

1 **A thermodynamic bottleneck in the TCA cycle contributes to acetate overflow in**
2 ***Staphylococcus aureus***

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49 **Abstract**

50 During aerobic growth, *S. aureus* relies on acetate overflow metabolism, a process where glucose
51 is incompletely oxidized to acetate, for its bioenergetic needs. Acetate is not immediately captured
52 as a carbon source and is excreted as waste by cells. The underlying factors governing acetate
53 overflow in *S. aureus* have not been identified. Here, we show that acetate overflow is favored
54 due to a thermodynamic bottleneck in the TCA cycle, specifically involving the oxidation of
55 succinate to fumarate by succinate dehydrogenase. This bottleneck reduces flux through the TCA
56 cycle, making it more efficient for *S. aureus* to generate ATP via acetate overflow metabolism.
57 Additionally, the protein allocation cost of maintaining ATP flux through the restricted TCA cycle is
58 greater than that of acetate overflow metabolism. Finally, we show that the TCA cycle bottleneck
59 provides *S. aureus* the flexibility to redirect carbon towards maintaining redox balance through
60 lactate overflow when oxygen becomes limiting, albeit at the expense of ATP production through
61 acetate overflow. Overall, our findings suggest that overflow metabolism offers *S. aureus* distinct
62 bioenergetic advantages over a thermodynamically constrained TCA cycle, potentially supporting
63 its commensal-pathogen lifestyle.

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77 **Opinion/ Hypothesis**

78 The gram-positive organism *Staphylococcus aureus* is a frequent colonizer of the human skin
79 and mucosal surfaces of the nose and gut (1). However, it can also invade deeper tissues, causing
80 serious infections such as skin and soft tissue infections, endocarditis and osteomyelitis (2). One
81 of the underlying reasons for its success as a pathogen is its metabolic versatility that allows it to
82 efficiently exploit a variety of niche-specific host nutrients for bioenergetic purposes (3, 4). Yet,
83 when grown in the presence of glucose under conditions of excess oxygen, *S. aureus* appears to
84 execute a seemingly wasteful strategy of excreting substantial amounts of an incompletely
85 oxidized byproduct—acetate, as opposed to fully oxidized CO₂ (5). This phenomenon is called
86 acetate overflow. Intriguingly, acetate overflow is not unique to *S. aureus* but has been reported
87 to occur in several prokaryotes as well as yeasts that rapidly divide under aerobic growth
88 conditions(6).

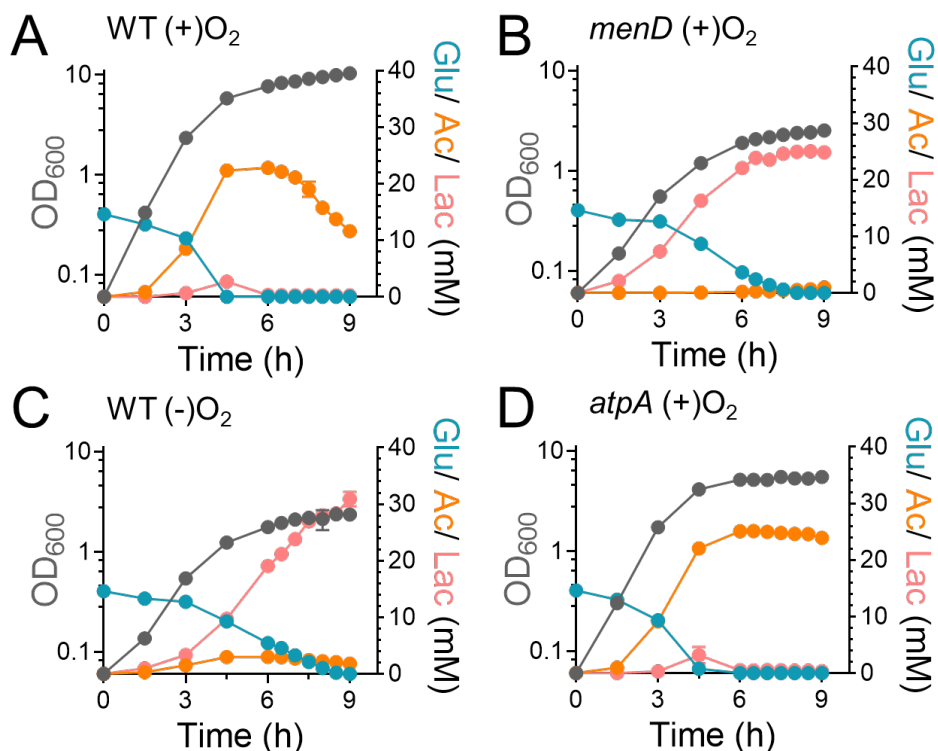
89 At least two major hypotheses have been advanced to explain overflow metabolism. The first
90 involves the proteome allocation hypothesis which argues that energy production through
91 overflow metabolism is more cost-effective than respiration (7–9). The second, membrane real
92 estate hypothesis proposes that overflow metabolism occurs because respiratory capacity is
93 saturated during rapid cell division due to protein crowding on a limited membrane space (10).
94 Here, we show that both the above principles are engaged during rapid growth of *S. aureus* and
95 contribute to acetate overflow. But importantly, their contributions are most accurately reflected
96 only when thermodynamic constraints associated with the TCA cycle of *S. aureus* are accounted
97 for. Although our results indicate that acetate overflow in *S. aureus* is more efficient in generating
98 ATP than the TCA cycle, it is acutely sensitive to the cellular redox status and can easily shift to
99 lactate overflow at the expense of ATP production and growth.

100 **The cellular redox status impacts acetate overflow in *S. aureus***

101 Under aerobic conditions, *S. aureus* respire to balance its cellular redox state and generates
102 ATP through oxidative phosphorylation. To assess how cellular respiration impacts acetate
103 overflow, we measured the acetate yield (Y_{AC}), defined here as the millimolar concentration of
104 acetate produced per millimolar glucose consumed, in both the wild-type (WT) strain and its
105 isogenic *menD* mutant during aerobic growth. Inactivation of *menD* disrupts menaquinone (MK)
106 biosynthesis, a critical electron carrier in the respiratory chain of *S. aureus*, thereby impairing
107 respiration. Interestingly, analysis of acetate overflow revealed that the acetate yield was
108 significantly higher in the WT strain compared to the *menD* mutant (**Fig 1A-B, Table**

109 **1)(Supplementary Data 1)**. During the exponential phase, the WT strain achieved an acetate
110 yield of approximately 1.48 mM per mM glucose consumed. In contrast, the *menD* mutant had a
111 74-fold lower Y_{AC} compared to the WT strain. We also observed that anaerobic growth of *S. aureus*
112 under fermentative conditions resulted in diminished acetate overflow, similar to the *menD* mutant
113 (**Fig 1C, Table 1**). These results indicate that active aerobic respiration is essential for acetate
114 overflow during exponential growth.

115 When respiration is impaired in the *menD* mutant or when *S. aureus* grows under fermentative
116 conditions, the NAD⁺/NADH ratio in cells decreases significantly due to reduced transfer of
117 electrons to oxygen via the electron transport chain (ETC). Consequently, pyruvate is used as an
118 alternate electron sink, resulting in its reduction to lactate (**Fig. 1B and 1C**). Additionally, the lack
119 of a functional ETC also compromises ATP production through oxidative phosphorylation as these
120 processes are coupled. To determine the relative importance of redox (NAD⁺/NADH)
121 maintenance versus ATP production in acetate overflow, we examined the *atpA* (ATPase subunit)
122 mutant, in which ATPase-dependent oxidative phosphorylation is defective but respiration
123 remains functional. Remarkably, the acetate yield of the *atpA* mutant was modestly higher than
124 the WT strain (**Fig. 1D, Table 1**). Thus, the redox balance maintained by a functional ETC is
125 crucial for acetate overflow, whereas ATP generation through oxidative phosphorylation is less
126 critical.



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129 **Fig. 1: The cellular redox status affects acetate overflow.** Glucose, acetate and lactate were
130 assayed in the (A) WT, (B) *menD*, (C) WT (anaerobic) and (D) *atpA* mutants during growth
131 (OD₆₀₀). Anaerobic growth of WT strain was carried out under fermentative conditions in the
132 absence of any added nitrate (alternate electron acceptor). n=3, mean ± SD.

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134 The inactivation of *atpA* had little impact on the aerobic growth rate of *S. aureus* compared to
135 the WT strain (Table 1) suggesting that cells rely on alternative pathways for their bioenergetic
136 needs to support growth. Since acetate overflow through the Pta-AckA pathway in *S. aureus* is
137 coupled to ATP production, this suggested that acetate overflow could provide cells with sufficient
138 ATP to maintain its growth rate. Indeed, we found lower growth rates when acetate overflow was
139 not effectively engaged, such as when the WT strain was grown under anaerobic conditions or in
140 the *menD* mutant (Table 1) where carbon was redirected to lactate instead of acetate. Overall,
141 these findings suggest that acetate overflow provides an important route to meet the bioenergetic
142 needs of the cell during exponential growth when the cellular redox status is maintained.

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145 **Table 1: Growth parameters of *S. aureus***

Growth Condition	Strain	Acetate yield (Y_{AC}) (AC _{mM} / Glu _{mM})	Growth rate ($\mu\cdot h^{-1}$)
(-) O ₂	WT	0.21 ± 0.06	0.46 ± 0.00
(+) O ₂	WT	1.48 ± 0.10	0.56 ± 0.00
	<i>menD</i>	0.02 ± 0.03	0.44 ± 0.01
	<i>atpA</i>	1.73 ± 0.04	0.58 ± 0.01
	<i>ccpA</i>	1.41 ± 0.01	0.57 ± 0.01

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147 **Computational analysis reveals a thermodynamic bottleneck in the TCA cycle that**
148 **promotes acetate overflow**

149 The use of acetate overflow for energy generation is surprising, given that the predicted ATP
150 gain from 1 mol of acetyl CoA catabolism to acetate is ~10-fold lower than its complete oxidation
151 to CO₂ via the TCA cycle. However, in *S. aureus* the TCA cycle is repressed in the presence of
152 glucose due to carbon catabolite repression (CCR) by *ccpA* (11), which may explain why glycolytic
153 flux is primarily directed towards acetate overflow. To test this hypothesis, we determined the
154 acetate yield following *ccpA* inactivation. We reasoned that increased activation of the TCA cycle
155 following *ccpA* inactivation should decrease acetate overflow. Surprisingly, although inactivation
156 of *ccpA* decreased the glucose consumption rate in agreement with previous observations (**Fig.**
157 **2A**), the acetate yield of the *ccpA* mutant had only decreased by ~4.7% compared to the WT
158 strain (**Table 1**). These results suggest that in addition to CCR there may exist other bottlenecks
159 in the TCA cycle of *S. aureus* that contribute to the redirection of carbon flux towards acetate
160 generation.

161 Since metabolic flux through various pathways is governed by thermodynamic constraints, we
162 initially determined the thermodynamic feasibility of the TCA cycle and the acetate overflow
163 pathway (**Fig. 2B**) using the max-min driving force (MDF) framework (12). In the MDF analysis
164 (**Fig. 2C**), the Gibbs free energy change (ΔG) was estimated from physiological concentrations
165 of metabolites derived from both experimental data and literature (12). MDF analysis revealed
166 that the acetate overflow pathway (Pta-AckA) had a significantly higher driving force than the TCA
167 cycle, with the phosphotransacetylase (PTAr) reaction showing the highest driving force among
168 the reactions in this pathway (**Fig. 2B-C**). In contrast, a significant thermodynamic bottleneck was
169 observed in the SDH (Succinate dehydrogenase) reaction catalyzed by the *sdhA* gene, which
170 limited the overall driving force of the TCA cycle (**Fig. 2B-C**), making it less favorable. This

171 bottleneck suggests a broader thermodynamic inefficiency within the TCA cycle, potentially driving
172 a shift towards alternative ATP-generating pathways like acetate overflow. Using component
173 contribution analysis, a thermodynamic framework that incorporates both reactant and chemical
174 group contributions to estimate free energy changes, we calculated a minimum standard Gibbs
175 free energy change of +4.9 kJ/mol for the MK-dependent SDH reaction. This contrasts with the -
176 31.1 kJ/mol associated with the ubiquinone-dependent reaction in *E. coli* (13).

177 Thermodynamic driving force is directly linked to enzyme abundance, with reactions exhibiting
178 lower driving forces requiring a greater enzyme investment to maintain metabolic flux(14). In the
179 presence of a thermodynamic bottleneck, this relationship can significantly increase the enzyme
180 cost, defined here as the total protein mass needed to sustain flux through a pathway. Accordingly,
181 we quantified the enzyme cost for both the TCA cycle and acetate excretion pathway (15). Our
182 calculations revealed that, under aerobic conditions, the TCA cycle incurs a 49% higher protein
183 cost compared to acetate overflow (**Fig. 2D**) (**Supplementary Data 2**). This finding strongly
184 suggests that acetate overflow is preferred due to its lower metabolic burden on the cell.

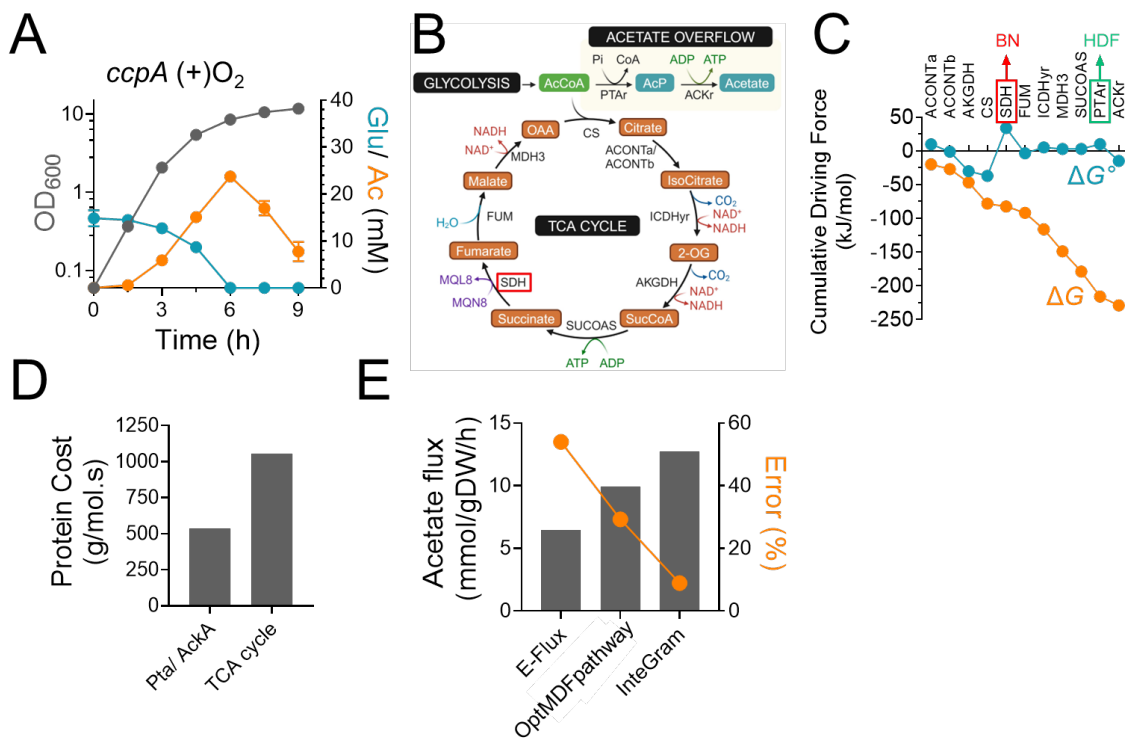
185 **Membrane crowding contributes to acetate overflow**

186 In addition to these constraints, physical limitations within cells also contribute to acetate
187 overflow. The membrane real-estate hypothesis suggests that during rapid aerobic growth, the
188 available membrane space becomes saturated with proteins, including those involved in nutrient
189 uptake. This crowding may restrict the cell's ability to carry out oxidative phosphorylation, further
190 driving the shift toward acetate overflow as an alternative bioenergetic strategy.

191 To investigate this hypothesis, we initially assessed the gene expression of WT strain during
192 aerobic exponential growth (**Supplementary Data 3**) and integrated the data into our previously
193 published *S. aureus* genome-scale metabolic model (GEM) (16). Before integration, the model
194 was refined to ensure 100% stoichiometric consistency and mass balance. We then applied
195 several algorithms, including iMAT (Integrative Metabolic Analysis Tool) (17), RIPTiDe (Reaction
196 Inclusion by Parsimony and Transcript Distribution) (18), EXTREAM (Expression distributed
197 REAction flux Measurement) (19), and E-Flux (20) to incorporate the transcriptomic data into the
198 GEM. These methods helped contextualize the model by refining reaction constraints based on
199 gene expression data, thereby improving its accuracy in predicting metabolic behavior. Among
200 these methods, E-Flux produced the most accurate predictions, with acetate fluxes closer to
201 experimental values compared to the other algorithms. However, despite its improved accuracy,
202 the error percentage between the predicted and experimental acetate fluxes remained high at

203 54%. To improve the predictability of this contextualized model, we subsequently implemented
 204 OptMDFpathway algorithm (21) with the E-flux model. OptMDFpathway incorporates
 205 thermodynamic constraints into pathway analysis, optimizing the distribution of metabolic fluxes
 206 to maximize the driving force of reactions while minimizing thermodynamic bottlenecks
 207 (**Supplementary Data 4**). Implementation of OptMDFpathway further reduced the error
 208 percentage to 29% and closed the gap between the predicted and experimentally observed rates
 209 of acetate flux.

210 Although OptMDFpathway captured acetate overflow well, we still lacked a framework to
 211 account for the effect of the surface area of membrane-bound enzymes to test the membrane
 212 real-estate hypothesis. To address this, we developed a new algorithm, InteGraM. The algorithm
 213 calculated the surface area of membrane-bound enzymes using molecular weight-based
 214 empirical equations and constrained the surface area-weighted sum of fluxes of the membrane-
 215 bound reactions in the OptMDFpathway formulation. This additional constraint increased acetate
 216 flux and reduced the error to ~9% when the sum of fluxes for membrane-bound reactions was
 217 constrained (**Fig. 2E**). Taken together, these results strongly suggest that membrane crowding
 218 may further constrain an already flux-limited TCA cycle, reducing ATP production and leading to
 219 acetate overflow as a preferred mechanism for energy generation in *S. aureus*.



221 **Fig. 2: The SDH-catalyzed reaction in the TCA cycle constitutes a bottleneck that leads to**
222 **acetate overflow. (A)** Glucose and acetate were assayed in the culture supernatants of the *ccpA*
223 mutant during growth (OD₆₀₀). n=3, mean ± SD. **(B)** Schematic of acetate overflow pathway and
224 TCA cycle. Red boxed enzyme catalyzes bottleneck reaction. **(C)** MDF analysis. Red-boxed
225 enzyme catalyzes the thermodynamic bottleneck (BN) and green boxed enzyme has the highest
226 driving force (HDF). ΔG° , Standard Gibbs free energy; ΔG , Gibbs free energy change was
227 estimated from physiological concentrations of metabolites obtained from experiments and
228 literature survey. **(D)** Protein cost estimation **(E)** Acetate flux estimations from different models
229 were compared against the experimentally observed flux value of 14 mmol/gDW/h. The difference
230 between the estimated and actual acetate flux values were used to determine the % error.

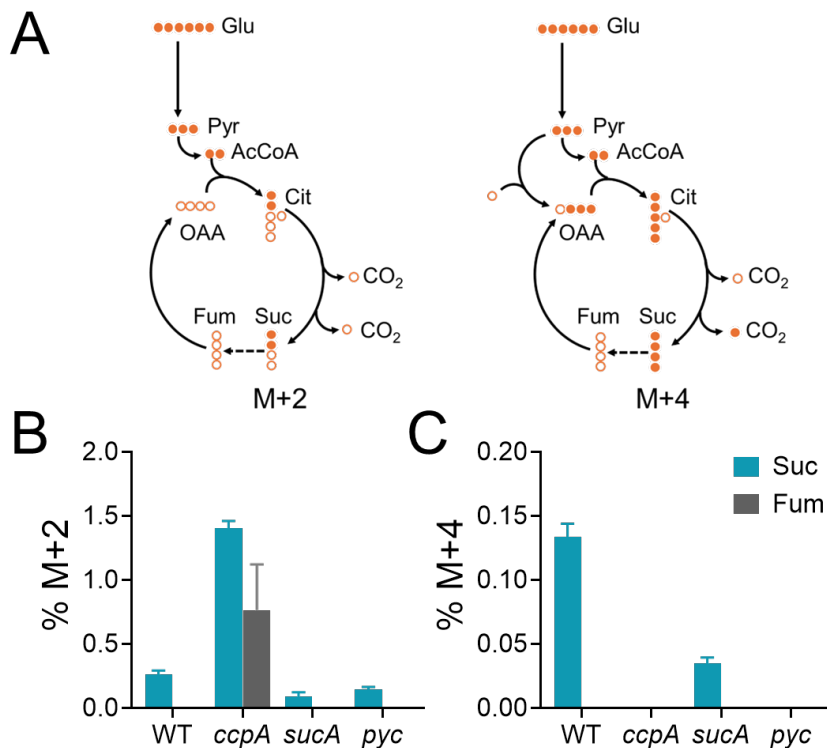
231 **Succinate to fumarate reaction constitutes a thermodynamic bottleneck in the TCA cycle**

232 Given that the computational analysis indicated reduced TCA cycle flux from succinate to
233 fumarate is critical for acetate overflow, we investigated whether the *sdhA* catalyzed a bottleneck
234 reaction in the TCA cycle. We utilized liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LC-
235 MS/MS) to determine the mass isotopologues distribution (MID) of succinate and fumarate
236 derived from ¹³C₆-glucose in *S. aureus* (**Supplementary Fig. 1, Supplementary Data 5**). We
237 specifically focused on two isotopologues (M+2 and M+4) of succinate and fumarate to assess
238 flux through the SDH reaction. When grown in media supplemented with ¹³C₆-glucose, *S. aureus*
239 generates ¹³C₂-acetylCoA which can enter the TCA cycle and react with either unlabeled
240 oxaloacetate to generate ¹³C₂-citrate or with ¹³C₃-oxaloacetate to form ¹³C₅-citrate (**Fig. 3A**). Due
241 to subsequent decarboxylation reactions in the TCA cycle, ¹³C₅-citrate is converted to ¹³C₄-
242 succinate (M+4) and then to ¹³C₄-fumarate (M+4) whereas ¹³C₂-citrate retains both ¹³C-labeled
243 carbon atoms (M+2) when it is eventually converted to fumarate (**Fig. 3A**).

244 We used isogenic *sucA* and *pyc* mutants as controls in these ¹³C-tracing experiments to
245 validate the identity of the M+2 and M+4 isotopologues of both succinate and fumarate. As
246 expected, the inactivation of *sucA* partially reduced the flux from 2-Oxoglutarate to succinate in
247 the WT strain, indicated by reduced levels of the M+2 and M+4 succinate isotopologues (**Fig. 3B**).
248 In contrast, the *pyc* mutation completely eliminated M+4 isotopologues of succinate and fumarate
249 due to the absence of 2-oxaloacetate production from phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP) (**Fig. 3C**).

250 Upon validation, we quantified the abundance of M+2 and M+4 isotopologues of succinate
251 and fumarate relative to their total pool in cells. LC-MS/MS analysis revealed that the M+2 and
252 M+4 succinate constituted just 0.2% and 0.13% of the total intracellular succinate pool of the WT

253 strain, respectively (**Fig. 3B-C**), suggesting that the flux through the citrate node of the TCA cycle
254 was limited during rapid exponential growth in media containing glucose. Importantly, we did not
255 detect either M+2 or M+4-labeled fumarate from their corresponding succinate isotopologues in
256 the WT strain (**Fig. 3B-C**), which is consistent with a bottleneck in the *sdhA*-catalyzed reaction.
257 This bottleneck was partly relieved in the *ccpA* mutant where M+2 succinate and fumarate
258 increased to 1.4% and 0.76% respectively (**Fig. 3B**). We did not observe a corresponding
259 increase in M+4 succinate (**Fig. 3C**), presumably because *ccpA* positively regulates *pyc*
260 expression (22). Consistent with this hypothesis, the M+4 succinate pool was also depleted in the
261 *pyc* mutant (**Fig. 3C**). Collectively, these results suggest that the conversion of succinate to
262 fumarate constitutes a bottleneck in the TCA cycle which could lead to acetate overflow.



263
264 **Fig. 3: SdhA catalyzes a bottleneck reaction in the TCA cycle. (A)** Carbon transition scheme
265 resulting in M+2 and M+4 isotopologues. Dashed arrow indicates a bottleneck reaction. **(B)** %
266 M+2 **(C)** % M+4 isotopologues of succinate (blue bars) and fumarate (grey bars) were determined
267 by LC-MS/MS following growth of *S. aureus* in TSB media supplemented with U-¹³C-glucose (n=3,
268 mean ± SD).

269

270 **Conclusions**

271 Overflow metabolism typically refers to the incomplete oxidation of glucose to acetate or
272 lactate by cells even when oxygen is abundantly present. It is a seemingly inefficient way to utilize
273 carbon for bioenergetic purposes.

274 We propose that a thermodynamic bottleneck in the conversion of succinate to fumarate in
275 the TCA cycle drives acetate overflow in *S. aureus*. Isotope tracing studies using U-¹³C₆-glucose
276 revealed reduced flux through the TCA cycle during rapid cell division and supported a bottleneck
277 in the conversion of succinate to fumarate, as neither M+2 nor M+4 isotopologues were detected
278 for fumarate from their corresponding succinate species. The enzyme SDH catalyzes this
279 reaction, which is coupled to MK reduction in the respiratory chain. The bottleneck arises from the
280 low midpoint potential of the MK redox couple (~ -72 mV) (23), requiring a substantial amount of
281 both succinate and SDH to drive the reaction efficiently towards fumarate. In contrast, gram-
282 negative organisms like *E. coli* that utilize ubiquinone (UQ) as their primary aerobic respiratory
283 quinone can easily drive the same reaction following interaction with SDH due to the substantially
284 positive redox potential of UQ (mid-point potential of UQ/UQH₂ ~110 mV) (24). When *E. coli* is
285 forced to respire using MK due to a mutation that prevents UQ biosynthesis, these cells are unable
286 to efficiently grow aerobically and disproportionately rely on acetate overflow to meet their
287 bioenergetic needs (25). These findings strongly support the hypothesis that the thermodynamic
288 limits of the *sdhA* catalyzed reaction in the TCA cycle, drives acetate overflow in *S. aureus*.

289 Given the thermodynamic constraint in TCA cycle, it becomes imperative to ask if acetate
290 overflow through the Pta-AckA pathway still constitutes a wasteful strategy for ATP generation.
291 Even though the ATP yield from 1 mol of glucose catabolized through the TCA cycle far exceeds
292 that of acetate overflow, our analysis shows that the thermodynamic constraint on the SDH
293 reaction considerably decreases flux through this node of the TCA cycle, making it more
294 economical for *S. aureus* to support ATP generation through acetate overflow pathways than the
295 bacterial ATP synthase. Our calculations show that ATP flux through acetate overflow is ~3.5-fold
296 more than TCA-dependent respiration (ATP flux of 12 $mmolgDW^{-1}h^{-1}$ vs 3.5 $mmolgDW^{-1}h^{-1}$,
297 respectively). From a separate perspective, when protein costs are considered after factoring in
298 the thermodynamic constraint in the TCA cycle, the cost for acetate overflow pathway is 536
299 $g/(mols^{-1})$, whereas respiration supported through TCA cycle activity had a much higher enzyme
300 cost of 1055 $g/(mols^{-1})$. This suggests that the TCA/respiration route would require about 2-fold
301 more investment of enzymes per unit of ATP generated compared to acetate overflow. Overall,
302 these findings suggest that *S. aureus* may favor acetate overflow since it is more advantageous
303 and cost effective for ATP production than the TCA cycle.

304 It is intriguing to consider why CcpA represses the TCA cycle if a thermodynamic bottleneck
305 already limits its flux. Indeed, isotope tracing revealed only a modest increase in TCA cycle flux
306 following *ccpA* inactivation which corresponded to a marginal decrease in acetate yield. We
307 propose that the CcpA-dependent carbon catabolite repression of the TCA cycle may primarily
308 help limit the production of energetically costly enzymes, which would otherwise be wastefully
309 produced for a flux-restricted pathway. Thus, the impact of CcpA on TCA cycle activity may be
310 viewed more as a fine-tuning function rather than an on/off switch.

311 Finally, it is surprising that *S. aureus* has evolved to only utilize MK for respiration when clear
312 advantages for UQ exist as far as economical carbon utilization. Our results show that the use of
313 MK underlies overflow metabolism and provides *S. aureus* with the ability to redirect carbon
314 towards ATP production or redox regulation in a rapid efficient manner. This may ultimately aid its
315 ability to switch from an oxygen rich environment on the skin to more hypoxic environments deep
316 within tissues, thus allowing a smooth transition between its commensal/pathogen lifestyle in the
317 human host. It is tempting to speculate that organisms that utilize UQ may have a relatively limited
318 spare capacity for carbon redirection towards redox control as flux through TCA cycle may
319 compete out those of redox pathways. Thus, our findings suggest that the use of acetate overflow
320 over the TCA cycle not only provides an alternate economical source of ATP for *S. aureus*, but
321 also likely contributes to its metabolic versatility.

322 **Data availability.**

323 The materials and method can be found in the Supplementary file. All codes have been deposited
324 in GitHub (<https://github.com/ssbio/Staph>).

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