Clinically Relevant Pathogens on Surfaces Display Differences in Survival and

Transcriptomic Response in Relation to Probiotic and Traditional Cleaning Strategies

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Abstract

Indoor surfaces are paradoxically presumed to be both colonized by pathogens, necessitating disinfection, and "microbial wastelands." In these resource-poor, dry environments, competition and decay are thought to be important drivers of microbial community composition. However, the relative contributions of these two processes have not been specifically evaluated. To bridge this knowledge gap, we used microcosms to specifically evaluate whether interspecies interactions occur on surfaces. We combined transcriptomics and traditional microbiology techniques to investigate whether competition occurred between two clinically important pathogens, *Acinetobacter baumannii* and *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, and a probiotic cleaner containing a consortium of *Bacillus* species. Probiotic cleaning seeks to take advantage of ecological principles such as competitive exclusion, thus using benign microorganisms to inhibit viable pathogens, but there is limited evidence that competitive exclusion in fact occurs in environments of interest (i.e., indoor surfaces). Our results indicate that competition in this setting has a negligible impact on community composition but may influence the functions

expressed by active organisms. Although *Bacillus* spp. remained viable on surfaces for an

extended period of time after application, viable colony forming units (CFUs) of *A. baumannii*

recovered following exposure to a chemical-based detergent with and without *Bacillus* spp.

showed no statistical difference. Similarly, for *K. pneumoniae*, there were small statistical

differences in CFUs between cleaning scenarios with or without *Bacillus* spp. in the chemical-

based detergent. The transcriptome of *A. baumannii* with and without *Bacillus* spp. exposure

shared a high degree of similarity in overall gene expression, but the transcriptome of *K.*

pneumoniae differed in overall gene expression, including reduced response in genes related to

antimicrobial resistance. Together, these results highlight the need to fully understand the

underlying biological and ecological mechanisms for community assembly and function on

indoor surfaces, as well as having practical implications for cleaning and disinfection strategies

for infection prevention.

Keywords: inter-species interactions; *Bacillus*; *Acinetobacter baumannii*; *Klebsiella pneumoniae*;

transcriptomic response; indoor surface cleaning; infection prevention

1. Introduction

Indoor surfaces harbor pathogens and mediate the transmission of infectious disease. At the same time, these environments have been called a "microbial wasteland" where microbes are "dead, dying, or dormant." Following this model, surface-associated microbial communities are almost entirely driven by the opposing forces of dispersal and death. Surface cleaning and disinfection practices seek to promote microbial cell death, thereby preventing infection, especially in healthcare settings. While cleaning using antimicrobials can effectively reduce microbial load on contaminated surfaces in health care facilities[1], evidence of their effects on preventing disease transmission and reducing healthcare-acquired infections remain limited[2]. Moreover, because antimicrobials can cause both acute and chronic health impacts[3] and lead to antimicrobial resistance[4–6], there is a strong drive to develop alternative cleaning strategies.

Probiotic cleaning seeks to take advantage of competitive exclusion and other ecological principles to inhibit viable pathogens on surfaces[4,7]. Members of *Bacillus*, *Bifidobacterium*, *Lactobacillus*, *Rhodopseudomonas*, and *Saccharomyces* are the most frequently used microorganisms in these microbial based cleaning products[8]. While probiotic organisms may persist on surfaces, competitive exclusion is not compatible with the "wasteland" model, which stipulates no growth or metabolic activity. Previous studies of probiotic cleaners have shown that probiotic cleaning decreases the recovery of cultivable bacterial pathogens[9,7], and even inactivates viruses[10]. Competitive exclusion is an unlikely mechanism of action against viruses, but even for bacteria there is limited direct evidence documenting competitive exclusion[11]. Rather, culture-based results support the hypothesis that probiotic *Bacillus* outcompete

pathogens in some environmental conditions but are in fact out-competed by resident organisms

when the latter are present in biofilms[11]. Moreover, there is a dearth of molecular evidence

supporting whether surviving probiotic organisms and healthcare-associated pathogens are

engaged in activities such as nutrient scavenging, stress response, or microbe-microbe

interactions[11]. To this end, studying gene expression levels instead of cultivable colonies or gene

presence in both pathogens and probiotic microorganisms is necessary to unravel the

mechanisms of probiotic cleaning. Transcriptomics allows quantitative determination of changes

in regulation of genes and pathways of the microorganisms upon application of probiotic

cleaners under different conditions, revealing changes in function and metabolic activity. Despite

these advantages, the application of transcriptomics in indoor surface microbiome studies has

been sparse[12]. Current indoor surface microbiome studies only focus on taxonomic profiling and

functional potentials that recovered from (meta)genomics analysis where the importance of gene

expression levels is overlooked or yet to be addressed[13][14]. Transcriptomics analysis from this

study can provide insights on the response of pathogens to tested cleaning scenarios on indoor

surfaces.

Acinetobacter baumannii and *Klebsiella pneumoniae* have been recognized as a major source of

healthcare-associated infections associated with high morbidity and mortality rates due to their

resistance to many antibiotics including carbapenems[15][16]. These organisms not only persist on

surfaces for up to several months[17] but are commonly found in healthcare environments,

especially in low- and middle-income countries. *K. pneumoniae* have been found on surfaces in

hospitals in Brazil[16][15], Tunisia[17], Russia[18], China[19] and Ghana[20] *A. baumannii* was found on

surfaces in hospitals in Brazil[21], Turkey[21], Saudi Arabia[22] and on the surfaces of medical devices

in Iran[23]. It was also found on surfaces in buildings surrounding hospitals in the US[24]. Both *A.*

baumannii and *K. pneumoniae* were found on surfaces in neonatal intensive care units in Egypt[25]

and hospitals in Algeria[26]. While these organisms likely reach surfaces via dispersion from

human occupants, they can also be transferred back to humans, particularly the very vulnerable.

K. pneumoniae persists in neonatal intensive care units and transfers to neonates' gut[27,28] and

possibly also the nares[29]. A high degree of relatedness has been observed between genotypes of

A. baumannii from patients and their surrounding rooms[30], and bidirectional transfer of *A.*

baumannii between the environment and adult patients has also been observed[31]. Notably in this

last study, *A. baumannii* then persisted in the environment despite terminal disinfection[31]. More

concerning than individual transfer events or colonization, surface-associated organisms can

cause or exacerbate outbreaks within a hospital. For example, surface-associated *K. pneumoniae*

was associated with an outbreak in Vietnam[32], and *A. baumannii* on bed railings was associated

with an outbreak in Saudi Arabia[33].

To understand how these organisms survive on surfaces, sometimes in defiance of cleaning

efforts, we sought to observe changes in gene expression in *A. baumannii* and *K. pneumoniae* on

surfaces with and without cleaning. Sequencing of low biomass samples collected from the built

environment often suffers from a low signal-to-noise ratio[34]. To obtain a fundamental

mechanistic understanding of indoor cleaning strategies and their impacts on microbial survival

and interactions, we utilized microcosm chambers containing stainless steel sheets to simulate a

simplified built environment with greater than usual microbial load. Because antimicrobial

resistance and hospital-acquired infections disproportionately affect low- and middle-income

countries, many of which are located in tropical climates, we also evaluated the effects of

elevated temperature and relative humidity (RH). To evaluate general ecological phenomena,

and particularly competitive exclusion, governing survival in mixed communities, we further

exposed these organisms to a probiotic cleaner containing several strains of *Bacillus*.

2. Materials and Method

2.1. Microcosm set-up

A commercially available All-Purpose Probiotic Cleaner (referred to as probiotic cleaner herein)

was obtained from Graz, Austria. Clinical isolates of *A. baumannii* (ABBL18) and *K.*

pneumoniae (CRE231) were provided by Dr. Alan Hauser, Northwestern University Feinberg

School of Medicine. To simulate a typical high-touch surface in a healthcare environment, 24G

stainless steel sheets were cut into 2"x2" squares. *A. baumannii* and *K. pneumonia*e isolates were

grown in 40 mL tryptic soy broth (TSB) for 23 hours at 30°C with continuous shaking to its mid

log phase. The probiotic cleaner was filtered through a 0.22 μm syringe filter to create an

Cleaner Only control without probiotic materials. Sterility of the Cleaner Only control was

assessed by plating on tryptic soy agar (TSA). *Bacillus* spp. were germinated by mixing 0.1%

probiotic cleaner with TSB for use as a model Germinated *Bacillus* control where cells were

vegetative. This culture was incubated at 25°C for 23 hours with continuous shaking. Cells

(*Bacillus* spp., *A. baumannii* and *K. pneumoniae*) were harvested and washed in phosphate-

buffered saline (PBS) before inoculation. A total of six testing scenarios for each pathogen

(twelve groups in total) were specified as shown in Table 1:

Table 1. Testing scenarios and their experimental group names for each pathogen (i.e.,

A. baumannii and *K. pneumoniae)* consisting of four cleaning conditions, and two

temperature and humidity conditions. Cleaning conditions include probiotic-containing

and probiotic-free All-Purpose Probiotic Cleaner solutions, vegetative *Bacillus* spp. as a

model probiotic, and a no cleaning (i.e., pathogen alone) control. Ambient and elevated

temperature and relative humidity (referred to as Ambient and Humid respectively)

conditions were assessed as environmental variables. N/A means the scenario was not

tested.

Cleaning Scenarios	Temperature and humidity conditions	
	25°C and 20% RH	37°C and 90% RH
Pathogen only	No Cleaner (Ambient)	No Cleaner (Humid)
Pathogen + filtered probiotic cleaner	Cleaner Only	N/A
Pathogen + probiotic cleaner	Probiotic Cleaner (Ambient)	Probiotic Cleaner (Humid)
Pathogen + germinated *Bacillus*	Germinated *Bacillus*	N/A

Each 2"x2" stainless steel surface was first inoculated with 50 μL *A. baumannii* (corresponding

to 8.5×10^7 CFU) or 50 μL *K. pneumoniae* (corresponding to 1.0×10^8 CFU). 50 μL sterilized PBS

buffer, filtered probiotic cleaner, probiotic cleaner, or vegetative *Bacillus* spp. inoculum was

added to create No Cleaner control samples (*A. baumannii* or *K. pneumoniae* only), Cleaner

Only groups (chemical cleaning samples), Probiotic Cleaner groups (probiotic cleaning samples),

or Germinated *Bacillus* groups (vegetative cleaning samples), respectively. Following the

introduction of bacterial inoculum, all surfaces were transferred into autoclaved mason jars

(referred to as microcosm chambers) under two treatment conditions: 1) ambient temperature

(25°C) and relative humidity (20%), and 2) elevated temperature (37°C) and relative humidity

(>90%) with 10 mL of autoclaved milliQ water as in[13]. The relative humidity was measured

using Fisherbrand™ Traceable™ Humidity-On-A-Card™ Humidity Monitor (Waltham, MA,

USA). Each microcosm chamber contained one surface sample. All microcosm chambers were

stored in incubators maintained at 25°C or 37°C. Samples were sacrificed and biomass recovered

by swabbing at three specific timepoints: 3 hours, 24 hours, and 72 hours following the

inoculation and cleaning. Triplicate samples were prepared for each combination of cleaning,

timepoint, and incubation conditions (Figure 1).

Figure 1. General overview of the biological question (A). Microcosm experimental

design (B) with four types of inocula containing pathogen (*A. baumannii* or *K.*

pneumoniae) and *Bacillus* spp. and sealed sterile microcosm chamber maintained

under ambient temperature and relative humidity (C). The elevated temperature and

humidity condition was maintained by adding 10 mL of sterilized miliQ water into the

sealed chamber.

2.2. Swab sample collection

Swab samples were collected through a combination of dry and wet swabbing as performed

previously[13]. Each surface was first dry swabbed from left to right for seven times and the swab

was swirled into an aliquoted PBS buffer or RNAprotect Bacteria Reagent (Qiagen), for colony

forming units (CFUs) enumeration and RNA extraction, respectively. Surfaces were then wet

swabbed for a total of 20 s, including 5 seconds of rinse and rewet. Finally, the swabs were left

in 15 mL conical tubes and vortexed for 10 seconds. For total enumeration, 100 μL swab

suspension along with its dilutions were spread onto TSA. Additionally, the same volume of

swab suspension and dilutions were spread onto CHROM *A. baumannii* selective agar or on

MacConkey agar (as *K. pneumoniae* selective media[35]). Under the circumstances where *Bacillus*

were introduced through Probiotic Cleaner and Germinated *Bacillus* cleaning, total CFUs were

quantified using TSA. All plates were incubated at 37°C. Numbers of CFUs were counted after

three days.

2.3. *DNA extraction, sequencing, and construction of reference genomes*

To obtain draft genomes for RNA read mapping, 5 mL *A. baumannii* or *K. pneumoniae* and 15

mL *Bacillus* spp. DNA was extracted using the DNeasy PowerSoil Pro Kit (Qiagen) following

the manufacturer's instructions. DNA samples were submitted to the Microbial Genome

Sequencing Center (MiGS) for library construction and short-read sequencing on an Illumina

platform. KneadData v0.7.10 (https://bitbucket.org/biobakery/kneaddata/) was then used for raw

sequence quality control and contaminant removal with default parameters. Short reads were

assembled into contigs using SPAdes v3.14.1[36] and each reference genome was annotated using

Prokka v1.14.6[37]. Additional annotation of antibiotic and antimicrobial resistance genes were

conducted using the Comprehensive Antibiotic Resistance Database (CARD)[38]. Assembled

contigs from All Purpose Probiotic Cleaner were also binned into five metagenome-assembled

genomes (MAGs) using metaWRAP[39]. CheckM[40] was used to assess the quality of microbial

genomes. Taxonomic classification of each draft genome was determined by GTDB-Tk[41].

2.4. RNA Extraction, Sequencing, and Data Processing

Swab samples were stored in RNAprotect Bacteria Reagent under -80°C until extraction. RNA

was extracted using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen) following its recommended "Protocol 2:

Enzymatic lysis and mechanical disruption of bacteria", consisting of a 10 min treatment with 15

mg/mL lysozyme and 10 min beadbeating. Libraries were constructed at Northwestern NUSeq

using the Illumina Total RNA Prep with Ribo-Zero Plus, according to manufacturers' protocol. A

total of 110 samples (108 samples collected at various time points and cleaning scenarios, one kit

control, and one sample prepared for between-batch normalization) were sequenced using an

Illumina HiSeq4000 with 50 bp single end reads.

Reference genomes constructed from whole genome sequencing were used for RNA mapping.

Raw sequence files were processed using trim_galore v0.6.6

(https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/trim_galore/) and Kneaddata v0.7.10

(https://bitbucket.org/biobakery/kneaddata/) to remove sequence adapters, low quality reads, and

contaminants. Sortmerna v4.2.0[42] was used to filter rRNA reads against the silva-bac-16s-id90

and silva-bac-23s-id98 databases. HISAT2 v2.1.0[43] was used to build local indices and map

short reads onto reference draft genomes. Transcript abundances were quantified using

featureCounts v2.0.1[44]. Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were identified by DESeq2[45] at a

significance level of 0.05 (Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-value). BlastKOALA (KEGG

Orthology And Links Annotation) was used for K number assignment followed by Prokka

annotation[46]. KEGG pathway enrichment analysis was further conducted using ClusterProfiler[47].

Statistical analysis, including Welch's paired two sample *t*-test, principal component analysis

(PCA), and permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA, 9,999

permutations) were conducted in R (version 4.1.2, 2021-11-01).

3.   ***Results and Discussion***

3.1. *Survival of* A. baumannii *and* K. pneumoniae *under four cleaning scenarios and two*

temperature/humidity conditions

We quantified the CFUs of *A. baumannii* and *K. pneumoniae* to examine their survival under

ambient and humid conditions in combination with four cleaning strategies as listed in Table 1.

Over the course of 3 days, we observed a maximum $\log_{10}$ reduction of 8.75 for *A. baumannii*

(Cleaner Only and Probiotic Cleaner under ambient condition) and 7.42 for *K. pneumoniae* (No

Cleaner, Cleaner Only and Probiotic Cleaner groups). Under ambient conditions, both Cleaner

Only and Probiotic Cleaner demonstrated a near-complete inactivation of *A. baumannii* within

72 hours (<LOD) and complete inactivation for *K. pneumoniae*. Although the survival of *A.*

baumannii between Probiotic Cleaner and Cleaner Only are not statistically significant (p>0.05,

Figure S1), Probiotic Cleaner cleaning at 24 hours showed 1.43 greater $\log_{10}$ reduction compared

to Cleaner Only (Figure 2A). As there was no significant difference between probiotic cleaning

and cleaner only, the reduction of *A. baumannii* was largely attributed to the chemical

component of the cleaning product. Differences in the survival of *K. pneumoniae* between

Probiotic Cleaner, Cleaner Only and No Cleaning scenarios was not statistically significant

(p>0.05, Figure S1), with only 0.77 greater $\log_{10}$ reduction in Probiotic Cleaner compared to

Cleaner Only at 24 hours. The fact that *K. pneumoniae* was unable to persist on the surface in No

Cleaner group under ambient conditions indicated that chemical components in the cleaning

product only had marginal contribution to *K. pneumoniae* inactivation.

Surfaces cleaned with Probiotic Cleaner were also gradually dominated by *Bacillus* spp. due to

the decreasing absolute abundance of the pathogen population. This persistence of *Bacillus* spp.

on surfaces was observed under both ambient and elevated humidity and temperature (Figure 2).

In contrast, the germinated *Bacillus* spp. spores introduced as vegetative cells were gradually

taken over by the *A. baumannii* population; for *K. pneumoniae* Germinated Probiotic group the

cleaned surface was still dominated by *Bacillus* spp. over *K. pneumoniae* (Figure 2A). Without

the use of chemical-based surface cleaner (No Cleaner and Germinated *Bacillus*), *A. baumannii*

showed comparable CFUs at all time points ($p > 0.05$).

Throughout the experiments, the minimum $\log_{10}$ reduction was observed under elevated

temperature and humidity for both *A. baumannii* and *K. pneumoniae*. Their survival over time

improved under elevated temperature and humidity with or without probiotic cleaner (Figure 2)

although *A. baumannii* exhibited higher viable populations (p<0.01, Figure S1A) while *K.*

pneumoniae showed low or no significance (Figure S1B) when comparing No Cleaner (Humid)

to No Cleaner (Ambient) (paired *t*-test was performed for all time points). Higher viability of

bacteria is observed under higher RH, which is related to the stress caused by concentrating of

solute and desiccation as droplets dry out[48]. Genes *csrA* which is related to carbon storage and

bfmR (*rstA*) which is related to stress response play a major role in desiccation tolerance in *A.*

baumannii [49,50]. Both genes were downregulated under humid condition in *A. baumannii* No

Cleaner groups compared to ambient condition, and *csrA* gene was also downregulated under

humid condition in *K. pneumoniae* Probiotic Cleaner group compared to ambient condition ($\log_2$

fold change value < -1, adjusted p-value < 0.05, data not shown). This result suggests greater

potential health risks and infectious disease burdens in developing regions with a humid and hot

climate and limited climate control[51].

Figure 2. Colony forming units (CFU) of pathogens and composition of surface microbial community under four cleaning scenarios and two temperature and humidity conditions. CFUs of pathogens were counted on day 3 of incubation (37°C) on their selective media while total CFUs (pathogen and *Bacillus* spp.) were obtained from TSA. The proportions of *A. baumannii* and *K. pneumoiae* were calculated as the ratio between CFU from their selective media and CFU from TSA. The proportion of *Bacillus* spp. was calculated as $1 - \frac{CFU(CHROM\ or\ MacConkey)}{CFU(TSA)}$. Dashed lines represent a limit of detection (LOD) of 10 CFU.

* Due to possible technical variation, the proportion of *A. baumannii* exceeded 1 at T24 for *A. baumannii* Germinated *Bacillus* scenario.

3.2. Overview of whole genome sequencing and metatranscriptomic data

Sequencing of the *A. baumannii* isolate generated 3.72 million reads with an average read length

of 136 bp. Reads were assembled into contigs with a N50 of 141,238 bp. Sequencing of *K.*

pneumoniae generated 4.4 million reads with an average rate of 145 bp. Reads were assembled

into contigs with a N50 of 113,698 bp. Sequencing of the All-Purpose Probiotic Cleaner resulted

in 16.49 million reads with an average read length of 139 bp, after quality trimming and

contaminant removal. Reads were assembled into contigs with a N50 of 143,313 bp. Open

reading frame (ORF) identification recognized 4,039, 5,823, and 22,429 coding regions for *A.*

baumannii, *K. pneumoniae,* and probiotic cleaner, respectively, 2,253, 4052, and 13,339 of

which were functionally annotated (not as "hypothetical protein"). Among these annotated

regions for *A. baumannii, K. pneumoniae,* and probiotic cleaner assemblies, 2,150, 3,675, and

11,594 were classified into one or more KEGG Orthologs respectively. Contigs from probiotic

cleaner reads were binned into five groups with completeness > 90%, and contamination < 5%.

All five bins were classified as *Bacillus* species as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. *Bacillus* genome binning and taxonomic assignment. Completeness and

contamination statistics were determined using the CheckM algorithm.

Bin	Completeness (%)	Contamination (%)	GC (%)	Size (Mbp)	Taxonomic Classification
1	90.58	1.883	0.351	4.74	*Bacillus cereus*

2	96.43	1.489	0.466	3.60	*Bacillus velezensis*
3	99.11	0.148	0.436	4.11	*Bacillus subtilis*
4	98.21	0.087	0.461	4.28	*Bacillus licheniformis*
5	99.08	0.207	0.416	3.57	*Bacillus safensis*

RNA samples containing *A. baumannii* or *K. pneumoniae* were collected for up to 72 hours of

surface inoculation. Biological triplicates were collected for each condition and an average of

12.73 ± 3.83 and 11.03 ± 4.98 million reads with an average read length of 49 bp were recovered

for *A. baumannii* and *K. pneumoniae* experiments, respectively, after removing low-quality

reads, contaminated sequences, adapters, and rRNA. The average mapping rate using HISAT2

was 98.20% ± 1.06% for experiments with *A. baumannii* and 96.40% ± 10.24% for experiments

with *K. pneumoniae* (Figure S2). Percentages of reads mapped onto *A. baumannii* and *Bacillus*

genomes vary across four cleaning scenarios; Germinated *Bacillus* samples containing vegetative

Bacillus spp. on average had 40.53% ± 6.07% reads mapped onto *Bacillus* reference genomes,

whereas this number for Probiotic Cleaner samples was only 0.56% ± 0.75%. A similar trend

was observed in experiments with *K. pneumoniae*. Samples containing *K. pneumoniae* and

vegetative *Bacillus* spp. on average had 40.52% ±16.83% reads mapped onto *Bacillus* reference

genomes; however, this number was only 1.00 ±1.08% for Probiotic Cleaner samples. Thus,

these data suggest that the majority of *Bacillus* spp. in the probiotic product likely remained as

spores throughout the incubation. Due to this insufficient coverage of *Bacillus* transcriptome in

Probiotic Cleaner samples, our transcriptomic analysis is composed of quantitative comparisons

for the *A. baumannii* and *K. pneumoniae* transcriptomes and qualitative evaluations for *Bacillus*

spp.

3.3. *Transcriptomes of* A. baumannii *and* K. pneumoniae *clustered into distinct groups*

determined by cleaning and physical conditions

Prior to conducting principal component analysis (PCA), read count data were transformed to

remove the dependence of the variance on the mean. PCA of the transformed (variance

stabilization) read counts belonging to *A. baumannii* indicated that the expression of *A.*

baumannii clustered into three distinct groups based on cleaning scenarios and physical

conditions (Figure 3A). Clustering of read counts from *K. pneumoniae* is more distinct for

different time points and physical conditions (Figure S2) compared to cleaning scenarios and

physical conditions (Figure 3C). PERMANOVA (9,999 permutations) revealed that temperature

and humidity ($p<0.001$), cleaning ($p<0.001$), and time ($p<0.001$) explained 12%, 30%, and 9%

of the variance for *A. baumannii* read counts, and 29%, 10%, and 12% for *K. pneumoniae* read

counts, respectively. Gene expression profiles of *A. baumannii* with detergent cleaning (Probiotic

Cleaner and Cleaner Only) are more similar to each other than they were to those without

detergent (Germinated *Bacillus*). Temperature and humidity conditions also affected the

expression of *A. baumannii* under the no-cleaning condition, but this impact was minimal when

probiotic cleaner was used. On the contrary, the temperature and humidity strongly affected the

gene expression profiles of *K. pneumoniae*, and the impact was more pronounced as the cleaning

time extended from 3 hours to 24 and 72 hours.

Using No Cleaner samples as the reference transcriptome, genes with absolute $\log_2$ fold change

values greater than or equal to 1 as calculated by DESeq2 were considered as differentially

expressed genes (DEGs, Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05). 414, 522, and 634 genes

of *A. baumannii* and 578, 145, and 57 genes of *K. pneumoniae* were found to be differentially

expressed in Cleaner Only, Probiotic Cleaner, and Germinated *Bacillus* samples, respectively.

The transcriptome of *A. baumannii* treated by probiotic cleaner and cleaner only shared the

highest level of similarity and consequently, the smallest number of differentially expressed

genes (Probiotic Cleaner *vs* Cleaner Only, Figure 3B). In the case of *K. pneumoniae*, Germinated

Bacillus samples were the most similar to No Cleaner samples. Consistent with previous PCA

analysis, expression of *A. baumannii* under ambient and elevated temperature and humidity

conditions are drastically different from each other (1298 DEGs, Figure 3B) whereas this

difference in transcriptome diminished when probiotic cleaner was used (133 DEGs). The high

impact of elevated temperature and humidity persisted for *K. pneumoniae* even when probiotic

cleaner was applied (1828 and 1838 DEGs with or without probiotic cleaner, Figure 3D). Since

the transcriptome of *K. pneumoniae* under Probiotic Cleaner scenario was fairly similar to the No

Cleaner scenario, their similar response to elevated temperature and humidity could be expected.

Samples collected at various time points throughout the microcosm inoculation also showed that

much of the temporal variation in gene expression occurred within 24 hours of surface cleaning

for *A. baumannii* (Figure 3B), *K. pneumoniae* (Figure 3D), and vegetative *Bacillus* (Figure S4),

as the number of DEGs of the 72-hour *vs*. 24-hour comparison is much lower compared to 24-

hour *vs*. 3-hour and 72-hour *vs*. 3-hour comparisons. During the experiment, we typically

observed drying out of the bacterial liquid culture droplets within 24 hours. This result is

consistent with study by Lin and Marr[52] on bacteria viability where bacteria inactivation rate is

higher in evaporating droplets compared to when droplets are dried out. Based on the

observation, cleaning protocols and environmental conditions should be considered for effective

disinfection in addition to cleaning reagent types.

Figure 3. Principal component analysis on variance stabilized *A. baumannii* (A) and *K. pneumoniae* (C) read counts and

number of differentially expressed genes of 11 pairwise comparisons for *A. baumannii* (B) and *K. pneumoniae* (D)

experiments. Samples were color-coded based on cleaning conditions; each point (dot or triangle) represents its

corresponding temperature and humidity condition.

3.4. KEGG pathway enrichment profiles revealed different metabolic response under different

cleaning scenarios

Enriched transcriptomic signatures varied greatly across cleaning conditions and between the

tested pathogens, *A. baumannii* and *K. pneumoniae*. Overall, the *K. pneumoniae* transcriptome

responded with greater heterogeneity to treatment than the *A. baumannii* transcriptome, as

evidenced by their distinct patterns of treatment-specific enrichment (Fig. 4A and 4D top

portion; e.g., *A. baumannii* with Germinated Probiotic). These phenomena support the hypothesis

that the *A. baumannii* genome encodes survival mechanisms for persistence in replete

environments, while *K. pneumoniae*, although capable of short-term response, may be less

equipped for long term survival on nutrient poor surfaces.

The *A. baumannii* transcriptome shifted under treatment conditions and 26 KEGG pathways

broadly related to metabolism, energy production, translation, and membrane transport were

enriched. Significant enrichment of translation machinery under Germinated Probiotic treatment,

suggests that protein synthesis in *A. baumannii* was likely promoted to achieve a large demand

for surface competitions. On the other hand, three pathways were positively enriched in samples

with chemical-based detergent cleaning, indicating that the *A. baumannii* population overall

repressed metabolic activities and adaptively reduced synthesis in response to environment

constraints associated with detergent cleaning (Figure 4A). As *A. baumannii* is notoriously

associated with the hospital environment[53], it stands to reason that it may remain constitutively

competent to respond to such replete environments and have acquired additional adaptive traits

to quickly acclimate when additional stressors, e.g., chemical cleaners, common in the hospital

environment arise.

In contrast, *K. pneumoniae* responded with far greater heterogeneity at the transcript level.

Carbon metabolism genes in *K. pneumoniae* were mutually upregulated in every cleaning

condition; however, specific carbon metabolism pathways were induced in a treatment-

dependent manner. For instance, TCA cycle, pyruvate, starch and sucrose metabolism genes

were upregulated by treatment with germinated *Bacillus* or cleaner only but not in samples

treated with probiotic cleaner. This suggests that vegetative *Bacillus* and cleaning products

induce alternative though overlapping carbon metabolism networks in *K. pneumoniae*. Indeed,

increased expression of biosynthetic pathways (glyoxylate cycle, carbon fixation) suggests

vegetative *Bacillus* may promote anabolic competency in *K. pneumoniae*. Perhaps this broad

range of metabolic activity is the result of slight alterations in the *K. pneumoniae* panic response,

as the population tries to survive in a "hostile" environment, unlike that of its native host.

While fewer pathways (11) were uniquely enriched in response to germinated *Bacillus,* every

treatment stimulated some unique pathway upregulation in *K. pneumoniae,* unlike the uniform

pattern observed in *A. baumannii* (Fig 4D). Genes involved in two-component systems and

membrane transport (ABC) were upregulated in samples treated with probiotic cleaner or cleaner

only but not in samples containing vegetative *Bacillus*, indicating that chemical detergents, rather

than *Bacillus*, induce environmental sensing and response mechanisms in *K. pneumoniae*.

Surprisingly, no pathways were mutually and specifically enriched by vegetative *Bacillus* or

probiotic cleaner, which may be influenced by the diminished transcriptional landscape of

Bacillus spores (Figure S2). Alternatively, the divergent transcriptomic profiles induced by each

cleaning condition indicates that *K. pneumoniae*'s strategy for surviving on surface environments

vastly differs from *A. baumanii* and further suggests that the *A. baumanii* response system to

built environment surfaces may be more robust than *K. pneumoniae*'s. Indeed, evolutionary

studies modelling extended resource exhaustion in *Escherichia coli* have shown that while stress

responses dominate in the short-term, in the long-term, genetically-encoded adaptations to

replete environments sweep the population via clonal expansion[54][55]. One could thus hypothesize

the dissimilar fitness levels and phenotypic responses (e.g., enrichment patterns) of *K.*

pneumoniae[56] and *A. baumanii* in this study may be the results of their unique evolutionary

history and ecological niches.

Cleaning products may represent a source of nutrients in an otherwise replete environment. Both

A. baumannii and *K. pneumoniae* exhibited increased transcription of genes related to

metabolism, although not the same pathways and not under all conditions. Our results suggest

that vegetative *Bacillus* survive poorly on surfaces and become a source of nutrients to more

resilient *A. baumannii*. *K. pneumoniae* enhances transcription of various metabolic pathways, but

none of the responses enhance its survival. The specific metabolic activity of organisms on

surfaces is highly dependent on both the organism and the resource availability.

3.5. Different cleaning scenarios induced differential expression of genes associated with stress

response and competition

We examined gene expression of important interspecies competition pathways to understand the

potential interactions between probiotic bacteria *Bacillus* spp. and pathogens *A. baumannii* or *K.*

pneumoniae. The two pathogens responded differently toward cleaning scenarios where *A.*

baumannii exhibited more pronounced differential gene expression compared to *K. pneumoniae*.

Iron acquisition through siderophores is believed to be one of the key mechanisms of inter-

species competitive exclusion[57]. Differential expression of the siderophore and iron acquisition

genes indicated that siderophore cheating is unlikely to happen under our studied conditions. In

A. baumannii experiments, several genes responsible for siderophore synthesis, export, and

reception (e.g., aerobactin, anguibactin, and enterobactin) were downregulated in the Germinated

Probiotic group (Figure S5A). Although bacteria with multiple siderophore receptors can gain

competitive advantages in social competition through siderophore cheating[58], the downregulation

of siderophore-related genes in these samples was likely due to utilization of iron originating

from lysed cell debris, especially from *Bacillus* spp., rather than active competition through

siderophore cheating, given the inability of vegetative *Bacillus* spp. to persist on surfaces (Figure

2A). For *K. pneumoniae* experiments, no siderophore-related gene was differentially expressed

under the three cleaning scenarios (Figure S6A, *iutA*, *fepA*, and *fepC* $\log_2$ fold change absolute

values < 1). Gene expression levels of *Bacillus* spp. (Figure S7) further precluded siderophore

cheating as the competing mechanism on surface as genes related to the synthesis, and export of

Acinetobacter- and *Klebsiella*-associated siderophores (e.g., aerobactin, anguibactin, and

enterobactin) were only occasionally expressed (Figure S7).

In addition to iron acquisition, genes related to Type VI Secretion Systems (T6SS), Type IV or

Type 1 Pili, and biofilm formation were shown to have important implications in inter-species

competition, virulence expression, and starvation response in *A. baumannii* or *K. pneumoniae*

[57,59,60]. In *A. baumannii* experiments, genes associated with T6SS, Type IV Pili, poly-beta-1,6-N-

acetyl-D-glucosamine (PGA) production and biofim formation were upregulated in Probiotic

Cleaner, Cleaner Only, and Germinated Probiotic samples with varying statistical significance

(Figure S5). The *pgaABCD* operons, which had increased expression in Germinated Probiotic

group, play roles in surface binding and maintaining biofilm structure stability[61,62]. This result

suggested greater potential for PGA, a biofilm adhesin polysaccharide[61,62], production and

subsequent biofilm activities when *A. baumannii* and *Bacillus* spp. co-existed. In contrast, *K.*

pneumoniae exhibited negligible differences in expression levels for genes related to T6SS and

Type 1 Pili had under different cleaning scenarios for (Figure S6BD). Additionally, only a few

biofilm formation related genes were differentially expressed (Figure S7C). Lack of shared

differentially expressed genes across cleaning scenarios indicated nonspecific response of *K.*

pneumoniae biofilm formation towards different stressors.

Similar to what was observed for KEGG pathways, antibiotic resistance gene expression of

probiotic cleaner and cleaner only treated *A. baumannii* exhibited high similarity (Figure 4B)

while *K. pneumoniae* responded very differently to probiotic cleaner and clear only treatments

(Figure 4E) in. In the Germinated Probiotic groups, we observed an increased expression of

abaF, a gene encoding fosfomycin resistance, in *A. baumannii* while no antibiotic resistance

gene was upregulated ($\log_2$ fold change $\geq$ 1) in *K. pneumoniae*. Interestingly, no genetic

determinants of fosfomycin biosynthesis were identified from *Bacillus* spp. reference genomes.

In addition, it was reported that the disruption of *abaF* in *A. baumannii* not only resulted in an

increase in fosfomycin susceptibility but also a decrease in biofilm formation and virulence[63].

Therefore, the upregulation of *abaF* in *A. baumannii* may not be induced by the fosfomycin

secretion from *Bacillus* spp. but rather a stress response to *Bacillus* spp. existence exerting

enhanced biofilm formation.

In *A. baumannii* experiments, pronounced downregulation of genes related to sulfur metabolism,

particularly those induced by sulfur starvation, was observed for groups where chemical cleaning

detergent was present (Probiotic Cleaner and Cleaner Only groups for the ambient condition,

Figure 4C; Probiotic Cleaner group for the humid condition, Figure 5C). These genes include

ssuEADCB and *tauABCD* operons known to assimilate sulfur from aliphatic sulfonates[64] and

facilitate the utilization of taurine as an alternative sulfur source under sulfate-deprived

environment[65]. Owing to the presence of anionic surfactants in liquid detergent products, such as

sodium lauryl ether sulfate (SLES)[66], these sulfate starvation genes were likely suppressed in

Cleaner Only and Probiotic Cleaner groups. This observation is consistent with studies that

illustrated the overexpression of *tauABCD* and *ssuEADCB* genes induced by sulfate shortage[67].

Additionally, bacterial utilization of SLES facilitated by *Citrobacter braakii* [68] and a consortium

of *Acinetobacter calcoacetiacus*, *Klebsiella oxytoca*, and *Serratia odorifera*[66] has also been

reported in previous studies and may contribute to the persistence of microbial communities

associated with hospital sinks[69]. On the contrary, no differential expression was observed for

sulfur metabolism genes in *K. pneumoniae* Probiotic Cleaner group under both ambient and

humid conditions (Figure 4F and Figure 5F).

In *K. pneumoniae* experiments, Cleaner Only and Germinated Probiotic groups showed

similarities in gene expressions while Probiotic Cleaner appeared to have very limited effects on

K. pneumoniae gene expression. It is possible that the dormant *Bacillus* spores in probiotic

cleaner were buffering the stress caused by chemical cleaner while the vegetative *Bacillus* cells

introduced competition pressure on the surfaces. Thus, it is important to understand how spores

and vegetative probiotic microorganisms interact with and affect the performance of chemical

surface cleaning reagents, which can alter the response landscape of the surface associated

pathogens. Since the results from our study showed species-specific responses, more pathogen

species should be investigated for their interspecies interactions with probiotic microorganisms

to observe general patterns. This will set the foundation and facilitate the development of

targeted cleaning and disinfection strategies.

Figure 4. KEGG pathway enrichment results for samples collected under ambient

temperature and humidity condition (A, D), log₂ fold change of genes associated with

antibiotic/antimicrobial resistance (B, E), and sulfur metabolism (C, F), compared to no-

cleaning samples (*A. baumannii* or *K. pneumoniae*). KEGG pathways shown here were

statistically enriched in at least one of the cleaning conditions (Benjamini-Hochberg

corrected p-value ≤ 0.05). Normalized enrichment score (NES) accounts for differences

in gene set size and were used to compare enrichment results across KEGG pathways;

a positive NES suggests an overall positive upregulation of genes belonging to its

corresponding pathway[47,70,71]. * p<0.05, ** p< 0.01, and ***p < 0.001.

Figure 5. KEGG pathway enrichment results for No Cleaner and Probiotic Cleaner samples collected under elevated temperature and humidity condition (A, D), $\log_2$ fold change of genes associated with *A. baumannii* cell motility (B), *K. pneumonia*e biofilm formation (E), and sulfur metabolism (C, F). KEGG pathways shown here were statistically enriched in at least one of the cleaning conditions (Benjamini-Hochberg corrected p-value ≤ 0.05). * p<0.05, ** p< 0.01, ***p < 0.001.

3.6. *Effects of elevated temperature and humidity on pathogen cell motility and biofilm formation*

Although over 1,000 differentially expressed genes were identified from *A. baumannii* or *K.*

pneumoniae transcriptomes between the ambient and humid conditions, the majority of the

KEGG pathways were composed of genes that were both upregulated and downregulated,

rendering non-significant results for most pathways.

Under the humid condition (elevated temperature and humidity), 16 KEGG pathways related to

metabolism (10), membrane transport (3), biosynthesis (2) and translation (1) were enriched in

K. pneumoniae experiments (Figure 5D, Probiotic Cleaner Humid *vs* No Cleaner Humid) while

only 4 KEGG pathways related to metabolism (2), biosynthesis (1) and energy production (1)

were enriched in *A. baumannii* (Figure 5A, Probiotic Cleaner Humid *vs A. baumannii* Humid)

with Probiotic Cleaner. Overall, more KEGG pathways were affected by elevated temperature

and humidity in *K. pneumoniae* than *A. baumannii* (Figure 5D and Figure 5A). This result

corresponded to the PCA and PERMANOVA results where temperature and humidity affected

the transcriptome profiles of *K. pneumoniae* more than *A. baumannii*, but not reflected in the

survival of the two pathogens under elevated temperature and humidity assessed by viable CFU

counts.

Without Probiotic Cleaner, cell motility appeared to be affected differently by increased moisture

availability for *A. baumannii* and *K. pneumoniae*. *A. baumannii* exhibited upregulation of type

IV pili genes (Figure 5B) whereas *K. pneumoniae* type 1 pili genes remained unaffected, which

was also the case under ambient condition (Figure S6D). Nevertheless, 19 genes related to

biofilm formation were differentially expressed (Figure 5E, *K. pneumoniae* Humid vs *K.*

pneumoniae Ambient), and the quorum sensing pathway, which affects biofilm formation of *K.*

pneumoniae[72] , was enriched under elevated temperature and humidity (Figure 5D, *K.*

pneumoniae Humid vs *K. pneumoniae* Ambient). This indicated that elevated temperature and

humidity could assist the persistence of *K. pneumoniae* on surfaces (Figure 2B) by altering the

biofilm formation related gene expression.

For both *A. baumannii* and *K. pneumoniae* under Probiotic Cleaner scenario, sulfur metabolism

pathway was downregulated under elevated temperature and humidity, which is consistent with

the sulfur metabolism-related gene expression results discussed in the previous section when

chemical detergent was present. The effects of probiotic cleaner on *K. pneumoniae* were likely

masked by the changes due to higher temperature and humidity (Figure 5E and Figure 5F),

meaning the benefits of probiotic cleaning products could be more limited in tropical areas for

certain types of pathogens.

Our results demonstrated the persistence of probiotic *Bacillus* included in the All-Purpose

Probiotic Cleaner up to 72 hours after cleaning. However, this persistence did not result in more

efficient reduction of pathogen biomass. *A. baumannii* on surfaces cleaned using chemical-based

detergent with and without probiotic *Bacillus* contained a comparable amount of viable

pathogens. The transcriptome of *A. baumannii* with and without probiotic addition shared a high

degree of similarity in overall gene expression. In contrast, the transcriptome of *K. pneumoniae*

with probiotic addition showed a high degree of differences compared to samples with chemical

cleaner only or germinated *Bacillus*, including reduced response in genes related to antimicrobial

resistance, sulfur metabolism and biofilm formation. We thus conclude *Bacillus* spores indeed

survive unfavorable conditions, but that the small percentage of germinated *Bacillus* cells and/or

slow germination rate on surfaces preclude interspecies interactions like competitive exclusion.

Elevated temperature and humidity resulted in prolonged persistence of viable pathogens on

surfaces. These conditions also had a pronounced effect on *K. pneumoniae* overall gene

expression regardless of which cleaner was used. These results suggest that vigilant indoor

climate control could contribute to infection prevention. Especially in tropical environments, our

results suggest that reducing the temperature and relative humidity is a more important strategy

for infection prevention than cleaning product selection.

The design of more effective probiotic cleaning products and strategies to promote "healthy"

microorganisms will require a more nuanced understanding of the relevant environmental

conditions and how they impact activity. Our study used microcosms to model environmental

conditions *in situ* and enable the manipulation of individual parameters. While our microcosms

do not represent the life histories of organisms *in situ* (e.g., previous exposure and selection on a

surface), this type of work forms an important bridge between experiments in culture media,

which do not reflect *in situ* conditions, and field studies, which preclude replication and

manipulation. We further demonstrate that transcriptomics can be used to assess activity on

surfaces. We advocate for the inclusion of such assessments in field studies, which are

historically typically DNA- or culture-based, especially as RNA sequencing methods improve

for low biomass samples. The assessment of cleaning and disinfection is currently based on log

reductions of viable biomass. Using these tools to progress beyond taxonomic and viability

profiling will allow us to include more nuanced endpoints, such as the prevention of difficult-to-

disinfect phenotypes like biofilm formation or antimicrobial resistance.

Acknowledgement

This work was supported, in whole or in part, by the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation INV-

004298. Under the grant conditions of the Foundation, a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0

Generic License has already been assigned to the Author Accepted Manuscript version that

might arise from this submission. JH is supported in part by a Terminal Year Fellowship from

the Northwestern University McCormick School of Engineering. The authors would like to thank

Marina Zelivyanskaya and Dr. Alan R. Hauser for providing clinical isolates of *Acinetobacter*

baumannii and *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. We further thank Andreas Wagner and Jiaxian Shen for

their assistance.

Competing Interests

The Authors declare no Competing Financial or Non-Financial Interests.

Author Contributions

JH designed and performed the experiments, analyzed data, and wrote the manuscript. WS, JTS,

and AAM analyzed transcriptomics data and wrote the manuscript. EMH supervised the project.

Data Availability

Raw sequencing data are available in NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) under BioProject

accession number PRJNA818256. Processed data files and scripts for data analysis are available

in GitHub at https://github.com/Swt623/Probiotic_competition.git.

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