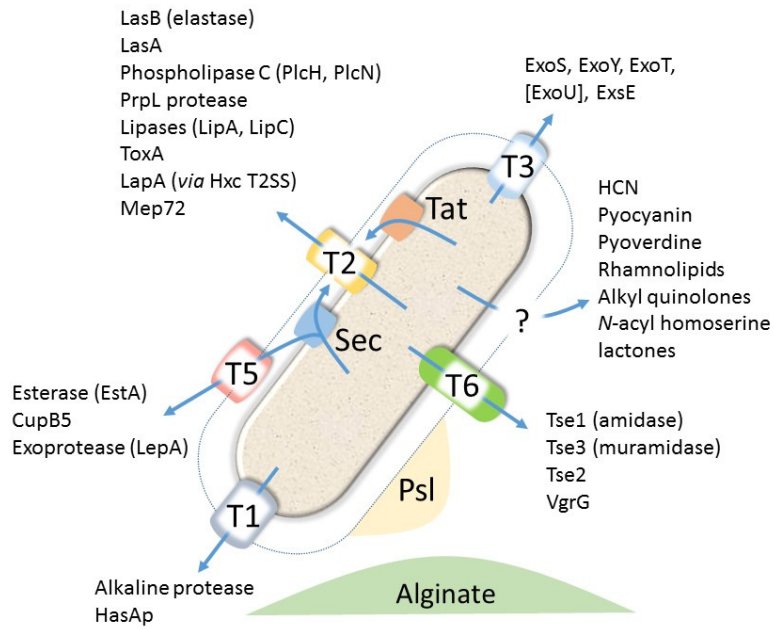
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Figure 1



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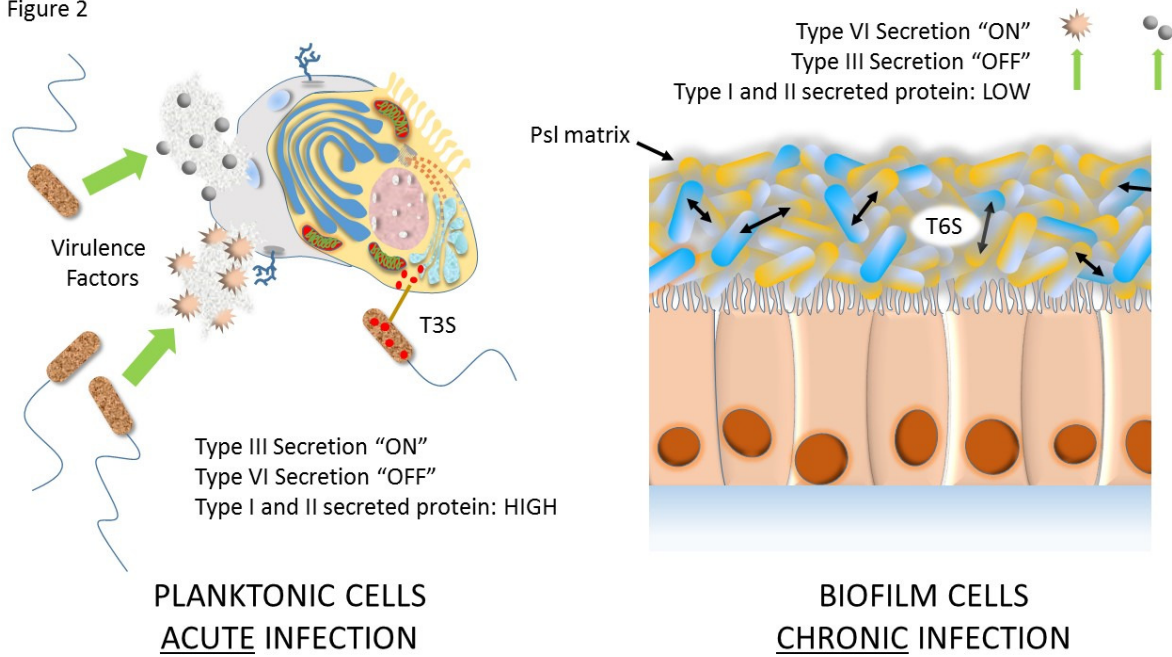
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Figure 2



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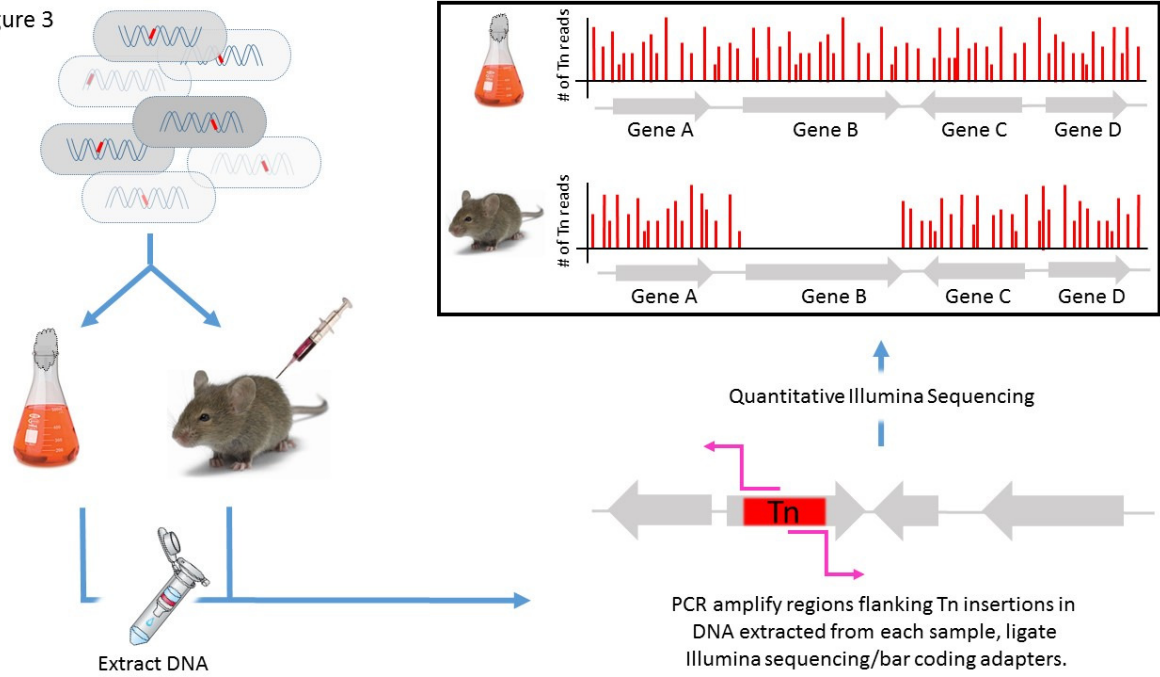
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Figure 3



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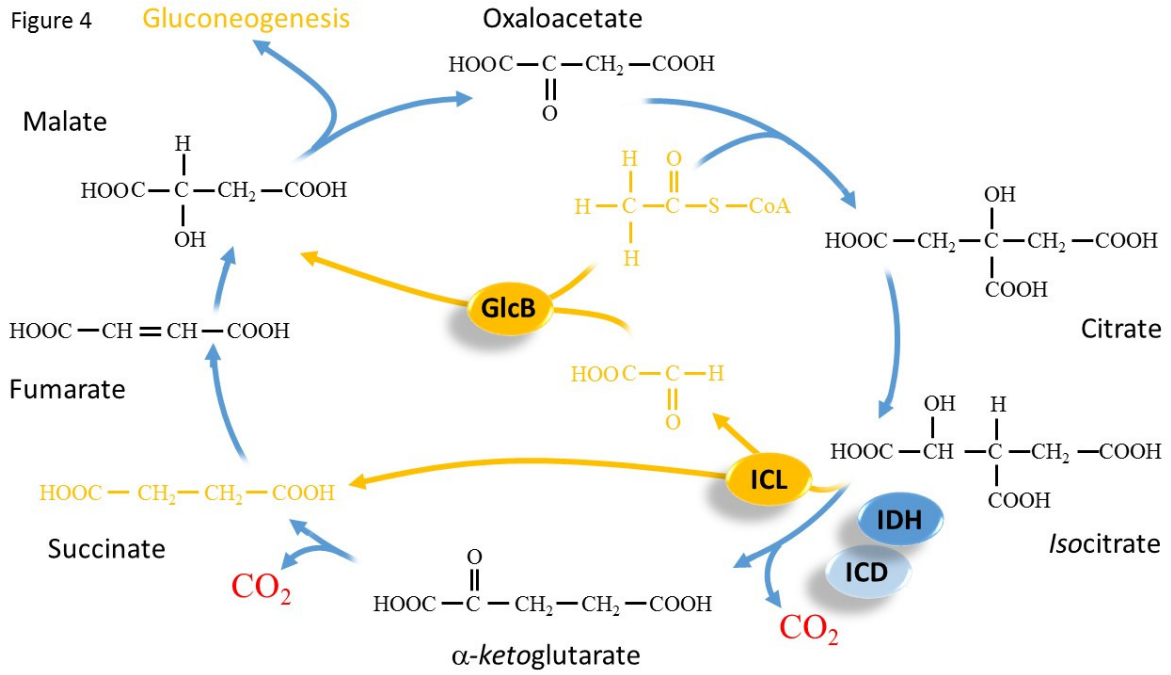
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638 Figure 4