

1 *Magnetospirillum magneticum* as a living iron chelator 2 induces TfR1 upregulation and decreases cell viability 3 in cancer cells

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14 **Abstract:** Interest has grown in harnessing biological agents for cancer treatment as dynamic vectors
15 with enhanced tumor targeting. While bacterial traits such as proliferation in tumors, modulation of an
16 immune response and local secretion of toxins have been well studied, less is known about bacteria as
17 competitors for nutrients. Here, we investigated the use of a bacterial strain as a living iron chelator,
18 competing for this nutrient vital to tumor growth and progression. We established an *in vitro* co-culture
19 system consisting of the magnetotactic strain *Magnetospirillum magneticum* AMB-1 incubated under
20 hypoxic conditions with human melanoma cells. Siderophore production by 10⁸ AMB-1/mL in human
21 transferrin (Tf)-supplemented media was quantified and found to be equivalent to a concentration of
22 3.78 μM ± 0.117 μM deferoxamine, a potent drug used in iron chelation therapy. Our experiments
23 revealed an increased expression of transferrin receptor 1 (TfR1) and a significant decrease of cancer
24 cell viability, indicating the bacteria's ability to alter iron homeostasis in human melanoma cells. Our
25 results show the potential of a bacterial strain acting as a self-replicating iron-chelating agent, which
26 could serve as an additional mechanism reinforcing current bacterial cancer therapies.

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29 **Keywords:** Magnetotactic bacteria, iron chelator, cancer therapy, transferrin receptor 1, siderophores

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49 1. Introduction

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51 Due to limited selectivity in systemically delivered cancer therapeutics, interest has grown in
52 harnessing bacteria as living, tumor-targeting anticancer agents. The therapeutic potential of facultative
53 anaerobic bacteria has been supported by studies demonstrating the delivery of non-pathogenic strains
54 of *Escherichia coli* to solid flank tumors with associated tumor regression[1]. Additionally, safe
55 administration of *Salmonella typhimurium* (VPN20009) has been shown for animal models and patients
56 with metastatic melanoma [2,3]. Bacteria can act therapeutically by secreting innate or engineered
57 toxins in situ (e.g. hemolysin E), transporting attached nanodrug formulations, or stimulating an
58 immune response [4-7]. Colonizing bacteria can also engage in nutrient competition within the tumor
59 microenvironment [8-10]. While the starvation of glucose as a crucial energy source to all cells has been
60 studied intensively [11-13], other nutrients that are in specifically high demand by cancer cells might
61 serve as more specific, vulnerable targets for deprivation.

62

63 Iron metabolism, for example, is significantly altered in mammalian tumor cells and recognized as a
64 metabolic hallmark of cancer [14,15]. The main iron uptake mechanism adopted by most cells utilizes
65 the internalization of transferrin receptor 1 (TfR1) upon binding of Fe (III)-bound transferrin (Tf). TfR1
66 expression positively correlates with cellular iron starvation and is upregulated in cancer cells, since
67 malignant cells generally require a nutrient surplus [15-17]. Accordingly, several types of iron
68 scavenging molecules have been utilized to compete with malignant cells for available iron sources and
69 have demonstrated significant anti-neoplastic activity both, *in vitro* and *in vivo* [18-20]. Promising
70 bacteria-derived iron-chelating siderophores, such as deferoxamine (DFO), as well as synthetic iron
71 chelators have been developed for therapeutic purposes [21]. However, non-negligible side effects,
72 including systemic toxicity and low efficacy, have hampered their translation into clinical trials as
73 therapeutic agents for cancer treatment [22-24].

74

75 Here we investigate the potential of a specific bacterial strain with high demand for iron to serve as
76 local, self-replicating iron chelator that could thereby reduce systemic effects. Magnetotactic bacteria,
77 like other bacteria, possess the ability to secrete high-affinity iron-scavenging siderophores. In
78 particular, AMB-1 secrete both hydroxamate and catechol (3,4-dihydroxybenzoic acid) types of
79 siderophores [25,26]. Unlike other bacteria, their demand for iron is particularly high, since this mineral
80 is crucial both for their survival and synthesis of unique intracellular organelles called magnetosomes.
81 [27,28]. These biomineralized magnetic nanocrystals are arranged in chains enclosed in a lipid bilayer
82 and enable the bacteria to align with magnetic fields [29-31]. Furthermore, MTB are aerotactic,
83 possessing an oxygen-sensing system that regulates motility in an oxygen gradient [32]. These features
84 have previously been leveraged to magnetically guide MTB to the hypoxic core of solid tumors,
85 yielding significantly higher tumor accumulation and penetration compared to their administration in
86 the absence of external magnetic fields [33]. Once on site, nutrients from the tumor microenvironment
87 are sourced to maintain proliferation and growth, and we hypothesize that MTB could induce iron
88 deprivation of cancer cells.

89

90 To study this, we employed *Magnetospirillum magneticum* strain AMB-1 and first quantified the
91 production of siderophores, benchmarked with molar concentrations of DFO. We then investigated the
92 influence of AMB-1 on cell surface TfR1 expression using human melanoma cells and demonstrated
93 the ability of AMB-1 to affect iron homeostasis. Finally, we examined the effect of AMB-1 on cancer cell
94 growth *in vitro* by analyzing cell viability. The iron scavenging capabilities of bacterial strains with
95 naturally high or enhanced siderophore production may act as an additional mechanism for bacterial
96 cancer therapy, complementing or augmenting established bacterial anticancer mechanisms.

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99 2. Results

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101 2.1. *AMB-1 produced siderophores affect human transferrin structure in mammalian cell culture medium*

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103 First, we sought to determine to what extent AMB-1 would produce siderophores in Dulbecco's
104 Modified Eagle's medium (DMEM). Using the Chrome Azurol S (CAS) assay (Figure S1), 10^8 AMB-1
105 bacteria were found to produce 0.10 ± 0.005 siderophore units in DMEM supplemented with $25 \mu\text{M}$
106 holo-transferrin (holo-Tf), while siderophore production in transferrin-free DMEM was negligible
107 (Figure 1A). AMB-1 siderophore production was compared to the widely used iron chelator
108 deferoxamine. It was found that the siderophores produced by 10^8 AMB-1 in Tf-supplemented media
109 was equivalent to $3.78 \mu\text{M} \pm 0.117 \mu\text{M}$ deferoxamine (Figure 1B).

110

111 Having established the ability of AMB-1 to produce siderophores in Tf-supplemented media, we next
112 determined whether AMB-1 would have an effect on human transferrin structure. SDS-PAGE analysis
113 was used to compare DMEM supplemented with either iron-containing holo-Tf or iron-depleted apo-
114 Tf. The apo-Tf appeared as a broader band on the SDS-gel compared to holo-Tf (Figure S2).
115 Furthermore, we ascertained that holo-Tf structure was not affected by a 48 h incubation period at 30°C .
116 To test whether the bacteria induced changes in Tf, AMB-1 were inoculated in DMEM supplemented
117 with holo-Tf. This approach revealed that holo-Tf formed a broader band very similar to that seen for
118 the apo-Tf band incubated in DMEM (Figure S2, lane 6). These experiments demonstrate that AMB-1
119 produced a quantifiable amount of siderophore when holo-Tf was supplemented to the mammalian
120 cell culture media and that the structure of holo-Tf was affected by the bacteria.

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122 2.2. *AMB-1 upregulates Tfr1 expression in human melanoma cells*

123

124 To test whether AMB-1 can affect the iron uptake machinery in mammalian tumor cells we co-cultured
125 AMB-1 with the human melanoma cell line MDA-MB-435S and monitored TfR1 expression using
126 immunofluorescence. To mimic the tumor microenvironment, all experiments were performed under

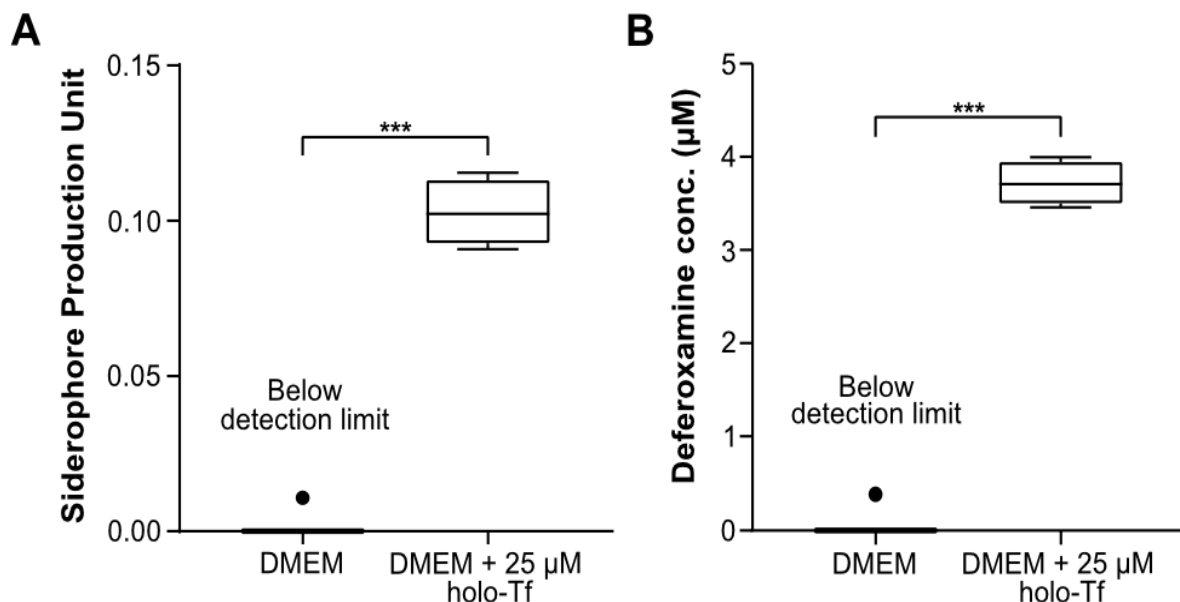


Figure 1: Quantification of siderophores produced by *Magnetospirillum magneticum* AMB-1 and analysis of their interaction with human transferrin. **(A)** Siderophores produced by AMB-1 were quantified by a chrome azurol S (CAS) assay in DMEM (condition 1) and DMEM supplemented with $25 \mu\text{M}$ holo-transferrin (condition 2) ($n=4$ per condition, statistical significance was assessed with an unpaired two-tailed t-test). **(B)** Siderophore production units plotted in terms of the inferred equivalent concentration of deferoxamine ($n=4$ per condition, statistical significance was assessed with an unpaired two-tailed t-test).

127 hypoxic conditions (Figure S3). The surface expression of Tfr1 increased 2.7-fold on cancer cells co-
 128 cultured with live bacteria at AMB-1:MDA-MB-435S ratios as low as 10:1 (10^6 AMB-1). The Tfr1
 129 upregulation was shown to increase with increasing bacteria ratios (Figure 2A, B). Deferoxamine was
 130 used here to create iron-deficient cell culture conditions as a positive control. MDA-MB-435S cells
 131 showed a significant and increasing upregulation of Tfr1 surface expression up to 5.6-fold. To ensure
 132 that the upregulation of Tfr1 expression was on the cell surface and not cytoplasmic, cell membrane
 133 integrity in the cultures was monitored. Less than 5% of cells were stained by the cell-impermeant DNA
 134 stain propidium iodide (PI), indicating cell membrane preservation over time (Figure 2C).
 135

136 To gain insights on the Tfr1 expression kinetics of the cell population, AMB-1-induced increase of cell
 137 surface Tfr1 expression was analyzed over time. The effect, at an AMB-1:MDA-MB-435S ratio of 1000:1
 138 was already apparent after 6 h of co-culture (Figure 1D). The fluorescent intensity after 24 h of co-
 139 culture was 1.8 times higher than the initial value, while the change reached 95% of the final value after
 140 12 h (Figure 1E). Untreated cancer cells did not display any increase in fluorescence (Figure 1F).
 141 Upregulation of Tfr1 could also not be found for non-magnetotactic bacteria with lower demand for
 142 iron, such as *E. Coli* [34-36]. When *E. coli* Nissle 1917 were incubated with melanoma cells at a ratio

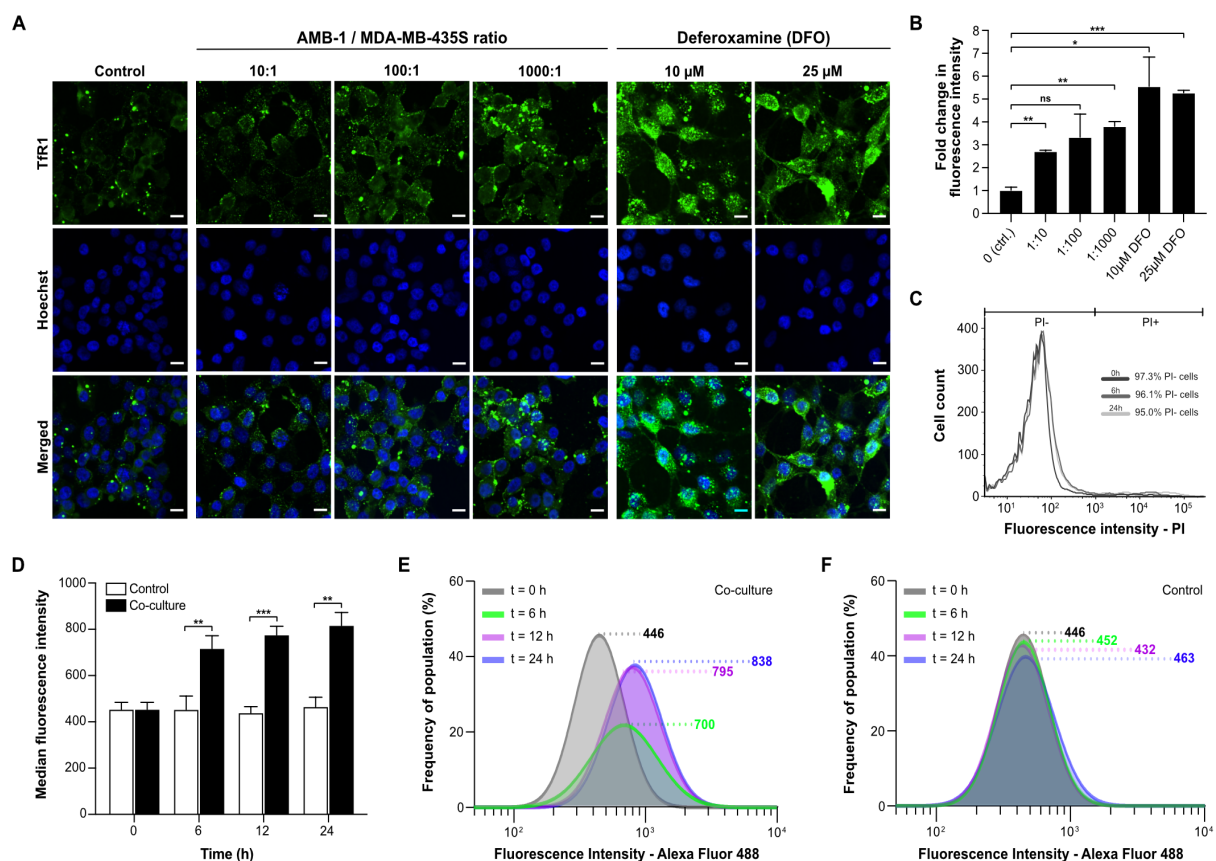


Figure 2: Analysis of Tfr1 upregulation and cell surface expression on MDA-MB-435S. **(A)** Representative immunofluorescence images of human melanoma cells co-cultured under hypoxic conditions for 48 h with different ratios of AMB-1 bacteria and different concentrations of deferoxamine as a positive control. Images show MDA-MB-435S cells marked by anti-Tfr1 antibody (green) and Hoechst 33342 (blue), (scale bar: 10 μ M). **(B)** Quantification of the fold change in fluorescence intensity relative to the control condition, (n=2 biological replicates per condition, statistical significance was assessed with an unpaired two-tailed t-test). **(C)** Membrane integrity was measured as a graphical representation of PI negative and PI positive cell populations after 0, 6 and 24 h. **(D)** Tfr1 median fluorescence intensity measured over 24 hours, (n=3 biological replicates per timepoint, statistical significance was assessed with an unpaired two-tailed t-test). **(E)** Representative log-normal fitted fluorescence intensity histograms of cell surface Tfr1 expression on MDA-MB-435S cells in co-culture model and **(F)** negative control, (n=3 biological replicates per timepoint).

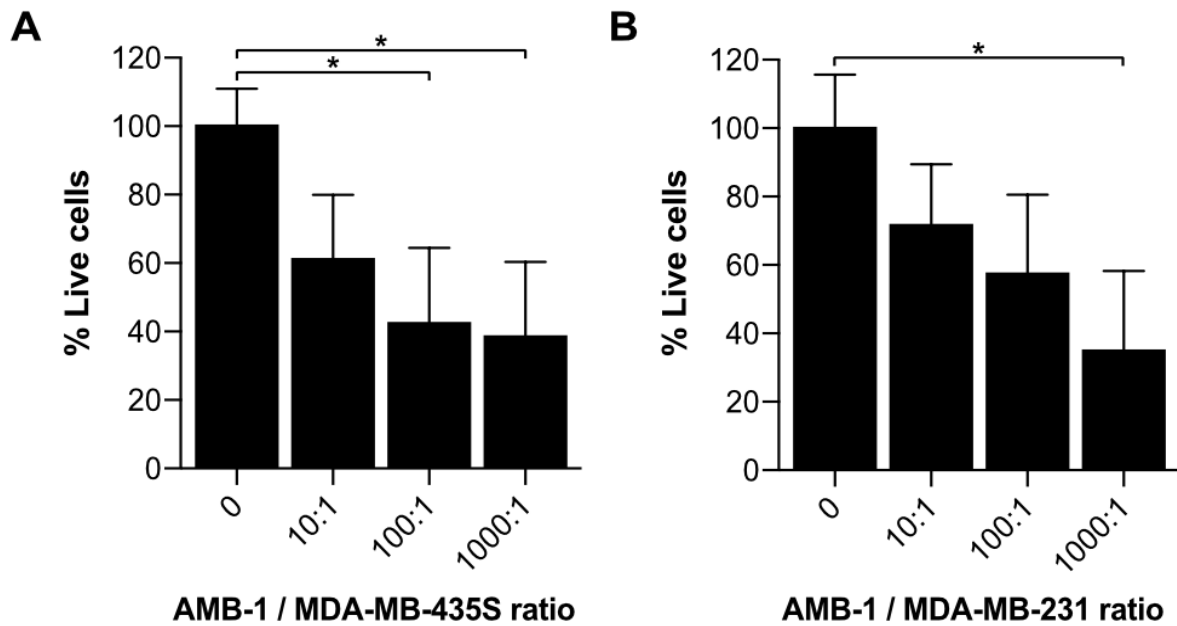


Figure 3: Investigation of cell growth upon incubation with AMB-1 bacteria. Cell viability of MDA-MB-435S and MDA-MB-231 was determined using an MTT assay and expressed as a percentage of the untreated cells. Viability (%) is expressed as mean \pm SD of 3 individual biological replicates. Ordinary one-way ANOVA test was used to assess statistical significance.

143 of of 1000:1, our highest bacteria to cell ratio tested for AMB-1, no detectable increase in TfR1 expression
144 could be noted on the cell surface of MDA-MB-435S cells (Figure S4). Altogether, these findings show
145 that the bacterial strain AMB-1 possesses a unique ability to induce TfR1 upregulation in the tested
146 human melanoma cancer cell line, thereby suggesting a direct link between AMB-1 induced disruption
147 of iron uptake and TfR1 expression.

148

149 2.3. Reduced viability of cancer cell lines upon incubation with AMB-1

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151 Upon co-culturing melanoma cells with AMB-1 bacteria, we assessed cellular viability using MTT
152 assay. A significant decrease in cell viability could be seen when cells were exposed to live bacteria at
153 AMB-1:MDA-MB-435S ratios as low as 100:1 (10^7 AMB-1). Incubation of MDA-MB-435S cells with
154 bacteria (ratio 1000:1) resulted in an overall decrease of the mean cell viability of 62% (\pm 21.93%) (Figure
155 3). To ascertain that this effect was not restricted to one cell line, the experiment was repeated on an
156 additional human cancer cell lines, MDA-MB-231. A significant decrease of 65% (\pm 23.37%) was
157 detected in MDA-MB-231 cell viability once the cells were incubated with bacteria at a ratio of 1000:1.
158 Supported by these observations, we showed that magnetotactic bacteria AMB-1 impact cancer cell
159 viability, suggesting that they affect cancer cell growth *in vitro*.

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161

162 3. Discussion

163

164 Magnetotactic bacteria acquire iron through siderophore-mediated uptake, as ferric and ferrous ions
165 cannot directly enter bacteria cells. We quantified the number of siderophores produced by strain
166 *Magnetospirillum magneticum* AMB-1 in mammalian cell culture medium and benchmarked the
167 results with deferoxamine, a commonly used iron chelator. We also found that the bacteria affect
168 human transferrin's structure. The broadening of the holo-Tf band we observed in response to the
169 addition of AMB-1 to the media suggests a change in molecular weight or conformation. Such a change
170 in conformation would be consistent with the increased fraction of apo-Tf resulting from competition
171 for binding of ferric iron with siderophores secreted by AMB-1. Comparing our findings to studies that

172 showed the proteolytic cleavage of Tf by *Prevotella nigrescens*, we infer that specific degradation of the
173 Tf by AMB-1 did not occur, since sub-products with lower molecular mass were not detected on the
174 gel [37]. Therefore, our results suggest a loss of iron ions by holo-Tf, which is consistent with bacteria-
175 produced siderophores having a higher affinity for Fe ions compared to human transferrin [38,39]. This
176 higher affinity could be exploited by AMB-1 to efficiently compete for ferric ions with the host cells,
177 resulting in iron starvation for the latter.

178
179 We then showed that AMB-1 inoculation with human melanoma cell cultures affects iron homeostasis
180 of the cancer cells. Iron homeostasis is essential for normal cell growth and development, and iron
181 starvation is mainly characterized by alterations in the iron import machinery, specifically by an
182 upregulation of the transferrin receptor 1 on the cell surface. Increased TfR1 expression found on MDA-
183 MB-435S melanoma cancer cells correlates with increasing bacteria ratios. This finding suggests that
184 AMB-1 effectively competes for free iron ions and therefore limits the mineral's availability to MDA-
185 MB-435S cells (Figure 2A, B). Moreover, a significant increase of TfR1 expression could already be
186 detected 6 h after inoculation (Figure 2D-F). Similarly, the cancer cells showed a significant
187 upregulation of TfR1 surface expression after incubation with deferoxamine (10 μ M and 25 μ M), in line
188 with previous reports on cellular iron deficiency [15,16,40]. These observations demonstrated that
189 AMB-1 affects the iron import mechanisms of human melanoma cells, acting as an effective competitor
190 for iron when in co-culture with MDA-MB-435S cells.

191
192 Furthermore, we assessed the impact of AMB-1 cells on cancer cell growth (Figure 3). Earlier studies
193 indicated the benefits of adding iron chelators to cancer cells, showing a reduction of cell growth upon
194 treatment [19,24,40]. Our results confirmed that an increasing number of AMB-1 added to co-culture
195 correlated with a decrease in the percentage of viable cancer cells. This effect could be detected on
196 cancer cells from two different lineages. At the highest investigated bacteria to cell ratio (1000:1), the
197 melanoma cells MDA-MB-435S displayed an overall viability of 38% and the viability of breast cancer
198 cells MDA-MB-231 was 32%. These findings suggest that the high requirement for iron exhibited by
199 MTB causes them to actively compete for Fe (III) with cancer cells, leading to a nutrient shortage
200 associated with reduced viability.

201
202 Our data support the idea that AMB-1 have the ability to act as living iron chelators by secreting a
203 quantifiable amount of siderophores. We showed that 10^8 AMB-1/mL can produce high-affinity iron
204 scavenging molecules equivalent to 3.78 μ M deferoxamine over 24 h (Figure 1B). Previous works
205 demonstrated that the treatment of different cell lines with 10 μ M - 30 μ M deferoxamine significantly
206 reduced cell viability *in vitro* [19,40]. Moreover, a significant diminution of cell viability was even
207 detected at the lower deferoxamine concentration of 2.5 μ M when combined with the chemotherapeutic
208 drug cisplatin [19]. Nonetheless, the implementation of molecular iron scavenging molecules in
209 translational medicine is hampered by elevated systemic toxicity, as well as limited tumor selectivity.
210 These challenges might be overcome by implementing bacteria as direct competitors for nutrients at
211 the tumor site. Several approaches have been investigated in the past to deliver magnetotactic bacteria
212 to solid tumors. For example, intravenously introduced AMB-1 have been shown to colonize tumor
213 xenografts 3-6 days after injection [41]. More recent attempts describe the use of peritumoral injection,
214 followed by magnetic guidance [33] as well as the powered actuation of swarms of AMB-1 with a
215 rotating magnetic field [42]. Information on immune response in these studies is limited, though
216 intratumoral injection of chains of magnetosomes coated with endotoxins has been shown to elicit
217 recruitment of immune cells to the tumor site and trigger cancer regression [43]. Previous studies have
218 also reported of the ability of magnetotactic bacteria to reproduce and form magnetite when cultured
219 at 37 degrees [41], a finding we independently corroborated by investigating AMB-1 proliferation and
220 viability over 48 hours at 37 °C (Figure S5). Furthermore, the intrinsic magneto-aerotactic capability of
221 MTB allows them to regulate their motility towards environments with low oxygen concentration as
222 well as react to externally applied magnetic fields [31,32]. Aerotaxis and anaerobic traits have also been

223 leveraged in other strains, such as *Salmonella*, enabling them to act as bacterial anti-cancer agents that
224 target necrotic tumor microenvironments with poor oxygen supply [44-46]. Overall, the intrinsic
225 abilities of AMB-1 to self-replicate, respond to magnetic fields, and secrete sustained doses of
226 siderophores warrants further study in the context of cancer therapy. By combining the benefits of
227 bacterial cancer therapy with the iron chelation and other traits of AMB-1, we envision that
228 magnetotactic bacteria could become a valid therapeutic agent to implement against cancer.
229

230 Our work motivates the use of living AMB-1 as self-replicating iron scavenging organisms actively
231 competing for this vital nutrient, with the possibility of compromising the survival of cancer cells.
232 Further application could include the use of tumor-targeting organisms both as a monotherapy and as
233 a combination therapy with established anti-neoplastic drugs to obtain optimal clinical outcomes.
234 Moreover, the unique characteristics of magnetotactic bacteria could be exploited to engineer iron-
235 scavenging strains of surrogate commensal and attenuated bacteria that have already been established
236 as anti-cancer agents [3,7]. This work lays the foundation for future investigations which combine iron
237 chelation with bacterial cancer therapy to enhance existing therapeutic strategies and open new
238 frontiers for combating cancer.
239

240

241 4. Materials and Methods

242

243 4.1. Bacterial strain and culture condition

244

245 *Magnetospirillum magneticum* AMB-1, a strain of magnetotactic bacteria, was purchased from ATCC
246 (ATCC, Manassas, Virginia, USA). AMB-1 bacteria were grown anaerobically at 30°C, passaged weekly
247 and cultured in liquid growth medium (ATCC medium: 1653 Revised Magnetic Spirillum Growth
248 Medium). *Magnetospirillum magneticum* Growth Media (MSGM) contained the following per liter: 5.0
249 mL Wolfe's mineral solution (ATCC, Manassas, Virginia, USA), 0.45 mL Resazurin, 0.68 g of
250 monopotassium phosphate, 0.12 g of sodium nitrate, 0.035 g of ascorbic acid, 0.37 g of tartaric acid, 0.37
251 g of succinic acid and 0.05 sodium acetate. The pH of the media was adjusted to 6.75 with sodium
252 hydroxide (NaOH) and then sterilized by autoclaving at 121°C. 10 mM ferric quinate (200x) Wolfe's
253 Vitamin Solution (100x) (ATCC, Manassas, Virginia, USA) were added to the culture media shortly
254 before use. The concentration of AMB-1 in solution was determined by optical density measurement
255 (Spark, Tecan, Männedorf, Switzerland) and the approximate number of bacteria was extrapolated
256 from a standard curve.
257

258 Start of *E. coli* cultures were achieved by picking single colonies from LB agar plates and subsequent
259 inoculation in liquid LB media. Pre-culture of bacteria were performed the day before the experiment
260 in liquid LB media over night at 37°C on a shaking device. On the day of the experiment, an
261 approximate number of *E. coli* in solution was then determined by optical density measurement (Spark,
262 Tecan, Männedorf, Switzerland),
263

264 4.2. CAS assay to assess siderophore quantification

265

266 *Magnetospirillum magneticum* AMB-1 were cultured in 1.7 mL phenol red-free DMEM (11054020,
267 Invitrogen, Carlsbad, California, USA) supplemented with GlutaMAX (35050061, Invitrogen, Carlsbad,
268 California, USA) in a sealed 1.5 mL Eppendorf tube at 37°C for 24 h. Fetal bovine serum (FBS, Biowest,
269 Nuaille, France) was excluded from the media and replaced with a known concentration of iron source;
270 25 µM holo-transferrin (T0665, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri, USA). Quantification of
271 siderophores produced by AMB-1 was performed using the Chrome Azurol S (CAS) assay (199532,
272 Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri, USA) [47]. 100 µL of each sample's supernatant was collected and
273 mixed with 100 µL CAS assay solution on a transparent 96-well plate. The assay was then incubated in

274 the dark at room temperature for 1 h before the absorbance was measured at 630 nm on a multimode
275 microplate reader (Spark, Tecan, Männedorf, Switzerland). The measurement was expressed in
276 siderophore production unit (s.p.u.), which was calculated as follows:
277

$$\text{Siderophore production unit (s.p.u.)} = (\text{OD}_{630,\text{ref}} - \text{OD}_{630}) / \text{OD}_{630,\text{ref}} \quad (1)$$

278
279 DMEM supplemented with different concentrations of deferoxamine mesylate salt (DFO, D9533,
280 Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri, USA) was prepared by serial dilution and used to generate a
281 calibration curve (Figure S1).
282

282

283 4.3. Analysis of human transferrin using SDS-PAGE Electrophoresis

284

285 AMB-1 bacteria (1×10^8 cells/mL) were cultured in 1.7 mL phenol red-free DMEM (11054020,
286 Invitrogen, Carlsbad, California, USA) in a sealed 1.5 mL Eppendorf tube at 30°C for 48 h. Excess
287 volume was used to ensure no or minimal air was trapped in the tubes. 25 μM holo-transferrin (holo-
288 Tf, T4132, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri, USA), or 25 μM apo-transferrin (apo-Tf, T2036, Sigma-
289 Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri, USA) respectively were added to the mammalian cell culture media.
290 Changes in transferrin molecular mass during the growth of AMB-1 were evaluated by sodium dodecyl
291 sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) analysis of culture supernatant.
292 Electrophoresis was conducted using the protocol described by Laemmli [48] and protein loading of
293 each sample was normalized to 2 μg . Proteins were visualized using SYPRO ruby protein stain
294 (1703126, Bio-rad, Hercules, California, USA). The electrophoresis chamber and the reagents were
295 purchased from Bio-rad. Stained gels were imaged using a fluorescent scanner (Sapphire Biomolecular
296 Imager, Azure Biosystems, Dublin, California, USA) at 488 nm excitation and 658 nm emission.
297

297

298 4.4. Mammalian cell culture

299

300 Human melanoma MDA-MB-435S cells (ATCC, Manassas, Virginia, USA) were cultured in high
301 glucose Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, California, USA)
302 supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Biowest, Nuaille, France) and 1% penicillin-
303 streptomycin (CellGro, Corning, New York, USA). All cells were incubated at 37°C in a humidified
304 atmosphere with 5% CO₂ at 37°C.
305

305

306 4.5. Co-culture of mammalian cancer cells with magnetotactic bacteria

307

308 Human melanoma MDA-MB-435 cells (1×10^5 cells) were cultured on 12-well plates and incubated in
309 a 5% CO₂ incubator at 37°C for 24 h. For microscopic analysis at high magnification (> 40x), a circular
310 cover slip was placed in each well prior to cell seeding. Following incubation, *Magnetospirillum*
311 *magneticum* AMB-1 ($1 \times 10^6 - 1 \times 10^8$ cells) were introduced into the wells. The well plate was stored in
312 a sealable bag and the bag was flushed with nitrogen for 15 min in order to produce hypoxic conditions.
313 The setup with the 12-well plate was then incubated at 37°C for 48 h. To serve as negative and positive
314 controls, 0, 10 μM and 25 μM of the iron-chelating agent deferoxamine mesylate (D9533, Sigma-Aldrich,
315 St. Louis, Missouri, USA) was added to the MDA-MB-435S cell culture in place of AMB-1 bacteria.
316

316

317 4.6. Immunofluorescence labelling of MDA-MB-435S cells

318

319 After the co-culture, cells were washed with ice cold 1X Dulbecco's Phosphate-Buffered Saline solution
320 (DPBS, Gibco, Carlsbad, California, USA) and then blocked with a 1% Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA,
321 Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri, USA) solution diluted in 1X DPBS. The cells were then incubated
322 with 10 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ primary anti-TfR1 antibody (ab84036, Abcam, Cambridge, UK) on ice in dark for one h.

323 Subsequently, the cells were washed with ice-cold DPBS and incubated with 20 µg/mL secondary goat
324 anti-rabbit antibody (ab150077, Abcam, Cambridge, UK) and 25 µg/mL Hoechst 33342 (H3570, Thermo
325 Fisher Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA) on ice in dark for another hour. Next, the cells were
326 washed with ice-cold 1X PBS twice and fixed with a 2% paraformaldehyde (PFA) solution. Fixed cells
327 were washed three times with 1X DPBS and the cover slips were mounted on glass slides and stored
328 overnight in dark at 4°C. A Nikon Eclipse Ti2 microscope equipped with a Yokogawa CSU-W1
329 Confocal Scanner Unit and Hamamatsu C13440-20CU ORCA Flash 4.0 V3 Digital CMOS camera were
330 used for visualization. Microscope operation and image acquisition was performed using Nikon NIS-
331 Elements Advanced Research 5.02 (Build 1266) software. ImageJ v2.0 (NIH) was used to process the
332 obtained images.

333

334 4.7. Evaluation of fluorescently labelled MDA-MB-435S cells by flow cytometry

335

336 Flow cytometry was used to measure the expression of fluorescently labelled TfR1 on the surface of
337 MDA-MB-435S cells. Cells were harvested at different timepoints during co-culture (0h, 6h, 12h, 24h)
338 and washed in cold 1X DPBS (Gibco Carlsbad, California, USA). Harvested cells were stained with
339 primary anti-TfR1 antibody (ab84036, Abcam, Cambridge, UK) at a concentration of 10 µg/mL. After 1
340 h of incubation on ice, cells were washed twice with 1X DPBS and then stained with 20 µg/mL
341 secondary goat anti-rabbit antibody (ab150077, Abcam, Cambridge, UK). Finally, cells were washed
342 twice with 1X DPBS and analyzed by flow cytometry with BD LSRFortessa (BD Biosciences, San Jose,
343 California, USA) using a 488nm excitation laser and 530/30 and 690/50 band pass emission filters for
344 detection. FlowJo™ (Tree Star) software was used to evaluate the data.

345

346 Flow cytometry was used to assess the cell membrane integrity of MDA-MB-435S cells. Cells were
347 harvested at different timepoints during co-culture (0h, 6h, 24h) and washed in cold 1X DPBS. Collected
348 cells were stained with 1 µg/mL Propidium Iodide (V13242, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham,
349 Massachusetts, USA) and incubated for 30 in a humidified atmosphere with 5% CO₂ at 37°C. Finally,
350 cells were washed twice with 1X DPBS and analyzed by flow cytometry with BD LSRFortessa (BD
351 Biosciences, San Jose, California, USA) using a 488nm excitation laser and 610/10 bandpass emission
352 filters for detection. FlowJo™ (Tree Star) software was used to evaluate data and graphs were plotted
353 using Prism 8.0 (GraphPad).

354

355 4.8. Investigation of cell viability using MTT assay

356

357 CyQUANT MTT Cell Viability Assay (V13154, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts,
358 USA) was used to measure the viability of human melanoma cells MDA-MB-435S and human breast
359 cancer cell lines MDA-MB-231. Cells were plated in 96 well culture plates (50000 cells/well) and
360 incubated in a 5% CO₂ incubator at 37°C for 24 h. Co-culture was then performed by adding AMB-1
361 bacteria at different ratios (10:1, 100:1, 1000:1) under hypoxic conditions, as described earlier. After 24
362 h of incubation, cells were washed 3x with cold DPBS (Gibco Carlsbad, California, USA) to remove the
363 bacteria. Next, 100µL of DMEM and 10µL of MTT stock solution (12 mM) were added to the wells and
364 cells were then incubated at 37°C for 4 hours. The media was removed, and Formazan crystals formed
365 by the cells were dissolved in 50 µL DMSO. The absorbance was measured at 540 nm using a multimode
366 microplate reader (Spark, Tecan, Männedorf, Switzerland). Background signal was subtracted from the
367 final values and data was first normalized to an untreated control and then plotted as a percentage of
368 the untreated cells.

369

370 4.9. Staining and quantification of AMB-1 bacteria

371

372 AMB-1 bacteria were incubated in phenol red-free DMEM (21063-029, Gibco Carlsbad, California, USA)
373 at 37°C and analyzed at different intervals (Day 0, Day 1, and Day 2). At each timepoint bacteria were

374 collected, stained using BacLight viability Kit (L7007, BacLight Bacterial Viability Kit, Thermo Fisher
375 Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA), and incubated in the dark for 15 min. Visualization and
376 image acquisition was performed using confocal microscopy (Nikon Eclipse Ti2). ImageJ v2.0 (NIH)
377 was used to process the obtained images. Quantification of bacteria was performed using a particle
378 counting system, Multisizer 4e Coulter Counter (Beckman Coulter, Brea, California, USA).

379

380 4.10. Statistics and data analysis

381

382 All graphs and statistical analyses were generated using Prism 8.0 (GraphPad). Statistical significance
383 and number of replicates of the experiments are described in each figure and figure legend. Error bars,
384 where present, indicate the standard error of the mean (SD). P values are categorized as * P<0.05, **
385 P<0.01, and *** P<0.001.

386

387 **Author contributions:** SS and PSH conceived and designed the experiments. PSH and SM collected and analyzed
388 data. SM wrote the manuscript. TG assisted the authors and contributed to the paper revisions. SS supervised the
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390

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401

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403

404 Abbreviations

405 Tf	Transferrin
406 TfR1	Transferrin receptor 1
407 MTB	Magnetotactic bacteria
408 DFO	Deferoxamine
409 DMEM	Dulbecco’s Modified Eagle’s medium

410

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