Full title: H<sub>2</sub>S mediates interbacterial communication through the air reverting intrinsic antibiotic resistance Short title: H<sub>2</sub>S producing bacteria can interfere with other species resistance to antibiotics Thomas-Lopez, Daniel <sup>1</sup>; Carrilero, Laura <sup>1</sup>; Matrat, Stephanie <sup>1</sup>; Montero, Natalia <sup>1</sup>; Claverol, Stéphane <sup>2</sup>; Filipovic, Milos R <sup>3</sup>; Gonzalez-Zorn, Bruno <sup>1\*</sup> <sup>1</sup> Departamento de Sanidad Animal (Facultad de Veterinaria) and Centro de Vigilancia Sanitaria Veterinaria (VISAVET), Universidad Complutense de Madrid, Spain <sup>2</sup> Plateforme Protéome, Centre Génomique Fonctionnelle de Bordeaux, Université de Bordeaux, Bordeaux, France <sup>3</sup> University of Bordeaux and CNRS; IBGC, UMR 5095, Bordeaux, France \*Corresponding author: Universidad Complutense de Madrid, Tel: +34 913943707, Fax: +34 913943908. Email: bgzorn@ucm.es 

## Abstract

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Hydrogen sulfide, a gas classically considered as a by-product of cellular metabolism, is today recognized as a crucial gasotransmitter in Eukaryotes. Moreover, most bacteria harbor the eukaryotic orthologous genes for H<sub>2</sub>S synthesis, and these genes have been linked to different metabolic pathways. Some bacteria, however, produce high amounts of H<sub>2</sub>S in their extracellular space, a characteristic classically used for identification purposes. This is the case of Salmonella Typhimurium, which produces H<sub>2</sub>S by its phsABC operon. Here we show that extracellular release of H<sub>2</sub>S by S. Typhimurium is solely dependent on its phsABC operon. Furthermore, we show that S. Typhimurium and other H<sub>2</sub>S-producing bacteria can interact with physically distant bacteria through H<sub>2</sub>S production. We demonstrate how H<sub>2</sub>S can revert intrinsic cephalosporin resistance of Enterococcus faecalis and Enterococcus faecium to complete susceptibility. This study constitutes a significant step in the study of bacterial interplay and niche competition. Furthermore, as H<sub>2</sub>S releasing drugs have already been designed, our results open the way to future therapeutic alternatives for the treatment of infections caused by enterococci, multiresistant pathogens for which no treatments are clinically available.

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**Author Summary** It has been known for decades that bacteria can communicate with each other through the diffusion of metabolites in the media. However, the capacity of a bacterium to interact with other physically distant cell is a recent discovery of the 21st century. In this work we show how some well-studied bacteria, as it is Salmonella spp., interacts with other bacteria thanks to the compound hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) that they produce and release to the environment. In our study we have designed novel techniques that allow us to study the interaction between two bacteria, and we have seen that Salmonella is able to affect other species that is even 1 cm away, i.e., a distance corresponding to 10.0000 times its own size. What is more astonishing is that Enterococcus, when exposed to the H<sub>2</sub>S, is dramatically becomes susceptible to many antibiotics, to which it is supposed to be naturally resistant. *Enterococcus* spp. are responsible for life-threatening infections in hospitals worldwide. Thus, our observations reveal that bacteria can communicate through the air with H2S, and that this molecule can make bacteria that are highly resistant to antibiotics susceptible to antibiotics, making untreatable infections treatable with current antibiotics.

# Introduction

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It is well established that bacteria can communicate with each other through the diffusion of molecules in the media, what we know as quorum sensing [1]. On the other hand, in the 21st century it has been discovered that physically distant bacteria can also interact with each other or with distant organisms by releasing gaseous molecules [2], many of which were previously considered mere byproducts of bacterial metabolism. Ammonia [3], indole [4], trimethylamine [4] or acetic acid [5] are some these volatile compounds responsible for changes in motility, biofilm formation or antibiotic resistance. In addition, there are a few gases, called gasotransmitters, that are particularly interesting as they also play important roles in eukaryotic cells [6]. Gasotransmitters include mainly nitric oxide (NO), hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) and carbon monoxide (CO), and they have been connected to physiological and pathological conditions in cancer [7], the cardiovascular system [8,9], potassium channels [10], cellular ageing [11], animal hibernation [12] and grapes' senescence [13], among others. In microbiology, NO and H<sub>2</sub>S have received special attention as they enhance global antimicrobial resistance [14,15]. Bacteria have been shown to possess the orthologous genes to those found in eukaryotic cells for the production of these gases. In the case of hydrogen sulfide, Shatalin et al. revealed that this gas confers intracellularly general protection against the bactericidal action of antibiotics through the eukaryotic orthologous pathways cystathionine-β-synthase (CBS), cystathionine-γlyase (CSE) or 3-mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferase (3MST), present in many bacterial families of clinical interest [15]. However, H<sub>2</sub>S production in large amounts by specific pathways found in certain bacteria, e. g. from the Salmonella, Citrobacter, Edwardsiella and Proteus genera, has been well known for more than 50 years [16]. Of the different H<sub>2</sub>S synthesis mechanisms in bacteria, the most accurately characterized is the phsABC operon of Salmonella Typhimurium, which generates H<sub>2</sub>S and sulfite through thiosulfate reduction. The purpose of this H<sub>2</sub>S synthesis by S. Typhimurium is not well understood. It is well established that in the host's gut, thiosulfate can be oxidized to tetrathionate, which can be used by S. Typhimurium for respiratory purposes (reducing it again to thiosulfate) thanks to the ttr genes located in the pathogenicity island 2 (SPI-2) [17]. However, the benefits of a further reduction of thiosulfate to H<sub>2</sub>S (instead of using it for further tetrathionate production) are very scarce [18]. Besides, if the function of this gas in bacteria is to enhance antibiotic resistance [15,19,20], it is intriguing that some species, like the gram positive *Enterococcus*, inhibit H<sub>2</sub>S production by others [21]. However, this suggests that H<sub>2</sub>S might be interacting with neighboring microorganisms, as it is the case with other molecules already mentioned. Here we characterize the implication of the phsABC operon in  $H_2S$  synthesis by S. Typhimurium. As H<sub>2</sub>S produced by the PHS pathway is released extracellularly, we studied if S. Typhimurium could communicate with other bacteria thanks to its H<sub>2</sub>S production. We observed that it is not only the interaction that takes place but that S. Typhimurium can also revert other bacteria intrinsic antibiotic resistance, suggesting niche competition situations can be more complex than expected. Finally, we also demonstrate that H<sub>2</sub>S abolishes antibiotic resistance. As H<sub>2</sub>S releasing donors have already been developed, the combined application of antibiotics with H<sub>2</sub>S requires future in depth studying.

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H<sub>2</sub>S excretion relies entirely on *phsABC* action Most bacteria possess H<sub>2</sub>S producing genes, namely CBS/CSE and 3MST [15], together with cysteine desulfhydrases [22]. Nevertheless, a few bacterial species carry, in addition to the previously mentioned genes, an accessory and specific H<sub>2</sub>S producing pathway. For example, Salmonella Typhimurium harbors the phsABC operon. To understand the role of this pathway, we deleted this operon (Fig 1A) and we measured the  $H_2S$  production of the deletion mutant  $\Delta phs$ , both in aerobic and anaerobic conditions. Kligler media, which in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S forms a dark precipitate, turned completely black when S. Typhimurium wild-type strain was inoculated, whereas  $\Delta phs$  did not produce any black pigmentation of the media at all (Fig 1B). Lead (II) acetate paper strips, which detect H<sub>2</sub>S through the formation of black lead sulfide, allowed us to detect H<sub>2</sub>S released not only to the media, but also outside of the media, as the strips were located above the culture medium. Again, we observed that the strips turned completely black with the WT culture, while incubation of  $\Delta phs$  strain barely caused any staining (Fig 1C). In both cases, complementation of the strain with the pSB74 plasmid, which will be called pH<sub>2</sub>S as it bears the entire *phsABC* operon [23], restored H<sub>2</sub>S production at WT levels in the new strain S. Typhimurium  $\Delta phs^{c}$  (Fig 1).

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The PHS pathway is neither involved in growth nor antibiotic resistance in S. **Typhimurium** H<sub>2</sub>S has been linked to antibiotic resistance, via the H<sub>2</sub>S synthesis pathways found in most bacteria [15,20]. However, this has not been demonstrated for the S. Typhimurium specific PHS pathway, even though this is considered the main source of H<sub>2</sub>S in this species [23,24]. Therefore, we carried out various antimicrobial susceptibility tests (S1 Fig, Error! Reference source not found.S1 and S2 Tables), but no differences were observed in any case. Growth curves showed no difference either in growth rate between WT and *∆phs* strain (S1 Fig). Remote action of S. Typhimurium on the intrinsic antibiotic resistance of Enterococcus H<sub>2</sub>S produced by means of the PHS pathway by S. Typhimurium is largely released from the cell and does not appear to be implicated its own growth or antibiotic resistance. Thus, we hypothesized that H<sub>2</sub>S may have an external role on the antibiotic resistance pattern of neighboring bacteria when S. Typhimurium interacted with them. We designed a model to effectively assess signaling between physically distant bacteria (Fig 2). This method consists in preparing antibiograms of the species to be tested and confronting them against another Petri dish in which the H<sub>2</sub>S producing strain has been plated with a cotton swab. Subsequently, plates were incubated for a maximum of 24 hours.

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S. Typhimurium did not significantly alter bacterial growth, hemolysis capacity, colonies' size and morphology or the antibiotic sensitivity profile of the species analyzed, which includes methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus, Bacillus cereus, Escherichia coli, Proteus vulgaris and the S. Typhimurium Δphs mutant itself (data not shown). However, when faced with S. Typhimurium, E. faecalis, a major nosocomial pathogen worldwide, became completely susceptible against cephalosporins, drugs to which *Enterococcus* is intrinsically resistant (Fig 3). The phsABC operon of Salmonella is responsible for the reversion of Enterococcus intrinsic antibiotic resistance To distinguish if enterococci lose their cephalosporin resistance due to H<sub>2</sub>S released by S. Typhimurium or by an unrelated mechanism, we confronted E. faecalis with the deletion mutant  $\Delta phs$ , which we have shown not to release any  $H_2S$ . By performing E-test, we observed that E. faecalis Minimal Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) for cefotaxime was dramatically decreased, from higher than 256 mg/L to 3 mg/L, when faced specifically with S. Typhimurium WT, i. e., the H<sub>2</sub>S producing strain. On the other hand, the MIC was not affected when faced with S. Typhimurium  $\Delta phs$ strain (Fig 4). △phs mutant recovered its lethal action against E. faecalis when was complemented in trans (Table 1), which means that it is specifically via the H<sub>2</sub>S produced by the phsABC operon that S. Typhimurium induces Enterococcus killing. S. Typhimurium (pTrc99a), *i.e.*, the strain carrying the empty vector pTrc99a, was used as a negative control to ensure that this plasmid had no influence on the effect. As we established that phsABC is a predominant mechanism for extracellular  $H_2S$  release from this species, we conclude that this operon is crucial for the remote induced killing of neighbor bacteria by S. Typhimurium.

Table 1. Confronting experiments of E. faecalis with S. Typhimurium WT and its respective mutants.

Strains	+ T-S 2 mM ZOX CTX CEC			+ T-S 20 mM		+ Cys 2 mM		+ T-S 20 mM Anaerobiosis				
E. faecalis	6	6	16		-			-			-	
vs. S. Typhimurium WT	<u>28</u>	<u>30</u>	19	<u>25</u>	<u>33</u>	16	<u>27</u>	<u>30</u>	17	<u>22</u>	<u>26</u>	19
$vs.~S.~$ Typhimurium $\Delta phs$	6	6	14	6	6	12	<u>27</u>	<u>30</u>	17	6	6	14
vs. \(\Delta phs\) (pTrc99a)	6	6	14	6	6	13	<u>23</u>	<u>23</u>	16		ND	
vs. Δphs (pH <sub>2</sub> S)	<u>25</u>	<u>28</u>	16	<u>32</u>	<u>34</u>	16	<u>25</u>	<u>27</u>	17		ND	

ND: not determined

E. faecalis JH2-2 is plated on Tryptone-Soya Agar (TSA). S. Typhimurium strains are plated on TSA supplemented with thiosulfate 2 or 20 mM. Halos are expressed in mm. Inhibition zones displayed only in the presence of  $H_2S$  are underlined. Ceftizoxime (ZOX), Cefotaxime (CTX), Cefaclor (CEC).

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The phsABC operon is sufficient to induce cephalosporin susceptibility in E. faecalis To identify if the product of the phsABC operon was having an effect in adjuvancy with other factors from S. Typhimurium, we transformed E. coli MG1655 strain with the pH<sub>2</sub>S plasmid. We show that the phsABC operon is sufficient for the increased production of H<sub>2</sub>S by E. coli MG1655 (Fig 5), implying that no further networks or genes present in Salmonella are necessary. Lead (II) acetate paper strips were stained in a similar way in E. coli (pH<sub>2</sub>S) and S. Typhimurium. When E. coli (pH<sub>2</sub>S) was incubated in Kligler media, we observed a lesser amount of staining than in S. Typhimurium. This can be explained by the fact that S. Typhimurium also harbors the anaerobic sulfite reductase (asr) that generates further H<sub>2</sub>S from the reduction of the sulfite previously generated by PHS. Furthermore, when we confronted different E. coli strains with E. faecalis, we observed that only E. coli (pH<sub>2</sub>S) could induce the susceptibility of E. faecalis to cephalosporins (Fig 3), showing that the *phsABC* function is sufficient for the resistance reversion phenomenon carried out by H<sub>2</sub>S and that no secondary metabolites produced by S. Typhimurium are necessary. We also tested if our observations could be dependent on the presence of oxygen. However, the confrontations experiments performed in aerobiosis and anaerobiosis showed similar results (Table 1), discarding therefore that our results are connected to an augmentation of the reactive oxidative species.

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released into the chamber (Fig 6).

H<sub>2</sub>S is responsible for the reversion of the intrinsic resistance to cephalosporins in E. faecalis The deletion of the phsABC operon of S. Typhimurium could have further consequences on the bacteria (e. g., affecting other metabolic pathways) that could ultimately be responsible for the distant effect observed on Enterococcus rather than the H<sub>2</sub>S itself. To rule out this hypothesis, we tested other sources of H<sub>2</sub>S. First, we carried out confrontation experiments in the presence of cysteine, the substrate of the 3MST pathway [15], present in many bacteria including S. Typhimurium. Even if we have proved that under basal conditions PHS is the predominant mechanism for extracellular production of H<sub>2</sub>S, we hypothesized that addition of external cysteine should increase the production of H<sub>2</sub>S by this pathway, as high levels of cysteine are toxic for the cell [22]. Upon adding cysteine, we observed that H<sub>2</sub>S is again detected extracellularly in the  $\Delta phs$  mutant (Fig 1) and that this mutant is able to revert *Enterococcus* cephalosporin resistance in a similar extent as the wild-type S. Typhimurium (Table 1). We confronted E. faecalis with Proteus vulgaris, another species commonly known for its extracellular production of H<sub>2</sub>S [22] and P. vulgaris proved to be equally efficient in inducing cephalosporin susceptibility in *E. faecalis* (Fig 3). Finally, we checked if pure H<sub>2</sub>S from a chemical origin also acts synergistically with cephalosporins. NaHS is a widely used H<sub>2</sub>S source [15,25]. We designed a technique in which we placed NaHS physically separated from the enterococci. We put our antibiograms in a glass chamber, next to an empty Petri dish in which we placed 0.1 grams of NaHS and 2 mL of ultrapure water. Once we sealed the chamber, we gently shook it to put the crystal into contact with the water so that the gaseous H<sub>2</sub>S could be

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With this experiment, we proved that the resistance of E. faecalis to cephalosporins could be reversed by pure H<sub>2</sub>S. In addition, we also showed that other *E. faecalis* strains are affected in the same way. Most notably, V583, the first vancomycin resistant clinical isolate, displayed the same phenotype (Fig 7). E. faecium cephalosporin resistance is also reverted in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S Next, we were interested in testing the effects of H<sub>2</sub>S on the other pathogenic enterococcus, E. faecium, as in the last decade this species has acquired even higher clinical relevance than E. faecalis, partially because most of the enterococcal vancomycin resistant clones currently detected are E. faecium [26]. We have verified that this species is also susceptible to the synergic effect of H<sub>2</sub>S with cephalosporins (Fig 8), further suggesting the potential application of this combination in clinical settings. Reversion of the intrinsic resistance of enterococci in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S takes place specifically with methoxy-imino cephalosporins As we can notice in Figs 3, 7 and 8, and Table 1, synergy between H<sub>2</sub>S and cephalosporins does not take place with every compound of this family of antibiotics. By performing antibiograms of a set of 20 cephalosporins, including 1<sup>st</sup> to 4<sup>th</sup> generation cephalosporins, we have observed that in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S E. faecalis demonstrates a significant susceptibility against cefotaxime, ceftriaxone, cefuroxime, cefpodoxime and ceftizoxime (Table 2). These drugs, frequently used in clinical settings, contain a common methoxy-imino group in their structure (Fig 9), which is not present in other cephalosporins within the family, suggesting that this motif might be a key in the synergy displayed between H<sub>2</sub>S and cephalosporins.

Table 2. Antibiograms of *E. faecalis* V583 strain, in the presence and absence of NaHS 0.1 grams.

274		TSA	H <sub>2</sub> S 0.1 g
	Cefaclor 30	10	13
275	Cefadroxil 30	13	13
	Cephalexin 30	8	8
276	Cefalotin 30	16	16
270	Cefamandole 30	14	15
	Cefazolin 30	14	16
277	Cefepime 30	13	15
	Cefotaxime 30	6	21
270	Cefotetan 30	6	6
278	Cefoxitin 30	6	6
	Cefpirome 30	22	25
279	Cefpodoxime 10	6	20
	Cefprozil 30	21	23
	Cefradine 30	12	13
280	Cefsulodin 30	6	6
	Ceftizoxime 30	6	16
281	Ceftriaxone 30	6	16
	Cefuroxime 30	6	20

 $Methoxy-imino\ cephalosporins\ are\ underlined.$ 

#### H<sub>2</sub>S and cephalosporins kill enterococci

Finally, to further characterize the H<sub>2</sub>S-cephalosporins synergy, *E. faecalis* JH2-2 was grown in liquid media in the presence and absence of H<sub>2</sub>S and/or cefotaxime (CTX). By performing a Two-way ANOVA ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ; P < 0.001; F = 68,46; df = 17, 28) and a post-hoc Tukey–Kramer analysis, used for single-step multiple comparison of all pair of means, we observed that there is a strong synergistic effect between H<sub>2</sub>S and CTX (P < 0.001).

0.001), not only by inhibiting bacterial growth in the presence of both compounds, but also by producing a bactericidal effect (Fig 10, S4 Table). With this analysis we confirmed that, in the concentration range used in our study, H<sub>2</sub>S does not affect bacterial growth on its own. Even if enterococci were resistant to cephalosporins, a minor effect of cefotaxime on bacterial growth was noticeable, but this is something that could be observed with many antibiotic discs in antibiograms or other antibiotic susceptibility tests.

Preliminary experiments with cefaclor, a non-methoxy-imino cephalosporin, or with nalidixic acid, a quinolone against which *E. faecalis* is resistant, showed no synergy with H<sub>2</sub>S (data not shown), indicating that the displayed phenotype is specific of certain antibiotics.

### The persulfidome analysis of E. faecalis reveals potential targets for H<sub>2</sub>S

We carried out random transposition mutagenesis of *Enterococcus* under cephalosporin selective pressure, constructing a high-density transposon mutant library. However, no mutants were obtained using this approach. This suggests that a single gene alteration is not enough to prevent resistance reversion, or that this alteration has to take place in an essential gene. Therefore we wanted to address posttranslational changes of the protein that are induced by H<sub>2</sub>S.

Signaling by H<sub>2</sub>S is now widely linked to an oxidative posttranslational modification of

cysteine residues (RSH) called persulfidation (RSSH) (alternatively S-sulfhydration) [27–29]. Exposure of cells to H<sub>2</sub>S results in an increase of protein persulfidation [27,30]. We performed biotin-tagging assay (BTA) to extract total persulfidated

proteins [31,32]. As shown in Fig 11, an increase of protein persulfidation could be observed in bacteria treated with H<sub>2</sub>S. The proteins were subjected to electrophoretic separation, followed by trypsin digestion and LC/MS/MS analysis. 66 cysteine-containing proteins were identified as persulfidated (Table 3, S7 Table). Among them, peptide ABC transporters, as well as proteins of unknown function are potential targets of H<sub>2</sub>S. Despite not being quantitative, to best of our knowledge, this is the first report of a persulfidome in bacteria. Further studies will be needed to determine the protein, or combination of proteins, that are responsible for the susceptibilization of enterococci to cephalosporins when exposed to  $H_2S$ .

**Table 3. Persulfidome of** *E. faecalis***.** List of proteins of *E. faecalis* JH2-2 detected to interact with H<sub>2</sub>S.

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Accession	Gene	Description
Q833I9	EF1963	Phosphoglycerate kinase
Q839G8	EF0201	Elongation factor Tu
Q834N1	EF1613	Formate acetyltransferase
Q836Q8	EF1050	DNA-binding response regulator
Q833I8	EF1964	Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase
H7C7A0	EF2739	Alkyl hydroperoxide reductase, C subunit
Q837D6	EF0907	Peptide ABC transporter, peptide-binding protein
Q82ZF4	EF3106	Peptide ABC transporter, peptide-binding protein
P23530	EF0710	Phosphoenolpyruvate-protein phosphotransferase
Q839G9	EF0200	Elongation factor G
Q833J0	EF1962	Triosephosphate isomerase
Q831U9	EF2398	30S ribosomal protein S2
Q836C4	EF1191	DegV family protein
Q839C1	EF0255	L-lactate dehydrogenase 1
Q836R2	EF1046	Pyruvate kinase
Q836Z4	EF0949	Phosphotransacetylase
Q837P9	EF0784	S-adenosylmethionine synthase
Q830Z3	EF2621	Uncharacterized protein
Q834N3	EF1611	Probable manganese-dependent inorganic pyrophosphatase
Q834M9	EF1616	CoA-binding domain protein
Q839E0	EF0232	30S ribosomal protein S11
Q838R7	EF0368	Aspartokinase
Q836Q9	EF0149	6-phosphogluconate dehydrogenase, decarboxylating
Q839G1	EF0209	50S ribosomal protein L2
Q836D3	EF1182	S-ribosylhomocysteine lyase
Q831S5	EF2425	Phosphoglucomutase/phosphomannomutase family protein
Q834S3	EF1560	Uncharacterized protein
Q839H1	EF0198	30S ribosomal protein S12
Q837F1	EF0891	Aminotransferase
Q830Z2	EF2622	Uncharacterized protein
Q82ZJ2	EF3064	Polyribonucleotide nucleotidyltransferase
Q82Z22	EF3257	Oxidoreductase, pyridine nucleotide-disulfide family
Q838N8	EF0401	Pyrrolidone-carboxylate peptidase
Q835M1	EF1356	Dihydrolipoyl dehydrogenase
Q834H1	EF1681	Peptide methionine sulfoxide reductase MsrA
Q831A3	EF2610	ATP synthase subunit alpha
Q839I7	EF0178	ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein
Q835V2	EF1270	Ribosome maturation factor RimP
Q830B1	EF2882	Malonyl CoA-acyl carrier protein transacylase
Q834A7	EF1763	Protein translocase subunit SecA
Q830Y0	EF2638	Redox-sensing transcriptional repressor Rex 1
Q839I2	EF0185	Phosphopentomutase
P37710	EF0799	Autolysin

Q82Z74	EF3198	Lipoprotein, YaeC family	337				
Q835J8	EF1379	AlaninetRNA ligase					
Q831F9	EF2550	Serine hydroxymethyltransferase					
Q820V4	EF0283	3-oxoacyl-facyl-carrier-protein synthase 2					
Q838J4	EF0453	OsmC/Ohr family protein	339				
Q836Y7	EF0957	Glycosyl hydrolase, family 65	340				
Q837E3	EF0900	Aldehyde-alcohol dehydrogenase					
Q831K3	EF2501	Arsenate reductase, putative					
Q837Y9	EF0685	Foldase protein PrsA					
Q839D9	EF0233	DNA-directed RNA polymerase subunit alpha					
Q834G9	EF1684	DegV family protein, putative					
P37061	EF1586	NADH oxidase					
Q835J3	EF1384	Phosphatidylglycerol lysyltransferase					
Q836R3	EF1045	ATP-dependent 6-phosphofructokinase					
Q839E8	EF0223	50S ribosomal protein L18					
Q831Y0	EF2365	Xanthine phosphoribosyltransferase					
Q831G0	EF2549	Uracil phosphoribosyltransferase					
Q830B2	EF2879	Acetyl-CoA carboxylase, biotin carboxyl carrier protein					
Q82Z92	EF3178	Peptidase, M20/M25/M40 family					
Q833K9	EF1938	Cation-transporting ATPase, E1-E2 family					
Q836J5	EF1116	PhenylalaninetRNA ligase beta subunit					
Q836H2	EF1140	Lactoylglutathione lyase					
Q837W9	EF0706	ATP-dependent Clp protease, ATP-binding subunit ClpE					

# **Discussion**

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In this work we present significant progress in the study of H<sub>2</sub>S as a gasotransmitter and its link to antibiotic resistance. S. Typhimurium is one of the classic H<sub>2</sub>S producing bacterial species, via its phsABC operon [18]. It is known that its capacity to reduce sulfur compounds provides Salmonella with a growth advantage when colonizing the digestive tract [17,33]. However, the physiology and involvement of the phsABC operon in antibiotic resistance, which has both a significant scientific and clinical interest, is not described. The aim of this study was to understand the role and co-regulation of the H<sub>2</sub>S-producing pathways in S. Typhimurium, its possible role in microbial ecology and its effects on other bacteria. By knocking-out the phsABC operon, we have found that the PHS pathway is the predominant mechanism for H<sub>2</sub>S production in this species. Other pathways may or may not be active, but the lack of the PHS pathway is not compensated by other mechanisms. We have demonstrated that the phsABC operon is not involved in own antibiotic resistance, even though it is the main source of H<sub>2</sub>S in S. Typhimurium. This suggests that the modifications in antibiotic resistance previously described in this species [20,34] are not due to the H<sub>2</sub>S itself. In fact, these authors state that the accumulation of H<sub>2</sub>S in their experiments is due to either a decrease in cysteine synthesis or an increase in its catabolism. Cysteine is a well-known inducer of the Fenton reaction and the H<sub>2</sub>Smediated augmentation of antibiotic resistance is associated with oxidative stress protection [15]. This means that H<sub>2</sub>S itself may be irrelevant for antibiotic resistance in S. Typhimurium, which explains the absence of differences between WT and  $\Delta phs$ strains regarding every aspect we have tested (except for the production of H<sub>2</sub>S itself).

As we could not detect any intracellular role for H<sub>2</sub>S in S. Typhimurium, but we had verified that the phsABC operon was used to generate large amounts of H<sub>2</sub>S, we hypothesized that this H<sub>2</sub>S may have an extracellular effect, that is, on neighboring bacteria. Moreover, it is known that thiosulfate is abundant in the digestive tract [17], suggesting that the *phsABC* operon should be active. When E. faecalis was tested, instead of observing an enhancement of antibiotic resistance by H<sub>2</sub>S, as previously described [15,20], we observed that this gas is capable of disrupting the intrinsic antibiotic resistance of Enterococcus. The MIC of cefotaxime in E. faecalis was dramatically decreased and resistance to other cephalosporins was similarly reverted, both in E. faecalis and E. faecium multiresistant enterococci, responsible for endocarditis and septicemia in hospitals worldwide, are ranked by the WHO among the pathogens for which effective therapies are critically needed [35]. In addition, the use of certain antibiotics is a predisposing factor for suffering an overgrowth and subsequent infections by *Enterococcus* [36,37]. Therefore, as pharmacological donors of H<sub>2</sub>S have already been developed [38–41], our work gives new hope for the treatment of enterococcal infections. H<sub>2</sub>S donor drugs could be administered together with cephalosporins to effectively kill multidrug resistant enterococci in patients. In addition, unraveling the mechanism of action of H<sub>2</sub>S inside Enterococcus could lead to the design of molecules that emulate H<sub>2</sub>S function. In any case, considering that the supply of new antibiotics to the global market is virtually non-existent these days, the possibility of employing classical antibiotics that, until now, were unavoidably discarded beforehand to treat multiresistant infections, turns out encouraging in the fight against antibiotic resistance.

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In our experiments, we observed that H<sub>2</sub>S exhibits bactericidal synergy with a select group of cephalosporins containing a methoxy-imino group in its structure. This residue improves the drug's stability to  $\beta$ -lactamases and improves the ability of the drug to cross the external membrane of gram-negative bacteria [42]. Clearly, these properties do not account for its efficacy in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S, as β-lactamase production by Enterococcus is anecdotic [43]. But, interestingly, many of the studies regarding cephalosporin resistance in enterococci were obtained with this specific group of methoxy-imino cephalosporins [44–49]. Thus, H<sub>2</sub>S might be affecting some of the pathways already described for *Enterococcus* cephalosporin resistance. These pathways include a penicillin-binding protein that presents low affinity to these drugs [50], the MurAA enzyme involved in peptidoglycan synthesis [47], mutations of the β-subunit of the RNA polymerase [49], CroR/CroS and IreK/IreP two-component systems [45,48], or alterations in the thymidylate synthesis pathway [44], among others. Still, most of these studies do not unravel the final mechanisms governing cephalosporin resistance and they suggest a common currently undescribed mechanism [47,48,51]. Besides, in our experiments we have also observed an induction of aminoglycosides susceptibility by H<sub>2</sub>S (S3 Table), which it has not been observed by other authors. Therefore, H<sub>2</sub>S could be acting through a different pathway or upstream of a common mechanism, a theory that would be also supported by the fact that no known protein involved in cephalosporin resistance has been detected in the persulfidome (Table 3). In any case, aminoglycosides constitute another group of last resort antibiotics widely used in clinical settings and for which enterococci present a modest level of intrinsic resistance [52]. It would be interesting to study in depth this additional synergy between H<sub>2</sub>S and aminoglycosides, although it has not been object of

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study in this work, since the reversion of cephalosporin resistance in enterococci is more relevant from a clinical and microbiological perspective. From an ecological perspective, it is noteworthy that, in raw meat, enterococci have been shown to successfully inhibit H<sub>2</sub>S production by sulfide-producing bacteria, presumably through enterocins or other biologically active compounds present in the supernatant [21], although no further studies have addressed this phenomenon. We have observed that, when exposed to H<sub>2</sub>S, Enterococcus does not acquire additional protection against antibiotics, but, in contrast, it is killed by a powerful group of antimicrobial agents, to which this species demonstrates a robust resistance. Therefore, this alteration of antibiotic resistance can explain why enterococci gain a selective advantage by blocking the H<sub>2</sub>S production of its neighbors. Enterococci constitute a small proportion of the physiological microbiota of both humans and animals [53]. Thus, both Salmonella and Enterococcus are pathogens which pursue the same niche colonization as part of their pathogenesis [17,37], which explains why both species would benefit if the other one is ousted. In addition, we have demonstrated how other H<sub>2</sub>S producing species, including *Proteus vulgaris* (which also share the same ecological niche), can also be involved in this interplay between bacteria. Thus, this study highlights a new role for bacterial H<sub>2</sub>S production. We show how Salmonella and Proteus, through their H<sub>2</sub>S production, can obtain an unexpected advantage for niche competition (Fig 12). Aerial interaction among bacteria has been previously revealed, but, to the best of our knowledge, this is the first report about H<sub>2</sub>S aerial communication, showing how a bacterium can exert an effect with lethal consequences on another bacterium through H<sub>2</sub>S, a gasotransmitter with vital functions and abundant in the human body and to date considered a beneficial gas for bacteria.

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Authorship

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- 458 Conceptualization: DTL, LC, BGZ. Investigation: DTL, NM, SM. Methodology: DTL,
- SM, SC, BGZ, MF. Project administration: BGZ. Supervision: BGZ, MF. Writing and
- 460 review: DTL, BGZ, LC, MF.

# **Competing interests**

- The corresponding author declares, on behalf of all authors, that there are no financial,
- personal or professional interests that could be construed to have influenced the work.

# **Materials and Methods**

# Strains, media and reagents

All experiments were performed in Tryptone-Soy Agar or Broth (TSA or TSB, respectively) purchased from Oxoid (Oxoid Ltd., UK), unless otherwise stated. Antibiotic disks were acquired from bioMérieux (bioMérieux SA, Marcy l'Etoile, France) and Oxoid. Antibiotic powder, sodium thiosulfate and other reagents were purchased from Sigma (Sigma-Aldrich Química SA, Spain). NaHS was acquired from Cayman (Cayman Chemical, USA).

The strains used in these experiments are listed in Table 4.

Table 4. Bacteria used in this study.

Strain	Abbreviated name	Description	Reference	
Enterococcus				
E. faecalis VE14089	V583 WT	V583 strain cured from its plasmids	Rigottier-Gois <i>et al.</i> 2011	
E. faecalis JH2-2	JH2-2 WT	Laboratory strain	Jacob & Hobbs 1974	
E. faecium ATCC19434	E. faecium	Type strain	ATCC	
Salmonella Typhimurium				
S. enterica enterica serovar Typhimurium ATCC14028 wild type	S. Typhimurium WT	Type strain	ATCC	
S. Typhimurium ∆phsABC kan <sup>R</sup>	kan <sup>R</sup>	phsABC operon substituted with the kanamycin resistance cassette	This work	
S. Typhimurium $\Delta phsABC$	$\Delta phs$	phsABC operon deletion mutant	This work	
S. Typhimurium \( \Delta phsABC \) (pTrc99a)	△phs (pTrc99a)	Δphs mutant transformed with pTrc99a	This work	
S. Typhimurium AphsABC (pH <sub>s</sub> S)	$\Delta phs^{c}$	$\Delta phs$ mutant transformed with pSB74	This work	
Escherichia coli				
E. coli MG1655	E. coli WT	Laboratory strain	ATCC	
E. coli MG1655 (pH <sub>s</sub> S)	E. coli (pH <sub>2</sub> S)	MG1655 strain transformed with pSB74	This work	

Other strains			
Bacillus cereus CECT193	B. cereus	Type strain	CECT
Citrobacter freundii	C. freundii	Strain I9	Our laboratory
Enterobacter cloacae	E. cloacae	Strain RyC: L15	Our laboratory
Klebsiella pneumoniae ATCC10031	K. pneumoniae	Type strain	ATCC
Listeria ivanovii ATCC19119	L. ivanovii	Type strain	ATCC
Proteus vulgaris CECT174	P. vulgaris	Type strain	CECT
Pseudomonas aeruginosa	P. aeruginosa	Strain A26	Our laboratory
Staphylococcus aureus COL	MRSA	Methicillin resistant S. aureus	Archer et al. 1994

ATCC: American Type Culture Collection; CECT: Spanish Type Culture Collection.

#### Primers used and DNA manipulation

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- Reactives used for PCR were purchased from Biotools (Biotools, Madrid, Spain). TAQ
- polymerase (Biotools) or Phusion polymerase (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc, USA) was
- used. PCR products were purified with the PCR purification kit (Qiagen, In.c,
- 485 Chatsworth, CA). DNA was sequenced by Sanger (Secugen SL., Madrid, Spain).
- 486 Plasmids were extracted with the QIAprep Miniprep and Midiprep kits.
- 487 Primers used are listed in S5 Table. All primers were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich.

## Plasmids used in this study

- 490 Plasmid pTrc99a was kindly donated by Professor Javier Turnay from the Biochemistry
- Department of the Complutense University of Madrid. pSB74 [23] was acquired from
- 492 Addgene (plasmid #19591). Plasmid pKD13 (GenBank Accession number AY048744)
- 493 was used as a PCR template in order to construct the deletion mutants and it contains an
- 494 FLP recombination target (FRT)-flanked kanamycin resistance (kan) gene. Arabinose-
- 495 induced Red helper plasmid pKD46 (GenBank Accession number AY048746) was used

for the homologous recombination of the previously generated PCR products with the chromosome of *S.* Typhimurium ATCC14028. pCP20 FLP helper plasmid [54] was

Plasmids used are listed in S6 Table.

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## Construction of S. Typhimurium mutants

used for the elimination of the FRT-flanked resistance gene.

The S. Typhimurium phsABC deletion mutant was constructed as previously described [55,56]. Briefly, a PCR was performed using pKD13 DNA as the for the amplification of the FRT flanked kanamycin resistance (kan) gene subsequently used for mutant selection (3). The 5'-terminal deletion primer had a 50-nucleotide (nt) homologous extension that includes the *phsA* initiation codon, and the 20-nt 5'-ATTCCGGGGATCCGTCGACC-3' priming site from pKD13. The 3'-terminal deletion primer consisted of a 50-nt homologous extension that includes 21 nt for the phsC C-terminal region, the termination codon and 29 nt downstream, and the 20-nt 5'-TGTAGGCTGGAGCTGCTTCG-3' priming site from pKD13. The PCR product obtained, containing the FRT flanked kanamycin resistance gene in between phsA and phsC homologous regions, was transformed in S. Typhimurium ATCC14028 carrying the thermosensitive arabinose-induced plasmid pKD46. Upon addition of arabinose, kanamycin resistant colonies (that is, those who have had their phsABC operon replaced by the kanamycin cassette) were selected. pCP20 FLP helper plasmid was used for the elimination of the FRT-flanked resistance gene from the  $\Delta phsABC$  deletion mutants. Correct in-frame deletion of the operon was checked with the primers phsABC\_ext\_F and phsABC\_ext\_R.

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**Antibiograms and Minimal Inhibitory Concentration determination** Antibiograms were carried out in TSA media and interpreted following official guidelines (CLSI 2017; EUCAST 2017). Minimal Inhibitory Concentrations (MIC) of E. faecalis and E. faecium were determined by using E-test (bioMérieux) on TSA media. MICs of S. Typhimurium were determined in TSB by the broth microdilution method following official guidelines. Measurement of H<sub>2</sub>S production Kligler media was purchased from bioMérieux. Tested strains freshly grown on TSA were inoculated on Kligler media and incubated overnight (o.n.), with the cap both tight and loose (to ensure aerobiosis conditions). Lead acetate paper strips were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and used according to manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, peptone water (purchased from Oxoid) tubes were inoculated with the tested strains. Then, between the cap and the inner wall of the tube we placed a strip, attached with adhesive tape and above the inoculated medium, and the cap was slightly tight. Samples were incubated for 18-24 hours at 37 °C. **Confrontation experiments** For the confronting experiments (Fig 2), a distance of 1 cm between both bacteria was settled. To this end, 30 mL media plates were prepared, containing TSA, TSA supplemented with sodium thiosulfate (T-S) 2 or 20 mM, or TSA supplemented with cysteine (Cys) 2 mM. T-S and cysteine were prepared within the last seven days prior to the experiment. First, simulating the preparation of an antibiogram, a 0.5 McFarland turbidity suspension of the H<sub>2</sub>S producing species (or its mutant) was spread evenly over the entire surface of a TSA plate, supplemented with sodium thiosulfate T-S 2 mM, T-S 20 mM or Cys 2 mM prepared within the last seven days. Then, antibiograms of the strains to be tested were prepared in TSA, attending to official guidelines. Finally, lids were removed and both plates were fixed together with two pieces of adhesive tape, facing each other. The edges zone was "sealed" with air permeable Parafilm M (Bemis Company Inc, Oshkosh, WI). Plates were incubated at 37 °C for 24 hours maximum. Anaerobiosis conditions were achieved by using the GENBag system from bioMérieux.

#### **Growth curves**

Growth curves of *S*. Typhimurium WT and its Δ*phs* mutant were performed in Lennox broth media (Conda Laboratorios, Spain), as published [15]. Briefly, from an o.n. inoculum grown at 30 °C, a 1:100 dilution was performed in fresh media and samples were grown at 37 °C to 0.7-0.8 optical density at 600 nm (O.D.). Afterwards, a 1:100 dilution was carried out in 10 mL and samples were incubated at 37 °C and 150 rpm, measuring O.D. every hour. T-S 20 mM or different antibiotics were added when indicated.

## Experiments incubated with H<sub>2</sub>S

For experiments in the presence of  $H_2S$  (Fig 6), *E. faecalis* antibiograms were prepared in TSA plates following official guidleline and were placed in a glass chamber of 2 liters volume. Next to them, we placed the base of an empty Petri dish in which we positioned 0.1 grams of NaHS and, separated, 2 mL of ultra-pure water. Then, we

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hermetically sealed the chamber and, only afterwards, NaHS and water were put in contact by gently shaking the chamber. Antibiograms were incubated for a maximum of 24 hours at 37 °C. **Time killing experiments** 10 µL from an o.n. culture of E. faecalis in TSB were inoculated to 15 mL glass bottles containing 10 mL of TSB. When required, antibiotics at their proper concentration were added. Bottles were incubated at 37 °C and 100 rpm. Those bottles that required H<sub>2</sub>S presence were placed in a glass hermetic chamber the same way as with experiments from the previous section (Fig 6). At 12 hours proper dilutions were plated for colony forming units (CFU) counting. From that moment on, all bottles were incubated under normal conditions until 24 hours, when dilutions were plated again. Random transposition mutagenesis The library of mutants was obtained following the protocol designed by Zhang and collaborators [59]. Plasmid pZXL5 was transformed in the strain E. faecalis JH2-2. This thermosensitive plasmid contains: ColE and pWV01 origins of replication (for gram negative and gram positive, respectively), a mariner transposon (containing the aax(6')apg(2") gene for gentamicin resistance within), a nisin-inducible mariner transposase (with the system *nisK-nisR* and a chloramphenicol resistance cassette (*cat*). Bacteria containing pZXL5 were incubated o.n. at 28 °C in BHI media containing gentamicin 300 mg/L and chloramphenicol 10 mg/L. Afterwards, a 1:2000 dilution was carried out in fresh BHI media containing 300 mg/L and nisin 0.025 mg/L to induce the

random insertion of the transposon in the genome. Then, incubation of the samples at 150 rpm and 37 °C in the presence of gentamicin allows the specific selection of the bacteria possessing the gentamicin resistance gene (and, therefore, the transposon) in the chromosome.

Afterwards, a 1:2000 dilution in fresh media containing gentamicin was performed and bacteria were incubated at 37 °C and 150 rpm o.n., obtaining a library of mutants that was stored at -80 °C for future experiments.

By incubating in the presence of gentamicin, cefotaxime and H<sub>2</sub>S, we attempted to select only those mutants that resisted the combined action of H<sub>2</sub>S and cefotaxime, presumably because the transposon would have interrupted a pathway key in the susceptibilization of *Enterococci*.

## BTA method for persulfide detection

Bottles containing fresh TSB or TSB-CTX 8  $\mu$ g/mL were inoculated with an o.n. inoculum of *E. faecalis* JH2-2, in a 1:1000 proportion. Samples were incubated for 5.5 hours at 37 °C and 100 rpm. Then, each sample was split in two and, to one of each set, H<sub>2</sub>S 250  $\mu$ M (freshly prepared as previously described) was added. The four bottles were incubated for 30 minutes at 37 °C and 100 rpm. Then, samples were centrifuged for 3 minutes at 6000 rpm and supernatant was discarded. Samples were washed once with PBS, centrifuged and supernatant discarded again. Then, each sample was mixed with 1 mL of lysis buffer, containing HENP buffer (pH 7.41), SDS 1%, 10  $\mu$ L of protease inhibitor 1% and 100  $\mu$ M of biotin maleimide. To ensure complete lysis, samples were sonicated (3 cycles of 1 minute at 190 MHz and 2 minutes of pause). Then, samples were incubated for 60 minutes at 37 °C.

After incubation, 20 mM of freshly prepared N-ethylmaleimide (NEM) was added to block the unreacted cysteines and the samples were incubated o.n. at room T<sup>a</sup> with rotating shaking. During all the procedure the lysis buffer and the samples were protected from light.

Proteins were precipitated with CHCl<sub>3</sub>/MeOH/H<sub>2</sub>O precipitation (1/4/4, v/v), washed twice and resuspended in HEPES buffer pH 7.4 containing SDS up to 0.5%. Samples were adjusted to equal protein concentration. Biotinylated proteins were bound to streptavidin agarose beads, and persulfidated targets eluted by DTT 0.5 mM (Fig 11).

Eluted proteins were either resolved by SDS electrophoresis and visualized with silver staining or subjected to in-gel trypsinization and subsequent LC/MS analysis. Experiments were performed in triplicates.

### nanoLC/MS

Protein samples were run on SDS-PAGE (10 %) but protein separation was stopped once proteins have entered the resolving gel. After colloidal blue staining, each lane was was cut into 1 mm x 1 mm gel pieces. The gel pieces were destained in 25 mM ammonium bicarbonate 50% ACN, rinsed twice in ultrapure water and shrunk in ACN for 10 min. After ACN removal, gel pieces were dried at room temperature, carbamidomethylated and covered with the trypsin solution (10 ng/μL in 50 mM NH<sub>4</sub>HCO<sub>3</sub>), rehydrated at 4°C for 10 min, and finally incubated overnight at 37°C. The gel pieces were then incubated for 15 min in 50 mM NH4HCO3 at room temperature with rotary shaking. The supernatant was collected, and an H<sub>2</sub>O/ACN/HCOOH (47.5:47.5:5) extraction solution was added onto the gel pieces for 15 min. The extraction step was repeated twice. The pooled supernatants were dried in a vacuum

centrifuge and then resuspended in 40 µL of water acidified with 0.1% HCOOH. Peptide mixture was analyzed on an Ultimate 3000 nanoLC system (Dionex, Amsterdam, The Netherlands) coupled to an Electrospray Q-Exactive quadrupole Orbitrap benchtop mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, San Jose, CA). Ten microliters of peptide digests were loaded onto a 300-µm-inner diameter x 5-mm C18 PepMapTM trap column (LC Packings) at a flow rate of 30 μL/min. The peptides were eluted from the trap column onto an analytical 75-mm id x 15-cm C18 Pep-Map column (LC Packings) with a 4-40% linear gradient of solvent B in 108 min. Mobile phases were a mix of solvent A (0.1% formic acid in 5% ACN) and solvent B (0.1% formic acid in 80% ACN). The separation flow rate was set at 300 nL/min. The mass spectrometer operated in positive ion mode at a 1.9-kV needle voltage. Data were acquired using Xcalibur 2.2 software in a data-dependent mode. MS scans (m/z 300-2000) were recorded at a resolution of R = 70000 (@ m/z 200) and an automatic gain control (AGC) target of 3 x 106 ions collected within 100 ms. Dynamic exclusion was set to 30 s and the top 12 ions were selected from fragmentation in higher-energy collisional dissociation (HCD) mode. MS/MS scans with a target value of 1 x 105 ions were collected with a maximum fill time of 120 ms and a resolution of R = 35000. Additionally, only +2 and +3 charged ions were selected for fragmentation. Other settings were as follows: neither sheath nor auxiliary gas flow; heated capillary temperature, 270°C; normalized HCD collision energy of 27% and an isolation width of 2 m/z.

#### **Database search and results processing**

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Data were searched by SEQUEST through Proteome Discoverer 1.4 (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc.) against a subset of the 2017-03 version of UniProt database restricted to

Enterococcus faecalis Reference Proteome Set (3240 entries). Spectra from peptides higher than 5000 Da or lower than 350 Da were rejected. The search parameters were as follows: mass accuracy of the monoisotopic peptide precursor and peptide fragments was set to 10 ppm and 0.02 Da respectively. Only b- and y-ions were considered for mass calculation. Oxidation of methionines (+16 Da) was considered as variable modification and carbamidomethylation of cysteines (+57 Da) as fixed modification. Two missed trypsin cleavages were allowed. Peptide validation was performed using Percolator algorithm [60] and only "high confidence" peptides were retained corresponding to a 1% False Positive Rate at peptide level.

#### Statistical analysis

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- The statistical analysis for this paper was generated using SAS software Pre-production
- version 9.0 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA).

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Figure captions Fig 1. Characterization of the S. Typhimurium *phsABC* operon. (A) PCR showing substitution of the operon by the kanamycin cassette, and subsequent deletion of this cassette. (B) H<sub>2</sub>S production, measured in Kligler media in the absence (upper line) or the presence (bottom line) of thiosulfate 20 mM (C) or in peptone water broth by lead acetate strips. Fig 2. Confronting experiments. An antibiogram of the species to be tested is exposed to another plate streaked with an H<sub>2</sub>S producing species and supplemented with thiosulfate 20 mM (T-S). Fig 3. Confronting experiments of *E. faecalis*. Control antibiograms and confronting experiments of E. faecalis JH2-2 (plated on TSA media) faced with S. Typhimurium ATCC14028, E. coli (pH<sub>2</sub>S), Proteus vulgaris CECT174. H<sub>2</sub>S producing species were plated on TSA media containing T-S 20 mM. Antibiotics tested: cloramphenicol (C), vancomycin (VAN), tetracycline (TET), sulphametoxazol-trimethoprim (SXT), clindamycin (CMN), rifampin (RA), ciprofloxacin (CIP), streptomycin (S), nalidixic acid (NA), gentamicin (GMN), amoxicillin (AMX), aztreonam (ATM), cefotaxime (CTX), cefuroxime (CXM), ertapenem (ETP), cefotetan (CTT). Antibiotics showing synergy with H<sub>2</sub>S are highlighted. Fig 4. Minimal Inhibitory Concentration of *E. faecalis* confronted with *S.* Typhimurium.

MIC for cefotaxime (TX) of E. faecalis JH2-2 control strain (left), confronted with S. 698 699 Typhimurium WT (center) and with S. Typhimurium  $\Delta phs$  (right). 700 701 Fig 5. H<sub>2</sub>S production by E. coli WT and E. coli p(H<sub>2</sub>S). 702 H<sub>2</sub>S production was measured with Kligler media (left) and lead acetate strips (right). 703 704 Fig 6. Method for incubation with chemical H<sub>2</sub>S. 705 Samples were placed in a chamber, and next to it the NaHS stone (represented as a star) was 706 placed on an empty Petri dish alongside 2 mL of ultrapure water (dashed blue area); after 707 sealing the chamber, it is gently shaken to release the H<sub>2</sub>S to the atmosphere upon contact with 708 H<sub>2</sub>O (B). CTX: cefotaxime. 709 710 Fig 7. Antibiograms of E. faecalis in the presence of  $H_2S$ . E. faecalis V583 was incubated in a chamber in the presence and abscence of NaHS 0.1 grams, 711 for the antibiotics cefotaxime (CTX), cefuroxime (CXM), ceftizoxime (ZOX), cefotetan (CTT) 712 713 and cefpodoxime (CPD). 714 715 Fig 8. Antibiograms of *E. faecium* in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S. 716 E. faecium ATCC19434 was incubated in a chamber in the absence (left) and the presence 717 (right) of 0.1 grams of NaHS, for the antibiotics cefotaxime (CTX), cefuroxime (CXM), ceftizoxime (ZOX), cefotetan (CTT) and cefpodoxime (CPD). 718

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Fig 9. Chemical structure of cephalosporins. In cefotaxime the methoxy-imino residue is emphasized. Fig 10. E. faecalis time killing curves. E. faecalis JH2-2 strain was incubated in TSB liquid media in the presence and absence of NaHS (in the atmosphere) and/or cefotaxime (CTX). Dilutions were plated at 0, 12 and 24 hours for Colony Forming Units (CFU) counting. Error bars represent the standard error of at least three independent experiments. Significant differences among samples are indicated as a, b, c, d. Samples with the same letter are not statistically different among them. Fig 11. Identification of he complete persulfidome of *E. faecelis* (A) Workflow used for the specific labeling of persulfide residues. Biotin maleimide binds only to thiol and persulfide motifs. Bound proteins are separated from others by streptavidin magnetic beads. DTT treatment specifically cleaves disulfide bridges with biotin maleimide, rendering the original S-sulfhydrated proteins available for subsequent procedures. (B) SDS-PAGE of E. faecalis total protein extraction incubated in the presence and absence of H<sub>2</sub>S and CTX. Fig 12. Niche competition of Enterococcus and H2S-producing bacteria The use of cephalosporins or other antibiotics to which E. faecalis and E. faecium are resistant promotes these species overgrowth in the host's digestive tract, facilitating their dissemination and the development of enterococcal infections (upper panel). Nevertheless, a cephalosporinresistant S. Typhimurium strain in the niche could induce the killing of enterococci by H<sub>2</sub>S production, displacing the latter and colonizing the gut as a previous step for infection (bottom panel).

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Supplementary material

S1 Fig. S. Typhimurium WT and Aphs growth curves.

Experiments were carried out both in the presence and absence of thiosulfate (T-S) 20 mM (A) and in the presence of ampicillin 0.5 mg/L (B). The error bars represent the standard error of three independent experiments. Minimal Inhibitory Concentrations of different antibiotics (C). The results show the mean of three independent experiments.

S1 Table. Antibiograms of Salmonella Typhimurium WT and  $\Delta phs$  strain, in Tryptone Soy Agar (TSA), in the presence and absence of thiosulfate 20 mM (T-S).

916		S. Typhimurium WT		• •	imurium phs
310		TSA	TSA + T-S 20	TSA	TSA + T-S 20
917	Amox. + Clavulanic acid 30	31	28	32	29
	Cefaclor 30	31	30	29	31
	Cefotaxime 30	34	34	34	34
918	Cefpodoxime 10	28	29	30	27
919	Cefoxitin 30	26	25	29	25
	Imipenem 10	33	32	33	32
920	Aztreonam 30	38	34	34	34
921	Apramycin 15	13	10	13	9
321	Gentamicin 10	16	14	17	14
922	Neomycin 30	16	14	15	13
923	Netilmicin 30	19	17	19	17
323	Estreptomycin 10	12	7	12	7
924	Ciprofloxacin 10	35	37	35	36
925	Sulpha - Trimetoprim 25	29	30	29	30
323	Tetracycline 30	27	27	26	27
926	Clindamycin 2	6	6	6	6
927	Colistin 10	14	14	13	14
327	Cloramphenicol 50	25	27	28	28
928	Erythromycin 15	7	6	6	7
020	Mupirocin 5	6	6	6	6
929	Rifampin 5	9	7	9	9
930	Vancomycin 30	6	6	6	6
021	Fosfomycin 200	36	30	33	31
931	-				

 S2 Table. Minimal Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) for different antibiotics in S. Typhimurium WT and its  $\Delta phs$  mutant.

MIC (mg/L)	S. Typhimurium WT	S. Typhimurium  \$\Delta phs\$
Ampicillin	1	1
Cefotaxime	0.125	0.062
Streptomycin	128	64
Cloramphenicol	8	8
Ciprofloxacin	0.031	0.031

S3 Table. Antibiograms of E. faecalis V583 strain, in Tryptone Soy Agar (TSA), in the presence and absence of NaHS 0.10 grams.

	TSA	TSA +H <sub>2</sub> S 0.10 g
Ampicillin 10	28	>40
Amoxicillin 25	33	>40
Amox. + clavulanic acid 30	32	>40
Penicillin 10	24	30
Cefaclor 30	10	12
Cefotaxime 30	6	23
Ertapenem 10	6	6
Imipenem 10	29	37
Aztreonam 30	6	6
Amikacin 30	11	28
Apramycin 15	6	23
Streptomycin 10	6	24
Gentamicin 10	13	27
Kanamycin 30	11	28
Neomycin 30	10	24
Tobramycin 10	11	28
Nalidixic acid 30	6	6
Norfloxacin 10	23	25
Sulfamethoxazol 300	6	6
Sulfa - Trimetoprim 25	33	34
Tetracyclin 30	30	33
Clindamycin 2	6	6
Cloramphenicol 50	29	30
Colistin 10	6	6
Eritromycin 15	23	29
Fusidic acid 5	13	19
Lincomycin 15	7	9
Mupirocin 5	8	11
Pristinamycin 15	17	18
Rifampin 5	18	19
Vancomycin 30	15	19

## S4 Table. Tukey-Kramer post-hoc analysis results. Statistically significant results of interest are highlighted.

## TUKEY-KRAMER POST-HOC ANALYSIS

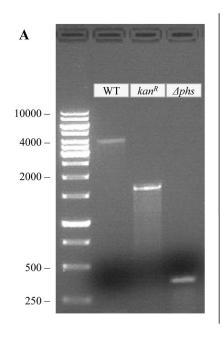
	-	WT 0	WT 12	WT 24	H <sub>2</sub> S 0	H <sub>2</sub> S 12	H <sub>2</sub> S 24	CTX 0	CTX 12	CTX 24	H <sub>2</sub> S- CTX 0	H <sub>2</sub> S- CTX 12	H <sub>2</sub> S- CTX 24
	0		<.0001	<.0001	1.0000	<.0001	<.0001	1.0000	<.0001	<.0001	1.0000	0.0081	0.0004
WT	12			1.0000	<.0001	0.9257	0.9560	<.0001	0.0188	0.0137	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001
	24				<.0001	0.9984	0.9996	<.0001	0.0670	0.0629	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001
	0					<.0001	<.0001	1.0000	<.0001	<.0001	1.0000	0.0124	0.0006
$\mathbf{H_{2}S}$	12						1.0000	<.0001	0.3500	0.3149	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001
	24							<.0001	0.2910	0.2520	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001
	0								<.0001	<.0001	1.0000	0.0206	0.0010
CTX	12									1.0000	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001
	24										<.0001	<.0001	<.0001
** 0	0											0.0142	0.0007
H <sub>2</sub> S - CTX	12												0.9914
	24												

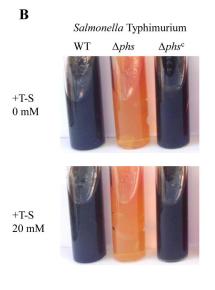
## S5 Table. Primers used in this study.

Primer name	Sequence (5'→ 3')	Source
H1_phsABC_P1	TACAAATTAAATATAATCTTCAGCTATATCTAATAAC AGGAGGTTATATGATTCCGGGGGATCCGTCGACC	This work
H2_phsABC_P2	TTCTTGCTGACATTATTTTATGGATACGCTCAGACCG CGGACTTATCCCCGCGTGTAGGCTGGAGCTGCTTCG	This work
phsABC_ext_F	GGTTTTATCGTGTTGACATGC	This work
phsABC_ext_R	GTCAGGATGGTCTCTATTTGC	This work

## 1013 S6 Table. Plasmids used in this study.

Plasmid name	Description	GenBank Access number	Reference
In-frame genes de	letion		
pKD46	Thermosensitive helper plasmid. It carries the $\lambda$ phage Red recombination system. Ara <sup>Ind</sup> , Amp <sup>R</sup>	AY048746	Datsenko & Wanner 2000
pKD13	Kanamycin resistance cassette carrier plasmid.	AY048744	Datsenko & Wanner 2000
pCP20	Thermosensitive helper plasmid. It carries the FLP recombinase. Amp <sup>R</sup>	-	Cherepanov & Wackernagel 1995
H <sub>2</sub> S production			
pTrc99a	Empty vector		Bang et al. 2000
pSB74 (pH <sub>2</sub> S)	pTrc99a + phsABC	-	Bang et al. 2000
Random transposi	tion mutagenesis		
pZXL5	Thermosensitive plasmid. It carries a <i>mariner</i> transposon (Gm <sup>R</sup> ) and a <i>mariner</i> transposase. Chlor <sup>R</sup>	JQ088279.1	Zhang et al. 2012
)14			

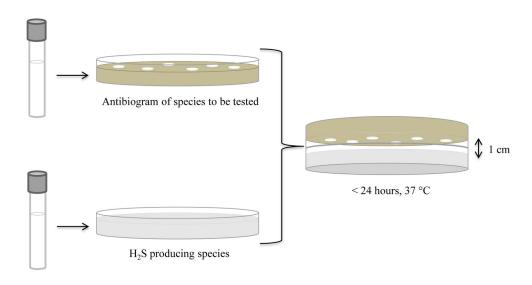


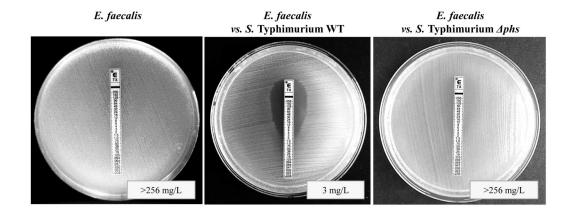






- S. Typhimurium  $\Delta phs$
- S. Typhimurium  $\Delta phs^c$ 
  - S. Typhimurium  $\Delta phs$  (cysteine)



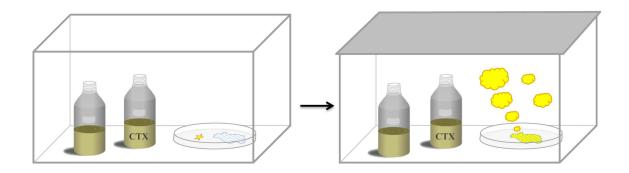


Escherichia coli



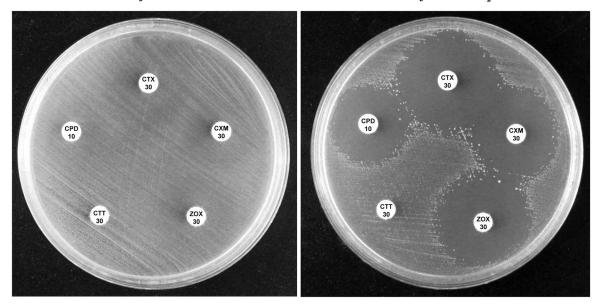
E. coli WT

E. coli WT (pH<sub>2</sub>S)



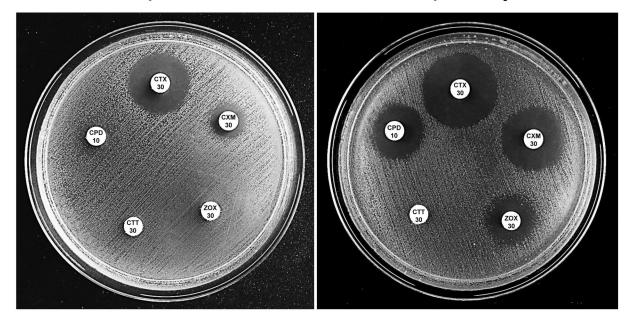
E. faecalis

E. faecalis +  $H_2S$ 



E. faecium

 $E. faecium + H_2S$ 



Cefaclor

Cefotaxime

