Decoding the complexity of delayed wound healing following

Enterococcus faecalis infection

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Running title: Infected wound single-cell atlas

1 ABSTRACT

2 Wound infections are highly prevalent, and can lead to delayed or failed healing, causing significant 3 morbidity and adverse economic impacts. These infections occur in various contexts, including diabetic 4 foot ulcers, burns, and surgical sites. Enterococcus faecalis is often found in persistent non-healing 5 wounds, but its contribution to chronic wounds remains understudied. To address this, we employed 6 single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) on infected wounds in comparison to uninfected wounds in a 7 mouse model. Examining over 23,000 cells, we created a comprehensive single-cell atlas that captures 8 the cellular and transcriptomic landscape of these wounds. Our analysis revealed unique transcriptional 9 and metabolic alterations in infected wounds, elucidating the distinct molecular changes associated 10 with bacterial infection compared to the normal wound healing process. We identified dysregulated 11 keratinocyte and fibroblast transcriptomes in response to infection, jointly contributing to an anti-12 inflammatory environment. Notably, E. faecalis infection prompted a premature, incomplete epithelial-13 to-mesenchymal transition in keratinocytes. Additionally, E. faecalis infection modulated M2-like 14 macrophage polarization by inhibiting pro-inflammatory resolution in vitro, in vivo, and in our scRNAseq atlas. Furthermore, we discovered macrophage crosstalk with neutrophils, which regulates 15 16 chemokine signaling pathways, while promoting anti-inflammatory interactions with endothelial cells. 17 Overall, our findings offer new insights into the immunosuppressive role of E. faecalis in wound 18 infections.

19 INTRODUCTION

20 Infections pose a challenge to the wound healing process, affecting both the skin's protective barrier 21 and the efficient repair mechanisms required for tissue integrity. The skin, the largest and most intricate 22 defense system in mammals, exhibits unique cellular heterogeneity and complexity that maintain tissue 23 homeostasis. Within the skin, undifferentiated resident cells are the main modulators of tissue 24 maintenance, albeit terminal differentiation dynamics adapt to the regenerative requirements of the 25 tissue. Several comprehensive studies conducted in mice and humans have highlighted the complexity 26 of the skin (Cheng et al., 2018; Der et al., 2019; Joost et al., 2020; Joost et al., 2018; Joost et al., 2016; 27 Philippeos et al., 2018; Theocharidis et al., 2022). However, these studies have primarily focused on 28 cellular heterogeneity and the transcriptome of intact skin or uninfected wounds, offering limited insights 29 into the dynamics of wound healing following infection.

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31 Efficient healing during wound infections involves a sequence of events occurring in three distinct but 32 interconnected stages: inflammation, proliferation, and remodeling (Eming et al., 2014; Masson-Meyers 33 et al., 2020; Minutti et al., 2017; Rognoni & Watt, 2018). These events involve a series of inter- and 34 intracellular molecular interactions mediated by soluble ligands and the innate immune system (Lindley 35 et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2018). The inflammatory phase initiates migration of leukocytes into the wound 36 site to help clear cell debris and establish tissue protection through local inflammation. Initially, 37 neutrophils, responding to pro-inflammatory cytokines like IL-1 β , TNF- α , and IFN- γ , extravasate through 38 the endothelium to the site of injury. Subsequently, the proliferative stage aims to reduce wound size 39 through contraction and re-establishment of the epithelial barrier. This stage is facilitated by activated 40 keratinocytes modulated by inflammatory responses, cytokines, and growth factors. In the final stage, 41 tissue remodeling restores the mechanical properties of intact skin through ECM reorganization, 42 degradation, and synthesis (Wang et al., 2018). Dysregulation of this intricate mechanism can lead to 43 pathological outcomes characterized by persistent inflammation and excessive ECM production 44 (Ashcroft et al., 2013).

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46 *Enterococcus faecalis* (*E. faecalis*) is a commensal bacterium in the human gut, and also an 47 opportunistic pathogen responsible for various infections, including surgical site infections and diabetic 48 ulcers (Kao & Kline, 2019). Bacterial wound infections in general, including those associated with *E*.

49 faecalis, are biofilm-associated, resulting in an antibiotic-tolerant population that may lead to persistent 50 infections (Ch'ng et al., 2019). Additionally, E. faecalis has mechanisms to evade and suppress immune 51 clearance by, for example, suppressing the pro-inflammatory M1-like phenotype in macrophage and 52 preventing neutrophil extracellular trap formation (Kao et al., 2023; Kao & Kline, 2019; Tien et al., 2017). 53 E. faecalis can also persist (Bertuccini et al., 2002; Gentry-Weeks et al., 1999; Horsley et al., 2018; 54 Horsley et al., 2013; Olmsted et al., 1994; Wells et al., 1990; Wells et al., 1988; Zou & Shankar, 2014, 55 2016) and replicate (da Silva et al., 2022; Nunez et al., 2022) within epithelial cells and macrophages, 56 further complicating treatment. The combination of biofilm formation and immune evasion makes 57 Enterococcal wound infections a significant clinical challenge.

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59 In a murine full-thickness excisional wound model, our prior investigations revealed a bifurcated 60 trajectory characterizing E. faecalis wound infections (Chong et al., 2017). Initially, bacterial colony-61 forming units (CFU) increase in number in the acute replication phase, with a concomitant pro-62 inflammatory response characterized by pro-inflammatory cytokine and chemokine production coupled 63 with neutrophil infiltration. In the subsequent persistence stage, E. faecalis CFU undergo gradual 64 reduction and stabilization at approximately 10⁵ CFU within wounds by 2-3-day post-infection (dpi). 65 coinciding with delayed wound healing. Within this framework, we have identified specific bacterial 66 determinants that contribute to each phase of *E. faecalis* infection. For example, *de novo* purine 67 biosynthesis emerges as a pivotal factor in enhancing bacterial fitness during the acute replication 68 phase (Tan et al., 2022). In the persistent phase at 3 dpi, the galactose and mannose uptake systems, 69 in conjunction with the mprF gene product, are associated with nutrient acquisition and resistance to 70 antimicrobial peptides and neutrophil-mediated killing, respectively (Bao et al., 2012; Chong et al., 2017; 71 Jin et al., 2021; Kandaswamy et al., 2013; Rashid et al., 2023). Nonetheless, the intricate interplay 72 between these *E. faecalis* persistence-associated virulence factors, their immunomodulatory evasion 73 strategies, and precise implications in the context of delayed wound healing remains to be investigated. 74

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To address this, we generated a comprehensive single-cell atlas of the host response to persistent *E. faecalis* wound infection. We observed that *E. faecalis* induces immunosuppression in keratinocytes and fibroblasts, delaying the immune response. Notably, *E. faecalis* infection prompted a partial epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT) in keratinocytes. Moreover, macrophages in infected

79 wounds displayed M2-like polarization. Our findings also indicate that the interactions between 80 macrophages and endothelial cells contribute to the anti-inflammatory niche during infection. 81 Furthermore, E. faecalis-infected macrophages drive pathogenic vascularization signatures in 82 endothelial cells, resembling the tumor microenvironment in cancer. We also noted E. faecalis infected-83 associated macrophage crosstalk with neutrophils, regulating chemokine signaling pathways and 84 promoting anti-inflammatory interactions with endothelial cells. These insights from our scRNA-seq 85 atlas provide a foundation for future studies aimed at investigating bacterial factors contributing to wound pathogenesis and understanding the underlying mechanisms associated with delayed healing. 86

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88 RESULTS

89 *E. faecalis* infection inhibits wound healing signatures

90 In the wound environment, various cell types, including myeloid cells, fibroblasts, and endothelial cells, 91 play critical roles in the initial and later stages of wound healing by releasing platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF). Additionally, macrophages secrete epidermal growth factor (EGF) in injured skin, which 92 93 operates through the epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) to promote keratinocyte proliferation, 94 migration, and re-epithelialization. To understand the impact of *E. faecalis* infection on wound healing, 95 we infected excisional dorsal wounds on C57BL/6J male mice and measured gene expression levels 96 of wound healing markers in bulk tissue at 4 dpi at the onset of persistent infection. We then compared 97 the expression profiles with those of (i) wounded but uninfected or (ii) unwounded and uninfected 98 controls, ensuring that the uninfected and infected mice were of comparable weight (Figures 1A, S1A, 99 and S1B). We observed lower expression of platelet-derived growth factor subunit A (Pdgfa) in E. 100 faecalis-infected wounds than in unwounded skin, while uninfected wounds remained unchanged. 101 Similarly, the expression of Egf was lower in uninfected wounds than in healthy skin, while reaching the 102 lowest levels in E. faecalis-infected wounds. The reduced Eqf expression in uninfected wounds at 4 103 days post-wounding is expected, as EGF primarily influences skin cell growth, proliferation, and 104 differentiation during the later stages of wound healing, typically around 10 days post-injury (Schultz et 105 al., 1991). By contrast, wounding alone resulted in higher transforming growth factor beta 1 (Tgfb1) 106 expression. TGF-β1 plays a dual role in wound healing depending on the microenvironment. During 107 tissue maintenance, TGF-β1 acts as a growth inhibitor, and its absence in the epidermis leads to 108 keratinocyte hyperproliferation (Guasch et al., 2007). Elevated TGF-β1 levels have also been observed

in the epidermis of chronic wounds in both humans and mouse models (Li et al., 2021; Xie et al., 2009).
In addition, we observed a slightly higher expression of fibroblast growth factor 1 (*Fgf1*) in uninfected
wounds, although the differences were comparable (**Figure S1A**). Overall, the persistent *E. faecalis*infection contributed to higher *Tgfb1* expression, whilst *Pdgfa* levels remained low, correlating with
delayed wound healing.

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115 Single-cell transcriptomes of full-thickness skin wounds diverge during healing and infection

116 To understand the cellular heterogeneity in the wound environment following E. faecalis infection, we 117 dissociated cells from full-thickness wounds, including minimal adjacent healthy skin. We generated 118 single-cell transcriptome libraries using the droplet-based 10X Genomics Chromium microfluidic 119 partitioning system (Figure 1B and Table S1). By integrating the transcriptomes of approximately 120 23,000 cells, we employed the unbiased graph-based Louvain algorithm to identify clusters (Zappia & 121 Oshlack, 2018). Our analysis revealed 24 clusters, irrespective of infection (Figure S1C). These 122 clusters included epithelial, immune, fibroblast, endothelial, vascular, and neural cell types (Figures 1C, 1D, S1D, S1E, and Tables S2-S4). Within the epithelial class, we identified basal (BAS1-3) and 123 124 suprabasal (SUP1-4) keratinocytes, hair follicles (HFSUP1-2), outer bulge (OB), and sebaceous gland 125 (SG) cells (Figure 1E). The immune class included macrophages (MC1-2), neutrophils (NEUT1-2), 126 memory T cells (TC), and a mixed population (DC/LC) of dendritic cells (DCs) and Langerhans cells 127 (LC). Notably, cells from infected wounds (~13,000 cells) demonstrated distinct clustering patterns 128 compared to cells from uninfected wounds (~9,500 cells) (Figure S1F and Table S1).

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We proceeded to analyze upregulated gene signatures for each Louvain cluster (**Figure 1F** and **Table S2**) and compared them to the cell-type signature database (Franzen et al., 2019) (PanglaoDB) to identify characteristic gene expression patterns (**Figure 1G**). Additionally, we identified highly expressed genes in uninfected and infected wounds (**Tables S3** and **S4**) and performed co-expression network analysis (WGCNA) to uncover the core genes associated with cell types (**Figure 1H**).

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We also delineated macrophage populations (**Figure S1G-I**), identifying an M2-like polarization (**Figure 1**37 **1F**, MC1) marked by higher expression of *Arg1*, *Egr2*, *Fn1*, and *Fpr2* (**Figure S1G**), and a tissueresident macrophage (TRM) population (**Figure 1F**, MC2) expressing *Ccr5*, *Cd68*, *Fcgr1*, *Mrc1*

(*Cd206*), *Ms4a4c*, and *Pparg* (Figure S1H). Both macrophage populations exhibited limited expression
of *Grp18* and *Nos2* (*iNos*), which are typically associated with M1-like polarization (Figure S1I).
Together, our analysis outlined the differences observed in uninfected and infected wound healing
across epithelial, fibroblast, and immune cell populations.

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144 *E. faecalis* elicit immunosuppressive interactions with keratinocytes

Keratinocytes, the predominant cell population in the skin, include undifferentiated (basal) and 145 146 differentiated (suprabasal, hair follicle, outer bulge, and sebaceous gland) cells within the EPI cell class 147 in both wound types (Figure 1C). Further analysis of the EPI class revealed 19 clusters (Figure 2A and 148 Table S5), with the emergence of infection-specific clusters (Figure 2B, clusters 0 and 6, and S2A). We 149 identified three major keratinocyte populations: (i) Krt5-expressing (Krt5^h) basal keratinocytes, (ii) *Krt10*-enriched (*Krt10^{hi}*) post-mitotic keratinocytes, and (iii) *Krt5^{hi}Krt10^{hi}* co-expressing populations 150 151 (Figure 2C). The co-expression of *Krt5* and *Krt10* was unique to infection-specific clusters (Figure 2A, clusters 0 and 6). We also observed distinct populations, including hair follicle stem cells (Lrg5^{hi}; cluster 152 10), differentiating basal cells (*Ivl^{hi}*; clusters 7 and 8), terminally differentiated keratinocytes (*Lor^{hi}*; 153 154 clusters 2, 8, 16, 17), and bulge stem cells (Krt15^{hi}; clusters 2, 9, 10, 17, 18) (Figure 2D), reflecting the 155 skin's complexity.

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The two largest infection-specific clusters exhibited distinct gene expression patterns, with cluster 0 and 157 158 cluster 6, enriched in Zeb2 and Gib6 expression, respectively (Figure 2A). These clusters represent 159 migratory stem-like and partial EMT keratinocyte populations (Figure 2E). As the barrier to pathogens, 160 keratinocytes secrete a broad range of cytokines that can induce inflammatory responses (Alshetaiwi 161 et al., 2020; Siriwach et al., 2022; Veglia et al., 2021). However, Zeb2^{hi} keratinocytes co-expressing Cxcl2, II1b, and Wfdc17, indicate myeloid-derived suppressor cell-like phenotype which implies an 162 163 immunosuppressive environment (Hofer et al., 2021; Veglia et al., 2021). Gene Ontology analysis 164 revealed that the Zeb2^{hi} and Gib6^{hi} clusters exhibited signatures related to ECM remodeling, chemokine 165 signaling, migratory pathways, and inflammatory response (Figures 2F, 2G, and Table S5). 166 Collectively, these findings suggest an early migratory role of keratinocytes induced by E. faecalis 167 infection.

169 During cutaneous wound healing, keratinocytes enter a mesenchymal-like state, migrating to and 170 proliferating within the wound site. We observed two infection-specific keratinocyte populations 171 enriched in Zeb2 and Gjb6 expression, respectively, as early as four days post-wounding. To determine 172 the nature of these populations, we performed RNA velocity analysis, a method that predicts the future 173 state of individual cells based on the patterns of temporal gene expression (La Manno et al., 2018). RNA velocity analysis predicted a lineage relationship between Zeb2^{hi} and Gjb6^{hi} keratinocytes 174 (Figures 2H, 2I, and Table S5). The top lineage-driver genes (Lange et al., 2022), including Rgs1, H2-175 176 Aa, Ms4a6c, Cd74, H2-Eb1 and H2-Ab1, were predominantly expressed in the infection-specific cluster 177 0 (Figures 2J and S2B). These genes are associated with the major histocompatibility complex (MHC) 178 class II, suggesting a self-antigen presenting keratinocyte population, which have a role in co-179 stimulation of T cell responses (Meister et al., 2015; Tamoutounour et al., 2019). Meanwhile, Gjb6^{hi} 180 keratinocytes demonstrated reduced expression of putative genes such as Pof1b, Krt77, Dnase1l3, and 181 Krtdap as well as increased Clic4 expression (Figure S2C), suggesting that E. faecalis infection perturbs normal healing. Additionally, temporal expression analysis of high-likelihood genes revealed 182 183 three distinct transcriptional states (Figure 2K): (1) an early state characterized by undifferentiated 184 (basal) keratinocyte markers, (2) an intermediate state defined by the selection and upkeep of 185 intraepithelial T cell protein family, and (3) a late state characterized by cell adhesion signatures. These 186 findings provide insights into the cellular dynamics and developmental abnormalities, such as partial 187 EMT induced by *E. faecalis* infection during wound healing.

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189 Understanding cell-cell crosstalk through ligand-receptor interactions allows predicting ligand-target 190 links between interacting cells by combining their expression data with signaling and gene regulatory 191 network databases. Given our observation that infection-specific keratinocyte populations (Figure S2) 192 were involved in ECM remodeling and immune response (Figures 2F and 2G), we hypothesized that 193 these cells might participate in the SPP1 signaling pathway. SPP1 (secreted phosphoprotein 1 or 194 osteopontin) is a chemokine-like protein secreted by immune cells, osteoblasts, osteocytes, and 195 epithelial cells to facilitate anti-apoptotic immune responses (Denhardt et al., 2001; Standal et al., 2004). 196 To decipher ligand-receptor interactions in uninfected and infected skin wounds, we performed cell-cell 197 interaction analysis (Guerrero-Juarez et al., 2019). We found 34 predicted interactions in uninfected 198 keratinocytes and 61 in keratinocytes from E. faecalis-infected wounds out of a total of 923 and 991

199 interactions, respectively, in our single-cell atlas (Figures S1A, S1B, and Table S6). Importantly, we 200 detected outgoing signals from keratinocytes to other cells associated with EGF and SPP1 signaling 201 pathways. Ligand:receptor pairs in the infected niche (Figure S2D) included Hbegf:Egfr for the EGF 202 pathway and Spp1:(d44, Spp1:(ltga5+ltgb1), Spp1:(ltga9+ltgb1), and Spp1:(ltgav+ltgb3) for the SPP1 203 pathway (Figures 2L, S2D, and S2E), that are known to induce immunosuppression (Cheng et al., 204 2023; Gao et al., 2022). Remarkably, we observed the enrichment of keratinocyte-endothelial cell 205 ligand:receptor pairs (Figure S3 and Table S6). By contrast, keratinocytes from uninfected wounds 206 only showed macrophage migration inhibitory factor (MIF) ligand interactions with its receptors Cd44, 207 Cd74, and Cxcr4 in immune cells (DC/LC and TRM) (Figure S2G), suggesting that these keratinocytes 208 promote cell proliferation, wound healing, and survival (Farr et al., 2020; Jager et al., 2020). 209 Furthermore, the RNA velocity of keratinocytes from uninfected wounds revealed a terminal hair follicle 210 $(Lrg5^{hi})$ and a proliferating keratinocyte (*Mki*67^{hi}) population originating from basal keratinocytes (**Figure** 211 2H), underlining normal wound healing. Overall, E. faecalis infection altered the transcriptome of keratinocytes towards a partial EMT at an early stage, whereas uninfected keratinocytes showed 212 213 differentiating and terminally differentiated keratinocyte populations (Figure 2M). Our data show that 214 epidermal cells undergo migratory and inflammatory gene regulation during normal wound healing 215 (Haensel et al., 2020; Vu et al., 2022), whereas E. faecalis induces anti-inflammatory transcriptional 216 modulation that may promote chronicity in bacteria-infected skin wounds. These findings demonstrate 217 that keratinocytes exist in a low inflammation profile under homeostasis, which is exacerbated upon E. 218 faecalis infection.

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220 E. faecalis delays immune response in fibroblasts

221 Fibroblasts are the fundamental connective tissue cells involved in skin homeostasis and healing. Upon 222 injury, they primarily (1) migrate into the wound site, (2) produce ECM by secreting growth factors, and 223 (3) regulate the inflammatory response. Despite their high heterogeneity, fibroblast subpopulations 224 have distinct roles in wound healing. In response to injury, fibroblasts produce increased amounts of 225 ECM by inhibiting the metalloproteinase (MMP) family through the tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinases 226 1 (TIMP1). Notably, Guerrero-Juarez et al. (2019) reported a rare fibroblast population expressing 227 myeloid lineage cell markers during normal (uninfected) wound healing (Guerrero-Juarez et al., 2019). 228 Our bioinformatic analysis identified fibroblast populations within wounds that differed significantly

229 between infected and uninfected conditions (Figure S1F). Further analysis of the fibroblast mega class 230 revealed 12 distinct clusters, with clusters 0 and 2 specific to infection while retaining their fibroblastic 231 identity (Figures 3A, 3B, and Table S7). The infection-associated fibroblasts express a range of 232 markers, including those linked to extracellular matrix deposition such as Col1a1, Col1a2, Col6a2, 233 vimentin (Vim), fibronectin, elastin (Eln), asporin (Aspn), platelet-derived growth factor receptor-beta 234 (Pdgfrb), and fibroblast activator protein-q (Fap). These findings suggest a premature extracellular 235 matrix deposition triggered by E. faecalis, which typically occurs in later stages of wound healing 236 processes (Deng et al., 2021; Fang et al., 2023; Fitzgerald & Weiner, 2020) (Figures 3C, 3D, S4A, and 237 S4B).

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239 The unique fibroblast clusters 0 and 2 associated with E. faecalis infection (Figure 3E) exhibited 240 enrichment of myeloid-specific markers (*Hbb-bs*, *Lyz2*) and profibrotic gene signatures (*Inbba*, *Saa3*, 241 Timp1) (Table S6). Additionally, Lyz2^{hi} fibroblasts co-expressing TagIn, Acta2, and Col12a1 suggested their origin as contractile myofibroblasts (Guerrero-Juarez et al., 2019). Gene Ontology analysis 242 243 indicated that Lyz^{2hi} fibroblasts were involved in immune response (Figure 3F), while Timp1^{hi} 244 fibroblasts were associated with tissue repair processes (Figure 3G). These findings collectively reveal 245 an intricate cellular landscape within infected wounds, highlighting the detrimental functional 246 contributions of various fibroblast subpopulations in response to *E. faecalis* infection.

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248 To validate the distinct fibroblast cell states and their differentiation potential, we performed RNA 249 velocity analysis (Figures 3H and 3I), which revealed two terminal fibroblast populations: (1) a Cilp^{hi} 250 fibrotic cluster 4 and (2) an Mkx^{hi} reparative cluster 5, originating from clusters 0 and 2 (Figure 3I and 251 Table S7), indicating the mesenchymal characteristics of infection-specific fibroblasts. Lineage driver 252 gene analysis supported these findings, with the expression of genes such as Csgalnact1, Atrnl1, Slit3, 253 Rbms3, and Magi2, which are known to induce fibrotic tissue formation under pathological conditions 254 (Gornicki et al., 2022; Mizumoto et al., 2020) (Figures 3J and S4C). Similarly, the activation of genes 255 such as Serping1, Sparc, Pcsk5, Fgf7, and Cyp7b1 (Figure S4D) indicated the temporal activation of 256 cell migration and immune suppression during infection. CellRank analysis revealed two states: an initial prolonged state and a short terminal state (Figure 3K). The early transcriptional states were 257 258 associated with apoptosis inhibition, cell adhesion, and immune evasion genes, including serine

protease inhibitors (*Serpine1* and *Serping1*), *Prrx1*, *Ncam1*, and *Chl1*, suggesting immune suppression. By contrast, the terminal state showed the emergence of migratory (*Cd74*, *Ifi202b*) and inflammatory (*Acod1*, *Cxcl2*, *F13a1*, and *S100a9*) genes, indicating a delayed immune response to *E. faecalis* infection. Overall, these findings indicate that uninfected fibroblasts contribute to healthy wound healing with proliferative and elastin-rich fibroblast populations. By contrast, *E. faecalis*-infected fibroblasts exhibit a pathological repair profile, characterized by the presence of *Timp1^{hi}* and *Lyz2^{hi}* fibroblasts (**Figure 3L**).

267 To understand the role of fibroblast subpopulations in healing, we explored cell-cell interactions in 268 fibroblasts in infected wound (Figure S4E). In E. faecalis-infected wounds, we observed interactions 269 involving Spp1 ligand with cell adhesion receptor Cd44 and integrins (Itgav+Itgb1, Itgav+Itgb3, 270 Itgav+Itgb5, Itga4+Itgb1, Itga5+Itgb1, Itga9+Itgb1), and EGF signaling pairing Ereg:Egfr (Figures S4F 271 and **S4G**). These interactions were particularly strong between macrophages (ligands) and endothelial 272 cells (receptors) (Figure S2C), suggesting their involvement in the infected wound microenvironment. 273 By contrast, uninfected wounds showed a normal wound healing profile with reparative VEGF and TGF-274 β signaling pathways (**Figures S4H** and **S4I**). Furthermore, RNA velocity analysis of fibroblasts from 275 uninfected wounds revealed two terminal fibroblast populations originating from *Fbn1^{hi}* fibroblasts: 276 elastin-rich (*Eln^{hi}*) fibroblasts and keratinocyte-like (*Krt1^{hi}/Krt10^{hi}*) fibroblasts (**Figure 3H**). Collectively, 277 our findings revealed the unique roles of fibroblasts upon *E. faecalis* infection and reaffirmed the known 278 functions of fibroblasts during uninfected wound healing, consistent with the outcomes of predicted 279 ligand-receptor interactions (Figure 3F).

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281 *E. faecalis* promotes macrophage polarization towards an anti-inflammatory phenotype

Immune cells play a crucial role in wound healing by eliminating pathogens, promoting keratinocyte and fibroblast activity, and resolving inflammation and tissue repair (Haensel et al., 2020; Landen et al., 2016; Vu et al., 2022). Our data reveal unique clusters enriched within keratinocytes and fibroblasts in *E. faecalis*-infected wounds, suggesting an immunosuppressive transcriptional program in these cell populations (**Figures S2A** and **S4B**). Given the ability of *E. faecalis* to actively suppress macrophage activation *in vitro* (Tien et al., 2017), we investigated if *E. faecalis* contributes to anti-inflammatory macrophage polarization and immune suppression *in vivo*. Analysis of the myeloid cells identified two

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289 infection-specific macrophage clusters (clusters 2 and 5) among 12 clusters (Figures 4A, 4B, and 290 Table S8). To validate infection-specific macrophage polarization, we performed qPCR on bulk tissue 291 isolated from uninfected and infected wounds at 4 dpi. Infected wounds showed downregulation of Mrc1 292 and upregulation of both Arg1 and Nos2 compared to uninfected wounds or unwounded bulk skin tissue 293 (Figure 4D), which was further corroborated by examining gene expression in bone marrow-derived 294 macrophages (BMDM) following *E. faecalis* infection in vitro (Figure 4E). The co-expression of both 295 M1-like and M2-like macrophage markers during infection has been previously reported for M. 296 tuberculosis (Mattila et al., 2013), T. cruzi (Cuervo et al., 2011), and G. lamblia infections (Maloney et 297 al., 2015), as an indicator of an immunosuppressive phenotype that promotes an anti-inflammatory 298 environment during prolonged infection. In myeloid clusters of our scRNA-seq atlas, tissue-resident 299 macrophages (Mrc1) were predominant in uninfected wounds, while M2-like macrophages (Arg1) were 300 abundant in macrophages from *E. faecalis*-infected wounds (Figures 4F and 4G), supporting the 301 hypothesis of an anti-inflammatory wound environment during *E. faecalis* infection. Additionally, our 302 analysis allowed the segregation of dendritic cells and Langerhans cells (cluster 10, Cd207 and Itgax) 303 from macrophage populations, characterized by the co-expression of langerin (Cd207) and integrin 304 alpha X (*Itgax/Cd11c*) in cluster 10 (Figure 4G), confirming the validity of our cell annotation.

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306 Next, we focused on the functions of infection-specific macrophage clusters 2 and 5 (Figures 4B and 307 **S5B**) to identify their potential roles in wound infection. Gene Ontology analysis revealed that these 308 macrophages were involved in the immune response, ECM production, and protein translation (Figures S5C and S5D). To better understand the evolution of infection-specific macrophages, we computed the 309 310 RNA velocity to explore potential lineage relationships (Figures 4H and 4I). RNA velocity identified 311 cluster 2 macrophages as the terminal population in the infected dataset (Figure 4I), whereas 312 uninfected terminal macrophage populations were found as clusters 1 and 4 (Figure 4H). As expected, 313 cluster 5 did not exhibit velocity vectors since these cells were highly segregated from the main myeloid clusters and differed vastly in their gene expression (Table S8). While both terminal macrophage 314 populations in both uninfected and infection conditions co-host anti-inflammatory macrophage 315 316 signatures, their transcriptional program and functions vary in the presence of *E. faecalis* infection.

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318 To further characterize clusters 2 and 5, we explored differentially expressed genes in infected cells. 319 We identified the inflammation-related genes Fth1, Slpi, II1b, AA467197 (Nmes1/miR-147), Ptges, and 320 Cxc/3 (Figures 4J and S5E), suggesting that these cells may play a role in tissue remodeling 321 (Munadziroh et al., 2022; Recalcati et al., 2019). Similarly, the expression of the infected-specific top 322 likelihood genes Cxcl2, Cd36, and Pdpn was associated with the presence of efferocytic M2-like macrophages (Figure S5F, green clusters). The distant Sparchi macrophage cluster 5 exhibited C-C 323 324 chemokine receptor type 7 (Ccr7) exhaustion (Figure S5F, red clusters), indicating that these cells 325 might be of M1-like origin (Hu et al., 2020).

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327 Next, to validate whether the terminal macrophage populations corresponding to clusters 2 and 5 were 328 tissue-resident or M2-like macrophages, we computed the driver genes of macrophage sub-clusters 329 over latent time. The top 50 likelihood gene heat map identified two major states in the macrophages 330 (Figure 4K). The early state cells were enriched in antigen-presenting/processing MHC class II gene 331 expression such as H2-Ab1, H2-Eb1, H2-Eb2, G-protein-coupled receptors (Gpr137b, Grp171, and 332 Gpr183), and mannose receptor c-type 1 (Mrc1/Cd206). In contrast, Cd36, Met, Sgms2, Fn1, Zeb2, 333 and Arg2 levels were higher in the late macrophage population, suggesting M2-like polarization. 334 Therefore, we asked whether these macrophages provide an immunosuppressive microenvironment 335 during E. faecalis infection. Cellular interactome analysis revealed enrichment of the ANNEXIN 336 signaling pathway, particularly Anxa1:Fpr1 and Anxa1:Fpr2 ligand-receptor pairs between M2-like 337 macrophage and endothelial or neutrophil cells (Figure S5I-K), which inhibits pro-inflammatory cytokine 338 production (Yang et al., 2009). Together, these results demonstrate that E. faecalis infection influences 339 macrophage polarization towards an anti-inflammatory phenotype. Importantly, the ANXA1:FPR1 340 interaction has been implicated in the tumor microenvironment of several malignancies (Cheng et al., 341 2014; Takaoka et al., 2018; Vecchi et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2022), indicating that the E. faecalis-infected 342 wound niche mimics the anti-inflammatory transcriptional program of the tumor microenvironment.

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344 Neutrophils contribute to the anti-inflammatory microenvironment

Our findings revealed an exacerbated inflammatory phenotype during infection (**Figures 2F, 2G, 3K**, and **4J**), specifically marked by an abundance of neutrophils (Chong et al., 2017) (**Figure 1D**). To facilitate a comparison of the broader immune niche, we focused on the neutrophil population,

348 identifying six subpopulations in the integrated dataset (Figure 5A and Table S9). Among these, 349 clusters 0 and 2 were abundant in the infected condition (Figures 5B and S6A). The expression of 350 granulocyte colony-stimulating factor receptor (Csf3r) and integrin subunit alpha M (Itgam/Cd11b) was 351 highly expressed across all neutrophils (Figure 5C). Furthermore, the higher expression of chemokine 352 (CXC motif) receptor 2 (Cxcr2), Fc gamma receptor III (Fcgr3/Cd16), and ferritin heavy chain (Fth1) in 353 clusters 0, 1, 2, 4 and 5 indicated the presence of migrating and maturing neutrophils, regardless of 354 infection status (Figure 5D). By contrast, cluster 3 did not express Cxcr2 and Fcqr3 and had lower 355 expression of *Fth1* but was enriched in calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase type ID (*Camk1d*), 356 suggesting that this neutrophil subpopulation recruited to the infected wound site might be mature but 357 inactive (Chen et al., 2023; Evrard et al., 2018)

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359 The infection-enriched neutrophils demonstrated a functional shift. Cluster 0 with higher expression of 360 Lrg1, indicates an activated phagocytic phenotype (Figure 5E-G). By contrast, Csf1^{hi} neutrophils 361 (cluster 2) were associated with the negative regulation of apoptosis, cytokine production and neutrophil 362 activation. Csf1 upregulation in neutrophils mediates macrophage differentiation towards an 363 immunotolerant phenotype (Braza et al., 2018), characterized by low expression of the lymphocyte 364 antigen complex (LY6C) and increased proliferation rate. We then inspected the infected myeloid cells 365 and observed a higher abundance of the cell proliferation marker, Ki-67 (*Mki*67), and the expression of 366 lymphocyte antigen 6 complex locus 1 (Ly6c1). The expression of Mki67 was specific to terminal 367 macrophage population clusters 2 and 5 (Figure S5G) and the level of Ly6c1 was lower in all 368 macrophages but was specific to LCs (Figure S5H). These findings suggest that neutrophils may 369 contribute to the anti-inflammatory polarization of *E. faecalis* infected macrophages.

370

RNA velocity analysis also estimated infected neutrophils with a propensity to become *Lrg1^{hi}* neutrophils
(Figure 5H, cluster 0), driven by genes *Entpd1/Cd39*, *Picalm*, *Hdc*, *Cytip*, *Sipa1l1* and *Fos* (Figures 5I,
S6B and S6C). Moreover, suppression of *Nfkbia* and chemokine ligand-2 (*Cxcl2*) and upregulation of
calprotectin (*S100a9*) together indicate an inflammatory response to *E. faecalis* infection (Figure S6B).
To identify molecular changes that could drive neutrophil state transitions, we sorted the genes based
on their peak in pseudo-time, revealing the three distinct neutrophil states: early-stage, intermediatestage, and late-stage, in the *E. faecalis*-infected wounds (Figure 5J). The early response was

378 characterized by Ccl6, II1f9 (II36g), Cxcl2, S100a6, and S100a9, suggesting an initial pro-inflammatory 379 neutrophil response. By contrast, the late stage demonstrated higher expression of ribosomal proteins 380 (Rpl5, Rpl19 and Rpl26), migratory metalloproteinases (Mmp3, Mmp19 and Adamts5), and CXC motif 381 ligand-1 (*Cxcl1*), suggesting perturbed neutrophil infiltration. MMP19 has also been implicated in M2 382 polarization (Fingleton, 2017), consistent with the anti-inflammatory signatures of the infected 383 macrophage populations (Figures 4J and S5E). Cellular interactome analysis further predicted the anti-384 inflammatory status of neutrophils by a strong correlation in the CCL signaling pathway between 385 neutrophils and M2-like macrophages, particularly through the Ccl3:Ccr1 axis (Figures 5K-M and S6D), 386 an interaction predictive of neutrophil extravasation during *E. faecalis* infection (Hautz et al., 2023). 387 Neutrophil extravasation is a vital event in immune responses to infections to ensure the survival of the 388 host (Theocharidis et al., 2022). In summary, our single-cell analysis of neutrophils during E. faecalis 389 wound infection revealed a perturbed pro-inflammatory resolution during infection that may contribute 390 to anti-inflammatory macrophage polarization. Furthermore, our findings uncover prominent differences 391 in immune cell composition in infected wounds, featuring Lrg1-rich neutrophil abundance (cluster 0), 392 together with the enrichment of Arg1^{hi} M2-like macrophage polarization (clusters 2 and 5). As such, 393 wound healing during *E. faecalis* is characterized by a dysregulated immune response compared to 394 uninfected wounds, which could be associated with delayed healing or chronic infection.

395

396 Anti-inflammatory macrophages induce pathogenic angiogenesis

397 Based on the role of angiogenesis in tissue repair, and our observations of the anti-inflammatory 398 signatures provided by keratinocytes, fibroblasts, and macrophages, we investigated their impact on 399 endothelial cells (ECs). First, we analyzed the two endothelial cell (EC) populations in the integrated 400 dataset and identified 13 clusters with high Pecam1 and Plvap expression. Notably, clusters 0 and 8 401 were exclusively found in the infected ECs. (Figures 6A, 6B, and S7A-C). These clusters were involved 402 in ECM deposition, cell differentiation, and development, indicating an anti-inflammatory niche (Figures 403 6C and 6D). Interestingly, RNA velocity analysis of infected ECs showed a faster velocity in the Sparchi 404 (cluster 0) and *Cilp^{hi}* (cluster 8) cells, suggesting a dynamic transcriptional state (**Figure 6E**). The top 405 lineage driver genes Malat1, Tcf4, Rlcb1, Diaph2, Bmpr2, and Adamts9 indicate a pathogenic 406 mechanism in proliferating ECs (Figure 6F).

407

408 We then explored whether the anti-inflammatory characteristics observed in infected epithelial cells, 409 fibroblasts, and immune cells impacted ECs. To predict these cellular interactions, we conducted a 410 differential NicheNet analysis (Browaeys et al., 2020), which involved linking the expression of ligands 411 with corresponding receptors and downstream target gene expressions of these pairs in our scRNA-412 seq atlas of infected cells. Remarkably, NicheNet analysis revealed II1b ligand of M2-like macrophages, 413 correlated with the expression of target genes such as biglycan (Bgn), Cd14, Ccl3, Csf3r, Itgam and 414 The in ECs (Figures 6G and S7D), in line with previous studies (Perrault et al., 2018; Vu et al., 2022). 415 Notably, BGN, a proteoglycan, has been associated with tumor EC signatures (Cong et al., 2021; 416 Morimoto et al., 2021), further supporting the anti-inflammatory role of M2-like macrophages observed 417 in the infected dataset. Moreover, the infection-induced expression of Cd14 in EC suggests Toll-like 418 receptor (TLR) activation (Dauphinee & Karsan, 2006; Lloyd & Kubes, 2006). Cell-cell interaction 419 analysis also predicted that the Ptgs2, Spp1 and II1a ligand activity in M2-like macrophages influenced 420 the expression of target genes such as calprotectin (S100a8 and S100a9) and colony-stimulating factor 3 (Csf3) These interactions suggest a potential disruption of EC integrity in the presence of E. faecalis 421 422 infection. Similarly, according to the CellChat analysis, ECs exhibited activation of the SPP1 and CXCL 423 signaling pathways (Figures 6H-J, S7E and S7F). Expression of the ligands Spp1, Cxcl2 and Cxcl3 424 were abundant in keratinocytes, fibroblasts, and M2-like macrophages during the infection (Figure 6J). 425 In the uninfected ECs, however, fibroblasts modulated the expression of target genes such as TEK 426 tyrosine kinase (*Tek*), Forkhead box protein O1 (*Foxo1*) and selectin-E (*Sele*), with notable angiopoietin 427 1 activity (Figure S7D), pointing to normal endothelial cell activity.

428

429 During unperturbed wound healing, macrophages modulate angiogenesis by producing proteases, 430 including matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs), which help degrade the extracellular matrix in the wound 431 bed. Additionally, macrophages secrete chemotactic factors such as TNF- α , VEGF and TGF- β to 432 promote the EC migration (Du Cheyne et al., 2020; Wilkinson & Hardman, 2020). Furthermore, the 433 TGF-β signaling pathway induces fibroblast proliferation and ECM production in wound healing 434 (Cutroneo, 2007; Pakyari et al., 2013). Our analysis of the cellular interactome in the uninfected wound 435 dataset revealed strong interactions in the TGF- β and VEGF signaling pathways (Figure S7H-I), corroborating previous studies (Joost et al., 2016; Vu et al., 2022). These findings suggest that 436 437 uninfected wounds undergo reparative angiogenesis while E. faecalis infection evokes pathological

- 438 vascularization. Overall, our analysis underlines the M2-like macrophage-EC interactions as targets of
- 439 altered cell-cell signaling during bacteria-infected wound healing.

440 **DISCUSSION**

441 Wound healing is an intricate process that involves the cooperation of various cellular and extracellular components. Disruptions to this network can perturb the healing dynamics. Previous scRNA-seq 442 443 studies have primarily focused on the transcriptional profiles of epithelial and fibroblast populations in 444 wound healing (Deng et al., 2021; Haensel et al., 2020; Joost et al., 2020; Joost et al., 2018; Joost et a 445 al., 2016). However, the impact of the host-pathogen interactions on wound healing transcriptional 446 programs remains to be investigated. Here, our work presents the first comprehensive single-cell atlas 447 of mouse skin wounds following infection, highlighting the transcriptional aberration in wound healing. 448 E. faecalis has immunosuppressive activity in various tissues and infection sites (Chong et al., 2017; 449 Kao et al., 2023; Kao & Kline, 2019; Tien et al., 2017). By surveying approximately 23,000 cells, we 450 identified cell types, characterized shared and distinct transcriptional programs, and delineated terminal 451 phenotypes and signaling pathways in homeostatic healing or bacterial wound infections. These 452 scRNA-seq findings elucidate the immunosuppressive role of E. faecalis during wound infections, 453 providing valuable insights into the underlying mechanisms.

454

To explore the cellular landscape of *E. faecalis*-infected wounds and the impact of infection on wound 455 456 healing, we focused on cell types specifically enriched in these tissues. Our analysis revealed infection-457 activated transcriptional states in keratinocytes, fibroblasts, and immune cells. The presence of clusters 458 0 and 6, exclusive to the epithelial dataset, along with RNA velocity analysis pointing to Zeb2-expressing 459 cells (Figure 2I), suggests a potential role of *E. faecalis* in promoting a partial EMT in keratinocytes. 460 We also identified a terminal keratinocyte population (cluster 2) at 4 dpi, characterized by the 461 consumption of Krt77 and Krtdap over pseudo-time, confirming terminal keratinocyte differentiation 462 (Figures 2I and S2C). By contrast, uninfected wounds showed proliferating keratinocyte (*Mki*67^{*hi*}) and 463 hair follicle ($Lrg5^{hi}$) cells (**Figure 2H**), consistent with previous findings on wound healing and skin 464 maintenance signatures (Joost et al., 2020; Joost et al., 2018). Furthermore, we found two infectionspecific fibroblast populations enriched in Lyz2/TagIn and Timp1, identifying their myofibroblast 465 characteristics. The RNA velocity analysis confirmed cluster 5 as the terminal fibroblast population 466 467 derived from myofibroblasts (cluster 2) (Figure 3I). Additionally, an increase in Timp1 expression correlated with cell growth and proliferation signatures (Sparc, Fgf7 and Malat1) over latent time in 468

469 cluster 5 (Figures S4C and S4D). These findings collectively demonstrate a profibrotic state in
470 fibroblasts driven by *E. faecalis*-induced transcriptional dynamics.

471

472 To investigate the impact of immunosuppressive signatures in keratinocytes and fibroblasts, we 473 examined how E. faecalis infection influenced the immune response in wounds. Given that prolonged 474 macrophage survival is associated with impaired wound healing (Kim & Nair, 2019; Krzyszczyk et al., 475 2018), we primarily focused on the macrophage populations. We identified subpopulations of M2-like 476 macrophages expressing Arg1, Ptgs2 and Sparc genes (Figure 4F-I). COX-2 (cyclooxygenase-2, 477 encoded by Ptgs2 gene) has been reported as a crucial regulator of M2-like polarization in tumor-478 associated macrophages (Na et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2021). While macrophage polarization is 479 complex in humans and other higher organisms (Orecchioni et al., 2019; Watanabe et al., 2019), our 480 scRNA-seq data suggests that E. faecalis infection drives an anti-inflammatory microenvironment 481 resembling the tumor microenvironment. These findings confirm and expand on previous studies 482 highlighting the immunosuppressive role of *E. faecalis* in different contexts (Chong et al., 2017; Kao & 483 Kline, 2019; Tien et al., 2017).

484

485 Our findings also elaborate on the potential cell-cell communication and signaling pathways involved in 486 wound healing. Ligand-receptor interaction analysis revealed an immune-suppressive ecosystem 487 driven by M2-like macrophages during bacterial infection (Figure 6G). CellChat analysis confirmed that 488 M2-like macrophages play a crucial role in regulating angiogenesis through the Vegfa: Vegfr1 ligand-489 receptor pair (Figures 6H, 6I, S7E, S7F, and Table S6). Further, the Spp1 ligand correlated with 490 integrins (Itgav+Itgb1, Itgav+Itgb3, Itga5+Itgb1) and the cluster of differentiation receptor Cd44 in ECs. 491 Notably, while the Spp1 ligand of macrophages registered strong interactions with ECs, infected 492 keratinocytes and fibroblasts were identified as the primary sources of Spp1 ligand. The infection-493 specific abundance of Spp1 in these clusters highlight a partial EMT state in our extended analyses 494 (Figures 2E-I). Furthermore, the interaction between Spp1 and Cd44 in M2-like macrophages and ECs 495 indicated a proliferative state. The neutrophil chemokine Cxcl2, which promotes wound healing and 496 angiogenesis (Girbl et al., 2018; Sawant et al., 2021), strongly correlated with the atypical chemokine 497 receptor Ackr1, suggesting neutrophil extravasation. Additionally, the secretion of heparin-binding 498 epidermal growth factor (*Hbegf*) by keratinocytes and epiregulin-enriched fibroblasts (*Ereg^{hi}*) further

499 confirmed the presence of an anti-inflammatory microenvironment and angiogenic ECs in bacteria-500 infected wounds (**Figures 6H**, **6I**, and **S7F**).

501

502 In summary, our study provides insights into the cellular landscape, transcriptional programs, and 503 signaling pathways associated with uninfected and *E. faecalis*-infected skin wounds. We confirm the 504 immune-suppressive role of *E. faecalis* in wound healing, consistent with previous findings in different 505 experimental settings (Chong et al., 2017; Kao et al., 2023; Tien et al., 2017Kao, 2023 #134). 506 Importantly, we identify specific ligand-receptor pairs and signaling pathways affected during wound 507 infection. The increased number of predicted signaling interactions suggests that *E. faecalis* modulates 508 cellular communication to alter the immune response. Notably, the CXCL/SPP1 signaling pathway 509 emerges as a critical player in shaping the immune-altering ecosystem during wound healing, 510 highlighting its potential as a therapeutic target for chronic infections. Collectively, our findings 511 demonstrate the collaborative role of keratinocytes, fibroblasts, and immune cells in immune 512 suppression through CXCL/SPP1 signaling, providing new avenues for the treatment of chronic wound 513 infections.

514

515 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

516 Our study provides a comprehensive comparison of the transcriptomic and cellular communication 517 profiles between uninfected and E. faecalis-infected full-thickness mouse skin wounds at four days post-518 infection. However, our study lacks a reference dataset of uninfected, unwounded dorsal skin 519 transcriptome, which would have allowed us to investigate transcriptomic changes temporally, 520 especially induced by the wounding alone. Although we explored public datasets to address this 521 limitation (Haensel et al., 2020; Vu et al., 2022), the low number of cells in public datasets, particularly for macrophage populations (data not shown), prevented their inclusion in our analysis. Additionally, 522 523 the absence of multiple time points hinders our ability to examine temporal changes and the dynamic 524 kinetics of host responses following infection.

525 METHODS

526 KEY RESOURCES TABLE

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Chemicals		
Bovine serum albumin	Merck	A7030
Brain Heart Infusion medium	Merck	53286
Collagenase type I	Thermo Fisher Scientific	17100017
Dispase II	Thermo Fisher Scientific	17105041
Dulbecco's phosphate buffered saline w/o Ca2+ and Mg2+	Thermo Fisher Scientific	141900094
Hank's balanced salt solution w/o $\rm Ca^{2+}$ and $\rm Mg^{2+}$	Thermo Fisher Scientific	88284
Isoflurane	Vetpharma Animal Health	NA
Liberase TM	Merck	5401119001
Luna SYBR Green	New England Biolabs	M3003
Nair Moisturising Hair Removal Cream	Chruch and Dwight Co	NA
Recombinant Mouse M-CSF	BioLegend	576404
Phosphate buffered saline	Gibco	14190144
TRIzol	Invitrogen	15596018
Trypsin/EDTA	Gibco	25-051-CI
Chromium Next GEM Chip G Single Cell Kit	10x Genomics	1000127
Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 3' Gel Bead Kit v3.1	10x Genomics	1000129
Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 3' GEM Kit v3.1	10x Genomics	1000130
Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 3' Kit v3.1	10x Genomics	1000269
Critical Commercial Assays		
Dual Index Kit TT Set A	10x Genomics	1000215
EZ-10 DNAaway RNA Mini-Preps kit	Bio Basic	BS88136-250
Library Construction Kit	10x Genomics	1000196
RevertAid Reverse Transcriptase	Thermo Fisher	01327685
Tube, Dynabeads MyOne SILANE	10x Genomics	2000048
Bacterial Strains		
Enterococcus faecalis OG1RF	Dunny <i>et al.</i> (Dunny et al., 1978)	WT OG1RF
Oligonucleotides		
Gene	Forward	Reverse
ActB	ATC AGC AAG CAG GAG TAC GAT	GTG TAA AAC GCA GCT CAG TAA CA

Arg1	CAG AAG AAT GGA AGA GTC AG	CAG ATA TGC AGG GAG TCA CC
Egf	TGG CTC GAA GTC AGA TCC ACA	TTC TCG GGC ACA TGG TTA ATG
Gapdh	TCA GGA GAG TGT TTC CTC GTC CC	TCT CGG CCT TGA CTG TGC CG
Fgf1	CCC TGA CCG AGA GGT TCA AC	GTC CCT TGT CCC ATC CAC G
Mrc1	TTC AGC TAT TGG ACG CGA GG	GAA TCT GAC ACC CAG CGG AA
Nos2	TGT CGC AGC TCC CTA TCT TG	GGA AGC CAC TGA CAC TTC GC
Pdgfa	TGG CTC GAA GTC AGA TCC ACA	TTC TCG GGC ACA TGG TTA ATG
Tgfb1	GGA AAT CAA CGG GAT CAG CCC	GCT GCC GCA CAC AGC AGT TC
Ubc	CCC AGT GTT ACC ACC AAG AAG	CCC CAT CAC ACC CAA GAA CA
Deposited Data		
Raw and processed scRNA-seq data	NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus	GSE229257
Processed Seurat Object	Zenodo	https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.760821 2
Experiment Models: Organisms/Strain		
Mouse C57BL/6	InVivos	n/a
Software and Algorithms		
anndata 0.8.0	PyPI	https://pypi.org
BioRender	https://biorender.com	n/a
CellChat 1.6.1	Jin <i>et al</i> . (Jin et al., 2021)	Jin <i>et al</i> . (Jin et al., 2021)
cellrank 1.5.1	Lange <i>et al.</i> (Lange et al., 2022)	Lange et al. (Lange et al., 2022)
Cell Ranger 6.1.2	10X Genomics, Inc.	https://www.10xgenomics.com
clustree 0.5.0	Zappia et al. (Zappia & Oshlack, 2018)	Zappia et al. (Zappia & Oshlack, 2018)
glmGamPoi 1.8.0	Ahlmann-Eltze <i>et al.</i> (Ahlmann-Eltze & Huber, 2021)	Ahlmann-Eltze et al. (Ahlmann-Eltze & Huber, 2021)
miQC 1.4.0	GitHub	https://github.com/greenelab/miQC
NicheNet	Browaeys <i>et al</i> . (Browaeys et al., 2020)	Browaeys et al. <u>(Browaeys et al.,</u> 2020)
numpy 1.23.5	PyPI	https://pypi.org
pandas 1.5.3	PyPI	https://pypi.org
PanglaoDB	PanglaoDB	https://panglaodb.se/markers.html
Prism 9.4.1	GraphPad Software	https://www.graphpad.com
PyCharm 2022.3.3	JetBrains	https://www.jetbrains.com
Python 3.9.16	Python Software Foundation	https://python.org
R 4.2.1	The R Foundation	https://www.r-project.org
RStudio 2022.07.2+576	Posit Software	https://posit.co
samtools 1.13	GitHub	https://github.com/samtools
scanpy 1.9.1	РуРІ	https://pypi.org
scipy 1.10.0	РуРІ	https://pypi.org
scDblFinder 1.10.0	Germain <i>et al.</i> (Germain et al., 2021)	<u>Germain</u> et al. (Germain et al., 2021)

sctransform 0.3.5	Choudhary <i>et al.</i> (Choudhary & Satija, 2022)	<u>Choudhary</u> et al. <u>(Choudhary & Satija,</u> 2022)
scvelo 0.2.5	Bergen <i>et al</i> . (Bergen et al., 2020)	<u>Bergen</u> et al. <u>(Bergen et al., 2020)</u>
Seurat 4.3.0	Hao <i>et al</i> . (Hao et al., 2021)	<u>Hao</u> et al. <u>(</u> Hao et al., 2021)
UMAP	McInnes <i>et al</i> . (McInnes et al., 2018)	https://github.com/Imcinnes/umap
velocyto.py 0.17.17	La Manno <i>et al</i> . (La Manno et al., 2018)	<u>La Manno</u> et al. <u>(La Manno et al.,</u> 2018)
WGCNA 1.72-1	Langfelder <i>et al</i> . (Langfelder & Horvath, 2008)	Langfelder et al. <u>(Langfelder &</u> Horvath, 2008)

527

528 RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

- 529 Lead Contact
- 530 Further information and requests for resources should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the lead
- 531 contacts, Kimberly Kline, at kimberly.kline@unige.ch and Guillaume Thibault, at thibault@ntu.edu.sg.

532

533 Material Availability

534 This study did not generate new reagents.

535

536 Data and Code Availability

537 The accession number for the raw data reported in this paper is GSE229257. The processed data are

538 available at Zenodo (<u>https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7608212</u>).

539

540 METHOD DETAILS

541 Mouse wound infection model

542 In vivo procedures were approved by the Animal Care and Use Committee of the Biological Resource 543 Centre (Nanyang Technological University, Singapore) in accordance with the guidelines of the Agri-544 Food and Veterinary Authority and the National Advisory Committee for Laboratory Animal Research 545 of Singapore (ARF SBS/NIEA-0314). Male C57BL/6 mice were housed at the Research Support 546 Building animal facility under pathogen-free conditions. Mice between 5-7 weeks old (22–25 g; InVivos, 547 Singapore) were used for the wound infection model, modified from a previous study (Keogh et al., 2016). Briefly, mice were anesthetized with 3% isoflurane. Dorsal hair was removed by shaving, 548 549 followed by hair removal cream (Nair cream, Church and Dwight Co) application. The shaven skin was 550 then disinfected with 70% ethanol and a 6-mm full-thickness wound was created using a biopsy punch

(Integra Miltex, New York). Two mice were infected with 10 µl of 2 x10⁸ bacteria/ml inoculum (*Enterococcus faecalis* OG1RF strain), while the other two served as controls for uninfected wounds. All wounds were sealed with transparent dressing (Tegaderm, 3M, St Paul Minnesota). Mice were euthanized four days post-infection (4 dpi), and wounds collected immediately using a biopsy punch with minimal adjacent healthy skin were stored in Hanks 'Buffered Salt Solution (HBSS; Ca²⁺/Mg²⁺-free; Sigma Aldrich, Cat. #H4385) supplemented with 0.5% bovine serum albumin (BSA; Sigma Aldrich, Cat. #A7030).

559 In vitro culture and infection of bone marrow-derived macrophages

560 Murine bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMDMs) were isolated from bone marrow cells of 7-8 561 weeks old C57BL/6 male mice as described previously (Toda et al., 2021), except that BMDMs were 562 differentiated in 100 mm non-treated square dishes (Thermo Scientific, Singapore) with supplementation of 50 ng/ml M-CSF (BioLegend, Singapore). On day 6, differentiated BMDMs were 563 harvested by gentle cell scraping in Dulbecco's PBS (DPBS; Gibco, Singapore), and 10⁶ BMDMs were 564 565 seeded in 6-well plates using bone marrow growth medium without antibiotics. Following overnight 566 incubation, the growth medium was replaced with complete DMEM (DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS) for E. faecalis infection. Log-phase E. faecalis OG1RF cultures were washed and normalized to 567 568 an OD₆₀₀/ml of 0.5 in complete DMEM, equivalent to approximately 3 x 10⁸ CFU/ml. BMDMs were then 569 infected with OG1RF at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 10 for 1 h, followed by centrifugation at 1,000 x g for 5 min prior to incubation to promote BMDM-bacteria contact. For uninfected controls, complete 570 571 DMEM was added instead of MOI 10 bacterial suspension. At 1 hpi, BMDM were washed thrice with DPBS and incubated in complete DMEM supplemented with 10 µg/ml vancomycin and 150 µg/ml 572 573 gentamicin for 23 h to kill extracellular bacteria, until a final time point of 24 hpi.

574

575 Quantitative qPCR analysis

576 Total mRNA was extracted using the TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen, cat. # 15596018) and purified using 577 an EZ-10 DNAaway RNA Mini-Preps Kit (Bio Basic, cat. #BS88136-250). Complementary DNA (cDNA) 578 was synthesized from total RNA using RevertAid Reverse Transcriptase (Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA, 579 cat. # 01327685) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Real-time PCR was performed using Luna 580 SYBR Green (New England Biolabs, UK) according to the manufacturer's protocol using a CFX-96

⁵⁵⁸

Real-time PCR system (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA). A 100-ng of cDNA and 0.25 μM of the paired primer mix for target genes were used for each reaction. Relative mRNA was normalized to the housekeeping gene glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (*Gapdh*) or a geometric mean of Ct values from beta-actin (*Actb*) and ubiquitin (*Ubc*) housekeeping genes, as calculated by BestKeeper (Pfaffl et al., 2004) and log2 fold changes were plotted with reference to the uninfected, unwounded skin. The primer pairs used in this study are listed in the Key Resources Table.

587

588 Dissociation of tissue and library preparation

589 Tissues were transferred to a sterile 10 mm² tissue culture dish and cut into small fragments using 590 a sterile blade. The dissociation cocktail [10 mg/ml of dispase II (GIBCO, Cat. #17105041), 250 591 mg/ml of collagenase type I (GIBCO, cat. #17100017), and 2.5 mg/ml of liberase TM (Roche, cat. 592 #5401119001)] was dissolved in HBSS. The tissue was digested enzymatically in pre-warmed 593 dissociation buffer for 2 h at 37°C with manual orbital shaking every 15 min and then the 594 dissociated cells were sifted through a sterile 70-µm cell strainer (Corning, cat. #352350) on ice and washed thrice with HBSS supplemented with 0.04% BSA. The remaining undigested tissue on the filter 595 was re-incubated in 0.05%^{w/v} trypsin/EDTA (GIBCO, cat. #25-051-CI) for 15 min at 37°C. Trypsin-596 597 digested cells were pooled with cells on ice by sifting through a sterile 70-µm cell strainer. The pooled cell suspension was washed thrice with HBSS supplemented with 0.04% BSA, followed by final 598 599 filtering using a sterile 40-µm cell strainer (Corning, cat. #352340). The cell suspensions were 600 centrifuged at 300 x g for 10 min, and the pellets were resuspended in Dulbecco's phosphate-buffered 601 saline (DPBS; Thermo Fisher Scientific, cat. #14190094). Cell viability was determined by using 602 Countess 3 FL Automated Cell Counter (Invitrogen) by mixing cell suspension with 0.4% trypan blue 603 stain (Invitrogen, cat. #T10282) at a ratio of 1:1 for a minimum of four counts per sample. Isolated cells 604 were encapsulated for single-cell RNA sequencing with microfluidic partitioning using the Chromium 605 Single Cell 3' Reagent Kits (v3.1 Chemistry Dual Index, Protocol #CG000315), targeting 8,000 cells 606 (10X Genomics, Pleasanton, CA). Libraries then were pooled by condition and sequenced on the 607 HiSeq6000 system by NovogeneAIT (Singapore). A detailed protocol can be found at protocols.io 608 (dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.yxmvmn8m9g3p/v1).

609

610 Data Processing

611 Raw data (.bcl) was used as an input to Cell Ranger (v6.1.2, 10X Genomics) with *mkfastq* function for trimming, base calling, and demultiplexing of reads by NovogeneAIT (Singapore). FASTQ files were 612 613 aligned, filtered, barcoded and UMI counted using cellranger count command using GENCODE 614 vM23/Ensembl 98 (https://cf.10xgenomics.com/supp/cell-exp/refdata-gex-GRCh38-2020-A.tar.gz) 615 mouse reference genome with --expect cells of 8,000 per sample on the National Supercomputer 616 Centre Singapore (NSCC) High Power Computing platform (ASPIRE 1). The raw data can be found at 617 Gene Expression Omnibus with the accession number GSE229257.

618

619 Integration and downstream analysis

620 Datasets from each sample were integrated using Seurat version 4.3.0 (Hao et al., 2021) on R (v4.2.1) 621 using RStudio interface (RStudio 2022.07.2+576 "Spotted Wakerobin" release) on macOS Ventura 622 (13.0.1). Briefly, Seurat objects were created based on the criteria of a minimum of 3 cells expressing 623 a minimum of 200 features. Low-quality cells were determined by a probabilistic approach using the miQC package (v1.4.0). Similarly, doublets were removed with scDblFinder v1.10.0 (Germain et al., 624 625 2021). Cell cycle stages were determined by using Seurat's built-in updated cell-cycle gene list. Feature 626 counts were normalized using SCTransform() v2 regularization (Choudhary & Satija, 2022) with a 627 scaling factor of 1x10⁴ and Gamma-Poisson Generalized Linear Model by glmGamPoi() function 628 (Ahlmann-Eltze & Huber, 2021), during which cell cycles and mitochondrial genes were regressed out 629 for integration of 3,000 anchors. Fourteen principal components (PC) were included in dimension 630 reduction calculated by the point where the change of percentage of variation was more than 0.1% between the two consecutive PCs. First, k-Nearest Neighbors were computed using pca reduction, 631 632 followed by identifying original Louvain clusters with a resolution of 0.7 calculated by *clustree* v0.5.0 633 (Zappia & Oshlack, 2018). Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) was used for 634 visualization throughout the study (McInnes et al., 2018). A log 2-fold-change of 0.5 was set to identify 635 gene expression markers for all clusters with min.pct of 0.25. Density plots were generated in the Nebulosa (v1.6.0) package to demonstrate specific cell population signatures. Finally, we computed 636 637 weighted gene co-expression networks for describing the correlation patterns among genes across 638 samples (Langfelder & Horvath, 2008). We also compared the 2D UMAP representations of the two 639 conditions. Using the integrated dataset, we split the dataset based on the conditions by the built-in

640 SplitObject() function of the Seurat package. Then, we computed a cross-entropy test for the 641 UMAP projections by applying a two-sided Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Roca et al., 2023).

642

643 Cell type annotation

An unbiased cell annotation was conducted at two levels using the *ScType* algorithm with slight modifications (lanevski et al., 2022). First, we identified mega classes using gene set signatures on PanglaoDB (<u>https://panglaodb.se/;</u> Acc. date August 2022). Secondly, we further detailed each cluster based on published comprehensive mouse skin datasets (Joost et al., 2020; Joost et al., 2016). The processed Seurat object can be found at Zenodo (<u>https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7608212</u>).

649

650 Cell-cell interactions

651 NicheNet's differential R implementation (v1.1.1) was used to interrogate cell-cell interactions 652 (Browaeys et al., 2020). Three databases provided, namely ligand-target prior model, ligand-receptor 653 network, and weighted integrated networks, were used NicheNet's Seurat wrapper where endothelial 654 cells were set as the receiver (receptor) cell population, and keratinocytes, fibroblasts, and 655 macrophages were defined as the sender (ligand) populations. The NicheNet heat map was plotted to 656 visualize the ligand activity-target cell gene expression matrix. We further compared cell-cell 657 interactions between different niches to better predict niche-specific ligand-receptor (L-R) pairs using 658 differential NicheNet analysis. CellChat (v1.6.1) was used to further identify secreted ligand-receptor 659 pairs across all cell populations (Jin et al., 2021).

660

661 RNA velocity analysis

662 BAM files generated during the alignment of the raw data in Cell Ranger, were sorted by cell barcodes 663 with sort -t CB using samtools (v1.13) in the command line. Spliced and unspliced reads were 664 annotated in velocyto.py (v0.17.17) pipeline (La Manno et al., 2018), with repeats mask annotation file 665 downloaded from https://genome.ucsc.edu/ for mouse reference genome to generate .loom files. To 666 solve full transcriptomics dynamics, we used the generalized dynamic model on scVelo v0.2.0 (Bergen 667 et al., 2020) in Python 3 (v3.9.16) virtual environment set up in PyCharm (Education License v2022.3.3, 668 build PY-223.8836.43; JetBrains, Czechia), and visualized main cell populations and subset analysis 669 with velocity stream plots and individual genes that drive RNA velocity. Lineage driving genes were

670	computed in CellRank v1.5.1 (Lange et al., 2022). Annotated data (anndata) files for each cell
671	population and condition can be found at <u>https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7608772</u> . The R scripts and
672	complete Jupyter notebooks are also available at https://github.com/cenk-celik/Celik_et_al.

673

674 Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed in *R*, python and Prism 9 (v9.4.1, GraphPad) whichever was applicable for the type of analysis. *P* values were adjusted with the Benjamini-Hochberg method for high-dimensional data analysis. The details of the significance and type of the test were indicated in the figure legends. Data are expressed as median \pm SEM. A p-value of 0.05 was set as a significance threshold unless stated otherwise.

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693

694 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization, C.C., K.A.K. and G.T.; Methodology, C.C., F.R.T., K.A.K. and G.T.; Software, C.C.;
Validation, C.C.; Formal Analysis, C.C. and F.R.T.; Investigation, C.C., S.Y.T.L., F.R.T., and M.V.;
Resources, C.C. and M.V., Data Curation, C.C.; Writing – Original Draft; C.C., K.A.K., and G.T.; Writing

698 – Review & Editing, S.Y.T.L., F.R.T, K.A.K., and G.T.; Visualization, C.C. and G.T.; Supervision, K.A.K.

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701 DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

703

704 ADDITIONAL FILES

- **Table S1**. Number of cells in each Louvain cluster grouped by condition. Related to Figure 1.
- 706 **Table S2**. Differential expression table of genes for the main class clusters. Related to Figure 1C.
- 707 **Table S3**. Differential expression table of genes for the main uninfected class clusters. Related to
- Figure 1C.
- 709 **Table S4**. Differential expression table of genes for the main infected class clusters. Related to Figure
- 710 1C.
- 711 **Table S5**. Differential expression table of genes for sub-clustered keratinocytes. Related to Figure 2.
- 712 **Table S6**. CellChat comparison for ligand:receptor pairs for the uninfected and infected datasets.
- 713 Related to Figures 2-6.
- 714 **Table S7**. Differential expression table of genes for sub-clustered fibroblasts. Related to Figure 3.
- 715 **Table S8**. Differential expression table of genes for sub-clustered myeloid clusters. Related to Figure
- 716 4.
- 717 **Table S9**. Differential expression table of genes for sub-clustered neutrophil clusters. Related to
- 718 Figure 5.

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- 1102 1103

1104 FIGURE LEGENDS

1105

1106 Figure 1. Mouse skin wound infection atlas.

1107 (A) Gene expression of healing markers Pdgfa, Tgfb1 and Egf four days post-infection (4 dpi) for 1108 uninfected and E. faecalis-infected 6-7-week-old C57BL/6J mouse skin wounds, normalized to intact 1109 skin (n = 6 for skin; n = 8 for wounds; one-way ANOVA). (B) Single-cell RNA sequencing workflow of 1110 full-thickness mouse wounds. (C) Integrated dataset of ~23,000 scRNA-seg libraries from uninfected 1111 and infected wounds identifies 5 mega cell classes indicated in the UMAP. (D) UMAP colored by the 1112 uninfected and infected conditions. (E) Schematic describing the color-matched cell types with that of 1113 the clusters in Figure S1F. (F) Dot plot depicting the top two cell type-specific markers in the integrated 1114 data. Legend indicates average expression and dot size represents percent expression. (G) Density 1115 plots depict cell types described in C. (H) Heat map of weighted gene co-expression network analysis 1116 for annotated cell populations, colored by bars matching mega clusters and annotated cell types in C.

1117

1118 Figure 2. Sub-clustering of keratinocyte populations reveals infection-specific cell types.

1119 (A) UMAP of integrated keratinocyte (basal, suprabasal, hair follicle, bulge, and sebaceous gland) 1120 population reveals 19 clusters. (B) Infected keratinocytes (green) show unique and shared clusters with 1121 uninfected keratinocytes (purple). (C) Spatial dispersion of Krt5 and Krt10 abundance in keratinocytes. 1122 (D) Expression of Lgr5, IvI, Lor, and Krt15 in Louvain clusters shown in A. (E) Heat map of top 5 1123 differentially expressed marker genes for each cluster in keratinocytes. Rectangle boxes indicate 1124 infection-specific Louvain clusters. (F-G) The bar plots show the top 15 Gene Ontology terms for 1125 infection-specific (F) Zeb2^{hi} (cluster 0) and (G) Gjb6^{hi} (cluster 6) keratinocyte populations. (H-I) Dynamic 1126 RNA velocity estimation of uninfected (H) and infected (I) keratinocytes. (J) The top lineage driver gene, 1127 Rgs1, in infected keratinocytes, was ubiquitously expressed in infection-specific Louvain clusters. (K) 1128 Gene expression dynamics resolved along latent time in the top 50 likelihood-ranked genes of infected 1129 keratinocytes. The colored bar at the top indicates Louvain clusters in I. Legend describes scaled gene 1130 expression. (L) Inferred ligand-receptor pairs outgoing from infected keratinocytes. (M) The hierarchy 1131 tree depicts the trajectory of differentiating and terminally differentiated keratinocyte cells originating 1132 from basal keratinocytes.

1133

1134 Figure 3. *E. faecalis* delays immune response in fibroblasts.

1135 (A) UMAP of integrated fibroblasts reveals 12 clusters. (B) Infected fibroblasts (green) show unique 1136 and shared clusters with uninfected fibroblasts (purple). (C) Spatial dispersion of Col1a1 and Col1a2 1137 abundance in fibroblasts. (D) Expression of Eln, Aspn, Pdgfrb and Fap in Louvain clusters shown in A. 1138 (E) Heat map of top 5 differentially expressed marker genes for each cluster in fibroblasts. Rectangle 1139 boxes indicate infection-specific Louvain clusters. (F-G) The bar plots show the top 15 Gene Ontology terms for infection-specific (F) Lyz2^{hi}/TaqIn^{hi} (cluster 0) and (G) Timp1^{hi} (cluster 2) fibroblast 1140 1141 populations. (H-I) Dynamic RNA velocity estimation of uninfected (H) and infected (I) fibroblasts. (J) 1142 The top lineage driver gene, Csgalnac1, expression in infected fibroblasts. (K) Gene expression 1143 dynamics resolved along latent time in the top 50 likelihood-ranked genes of infected fibroblasts. The 1144 colored bar at the top indicates Louvain clusters in I. Legend describes scaled gene expression. (L) 1145 While uninfected fibroblasts show healing phenotypes, infected fibroblasts undergo two transitioning 1146 phases: (i) contractile and (ii) pathologic.

1147

1148 Figure 4. Macrophages display M2-like polarization.

1149 (A) UMAP of the integrated myeloid population reveals 9 macrophages, 2 dendritic cells, and one 1150 Langerhans cell cluster. (B) Infected myeloid (green) population show unique and shared clusters with 1151 the uninfected myeloid (purple) population. (C) Spatial distribution of Lyz2 (macrophage) and Itgax (DC 1152 and LC) abundance in fibroblasts. (D) Gene expression Mrc1, Nos2 and Arg1 in mouse wounds at 4dpi, 1153 normalized to homeostatic skin (*n* = 6 for skin; *n* = 8 for wounds; one-way ANOVA). (E) In vitro infection 1154 of unpolarized (M0) bone marrow-derived murine macrophages (BMDMs) resulted in a down-regulation 1155 of TRM-associated marker Mrc1 and an upregulation of M2-like markers Nos2 and Arg1. Data are 1156 pooled from 2 biological replicates (shown in light and dark circles respectively) of 3 technical replicates 1157 each. (F) Spatial distribution of TRM and M2-like macrophage markers, Mrc1 and Arg1, respectively. 1158 (G) Expression of Mrc1, Adgre1, Arg1, Itgax, Cd207 and Nos2 in the integrated myeloid dataset. (H-I) 1159 Dynamic RNA velocity estimation of uninfected (H) and infected (I) myeloid cells. (J) The top lineage 1160 driver gene, *Fth1*, was ubiquitously expressed in terminal macrophage populations. (K) Putative driver 1161 genes of infected macrophages. (L) The proposed model describes macrophage characteristics, where 1162 neutrophil-attracting and wound repair-associated macrophages were involved in uninfected wound 1163 healing. In contrast, bacteria-infected wounds are enriched in efferocytotic macrophages and matrix-1164 producing macrophages.

1165 Figure 5. Crosstalk between neutrophils and anti-inflammatory macrophages regulates the CCL

1166 signaling pathway.

1167 (A) UMAP of the integrated myeloid population reveals 6 Louvain clusters. (B) The infected neutrophil 1168 (green) population shows unique and shared clusters with the uninfected neutrophil (purple) population. 1169 (C) Spatial organization of Csf3r and Itgam abundance in neutrophils. (D) Expression of Cxcr2, Fcgr3, 1170 Fth1 and Camk1d in Louvain clusters. (E) Heat map of top 5 differentially expressed marker genes in 1171 neutrophils. Rectangle boxes indicate infection-specific Louvain clusters. (F-G) The bar plots show the top 15 Gene Ontology terms for infection-specific (F) Lrg1^{hi} (cluster 0) and (G) Csf1^{hi} (cluster 2) 1172 1173 populations. (H) Dynamic RNA velocity estimation of infected neutrophils. (I) The top lineage driver 1174 gene, *Entpd1*, was ubiquitously expressed in *Lrg1*^{hi} neutrophils (cluster 0). (J) Putative driver genes of 1175 infected neutrophil clusters. (K) Cytokine signaling pathway (CCL) cell-cell interaction map. (L) Gene 1176 expression of cytokines Cc/3, Cc/4, and Cc/6 in neutrophils. (M) Ccl3:Ccr1 ligand-receptor interaction 1177 mediate neutrophil-macrophage crosstalk.

1178

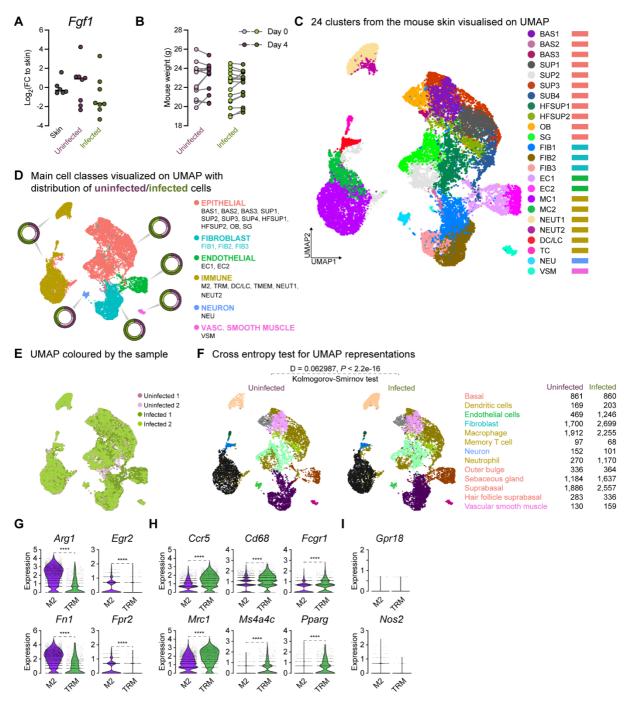
1179 **Figure 6. Macrophage-EC interactions display an anti-inflammatory niche.**

(A) UMAP of integrated endothelial cells reveals 13 clusters. (B) Infected endothelial cells (green) show 1180 1181 unique and shared clusters with uninfected endothelial cells (purple). (C-D) Gene Ontology analysis of 1182 infection-specific clusters 0 (C) and 8 (D). (E) Dynamic RNA velocity estimation of infected endothelial 1183 cells. (F) The top lineage driver genes, Malat1, Tcf4. Plcb1, Diaph2, Bmpr2, and Adamts9 in infected 1184 endothelial cells. (G) NicheNet interaction heat map between keratinocytes, fibroblasts, macrophages, 1185 and endothelial cells. Note the macrophage *ll1b*-specific *Bgn* induction in infected ECs. (H) The dot plot 1186 depicts interactions between endothelial cells (receptors) and keratinocytes, fibroblasts, and 1187 macrophages (ligands). Rows demonstrate a ligand-receptor pair for the indicated cell-cell interactions 1188 (column). (I) Differential interaction strengths of a cellular interactome for TNF, SPP1 and CXCL 1189 signaling pathways between all cell types in infection. (J) Spp1, Cxcl2, and Cxcl3 gene expression in 1190 keratinocytes, M2-like macrophages, and fibroblasts (Wilcoxon Rank Sum test, ***p < 0.0001).

Supplemental information

Decoding the complexity of delayed wound healing following *Enterococcus faecalis* infection

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SUPPLEMENTAL FIGURES

Figure S1. Comparison of 4dpi characteristics between uninfected and *E. faecalis* infected *in vivo* and scRNA-seq data.

(A) Gene expression of fibroblast growth factor 1 (*Fgf1*) four days post-infection (4dpi) for uninfected and *E. faecalis*-infected 6–7-week-old C57BL/6J mouse skin wounds, normalized to homeostatic skin (*n* = 6 for skin; *n* = 8 for wounds; one-way ANOVA). (B) Weight of mice from wounding (Day 0) until 4 dpi. (C-D) Integrated Louvain clustering of ~23,000 scRNA-seq libraries from uninfected and infected wounds identifies 24 clusters (C) in 5 mega clusters (D), where colored circles show the contribution to the individual clusters for each condition. (E) UMAP colored by the sample, where shades of purple and green represent uninfected and infected conditions, respectively. (F) Cross entropy test for UMAP representations of uninfected and infected single-cell datasets (*P* value < 2.2 x 10⁻¹⁶, two-sided Kolmogorov-Smirnov test). (G-I) Comparisons of M2-like macrophage polarization (M2) markers *Arg1*, *Egr2*, *Fn1* and *Fpr2* (G), tissue-resident macrophage (TRM) markers *Ccr5*, *Cd68*, *Fcgr1*, *Mrc1* (*Cd206*),

Ms4a4c, and *Pparg* (H), and M1-like macrophage polarization markers *Grp18* and *Nos2* (*iNos*) between the two annotated macrophage clusters (I). Wilcoxon Rank Sum test, ****p < 0.0001.

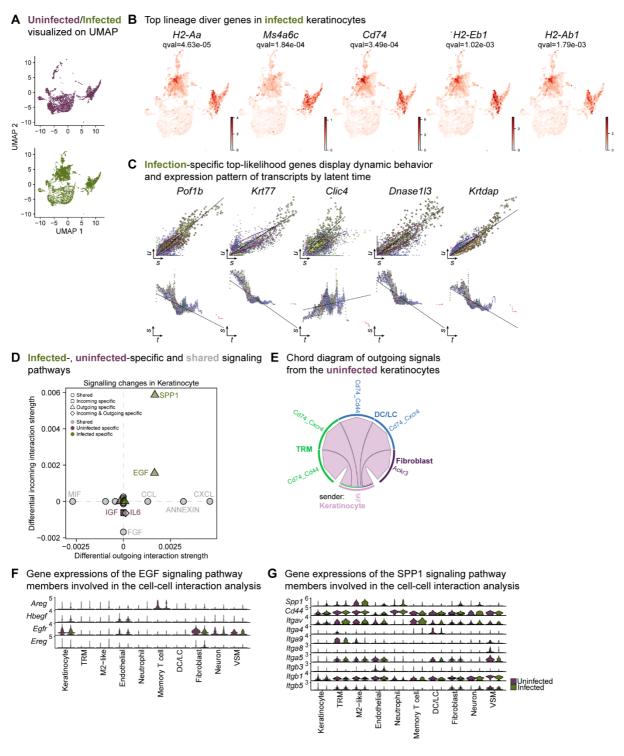
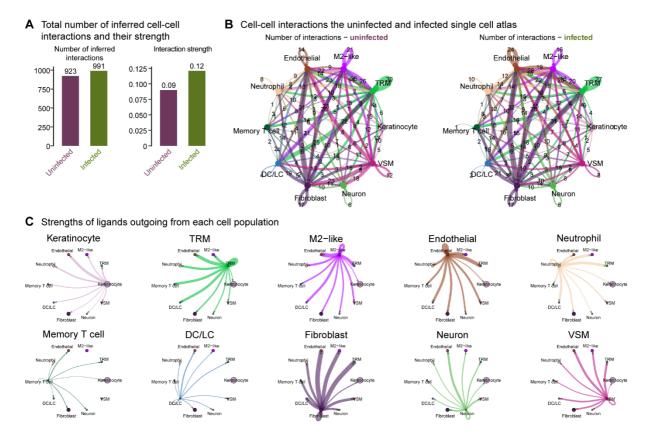


Figure S2. Infection-specific keratinocytes display differential transcriptome.

(A) UMAP representations of the extended analysis of keratinocytes from uninfected and infected wounds. (B) The lineage driver genes, H2-Aa, Ms4a6c, Cd74, H2-Eb1 and H2-Ab1 in infected keratinocytes were ubiquitously expressed in infection-specific Louvain clusters. (C) Infection-specific top-likelihood genes display dynamic behavior (top row) and expression pattern of transcripts by latent time (bottom row). Axes denote u for unspliced; s for spliced; t for latent time. (D) Infected- (green), uninfected-specific (purple) and shared (grey) signaling pathways in keratinocytes inferred from CellChat. (E) Chord diagram of outgoing signals from the uninfected keratinocyte population. (F-G) Gene expression of the EGF (F) and SPP1 (G) signaling pathway members involved in the cell-cell interaction analysis.





(A) Total number of inferred cell-cell interactions and their strength computed by CellChat. (B) A map of cell-cell interactions in the uninfected and infected single-cell atlas, indicating the number of interactions outgoing at each node. (C) The strengths of ligands outgoing from each cell population.

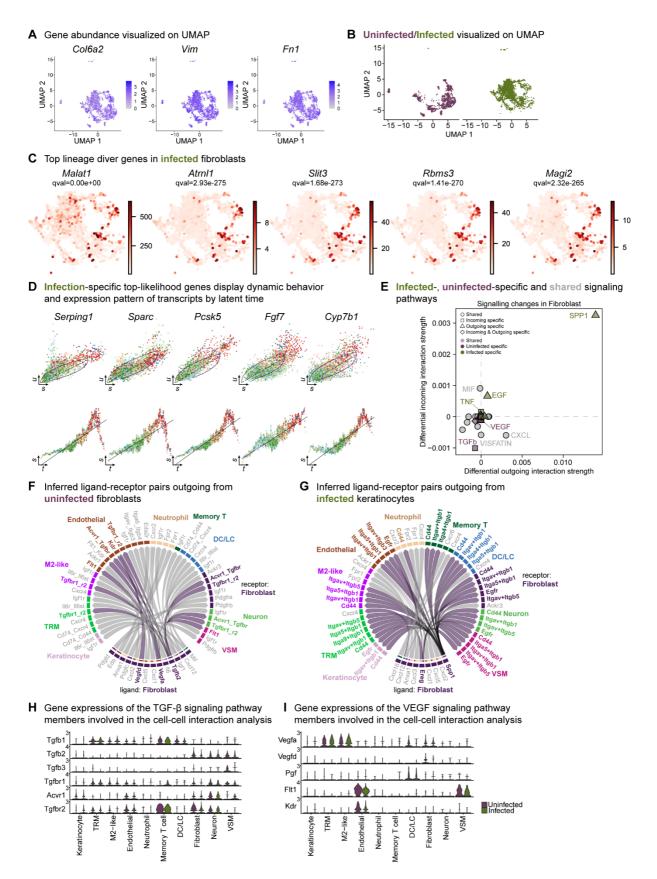


Figure S4. Extended analysis of the fibroblast population reveals unique signatures.

(A) Spatial dispersion of fibroblast markers *Col6a2*, *Vim*, and *Fn1* in the extended analysis integrated data. (B) Extended analysis of fibroblasts displays infection- and healing-specific clusters. (C) The lineage driver genes *Malat1*, *Atrnl1*, *Slit3*, *Rbms3*, and *Magi2* were predominantly expressed in infected fibroblasts. (D) Infection-specific top-likelihood genes display dynamic behavior (top row) and

expression pattern of transcripts by latent time (bottom row). Axes denote *u* for unspliced; *s* for spliced; *t* for latent time. **(E)** Infected- (green), uninfected-specific (purple) and shared (grey) signaling pathways in fibroblasts inferred from CellChat. **(F-G)** Chord diagram of ligand-receptor pairs in the uninfected (F) and infected (G) fibroblasts. **(I)** Inferred ligand-receptor pairs outgoing from infected fibroblasts **(H-I)** Gene expression of the TGF- β (F) and VEGF (G) signaling pathway members involved in the cell-cell interaction analysis.

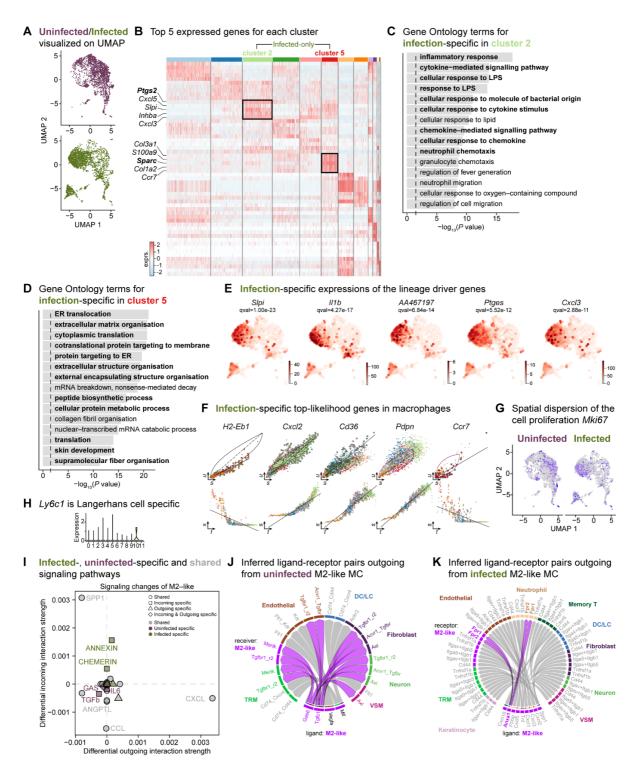
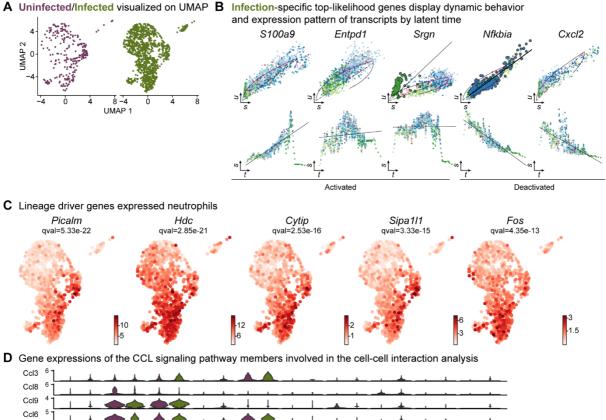


Figure S5. The mega myeloid cell population displays M2-like polarization signatures.

(A) Split UMAP representations of the uninfected and infected myeloid cells. (B) Heat map of top 5 differentially expressed marker genes in macrophages. Rectangle boxes indicate infection-specific Louvain clusters. (C-D) The bar plots show the top 15 Gene Ontology terms for infection-specific $Ptgs2^+$ (cluster 2) (C) and $Sparc^+$ (cluster 5) macrophages (D). (E) Infection-specific expression of the lineage driver genes *Slpi*, *II1b*, *AA467197*, *Ptges*, and *Cxcl3* indicate delayed inflammation. (F) Infection-specific top-likelihood genes, *Cxcl2*, *Cd36*, and *Pdpn*, were activated, while *H2-Eb1* and *Ccr7* were consumed in macrophages. (G) Spatial dispersion of the cell proliferation marker (*Mki67*). (H) Expression of *Ly6c1* was Langerhans cell-specific. (I) Infected- (green), uninfected-specific (purple), and shared (grey) signaling pathways in M2-like macrophages. (J) Chord diagram of ligand-receptor pairs in the uninfected M2-like macrophages. (K) Inferred ligand-receptor pairs outgoing from infected M2-like macrophages.



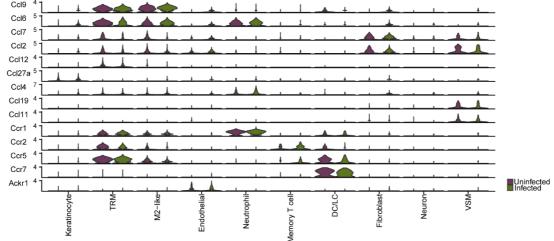


Figure S6. Neutrophil infiltration was enhanced in response to *E. faecalis* infection.

(A) UMAP representations of the extended analysis of neutrophil populations in each condition. (B) Infection-specific top-likelihood genes display dynamic behavior (top row) and expression pattern of transcripts by latent time (bottom row). (C) Lineage driver genes *Picalm*, *Hdc*, *Cytip*, *Sipa1l1*, and *Fos* were highly expressed in *Lrg1^{hi}* neutrophils. (D) Gene expression of the CCL signaling pathway members involved in the cell-cell interaction analysis.

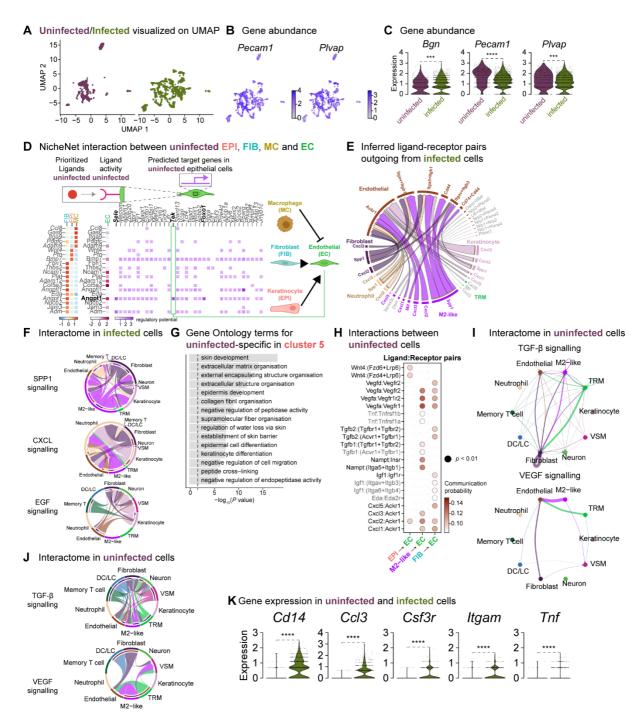


Figure S7. Fibroblasts orchestrate a reparative niche in the uninfected wounds.

(A) UMAP representations of the uninfected and infected endothelial subsets. (B) Spatial dispersion of endothelial cell signatures *Pecam1* and *Plvap*. (C) Expressions of *Bgn*, *Pecam1*, and *Plvap* in endothelial cells (Wilcoxon Rank Sum test, **** P < 0.0001, *** P < 0.001). (D) NicheNet interaction heat map between keratinocytes, fibroblasts, macrophages, and endothelial cells. Note the specific pairing of the fibroblast ligand angiopoietin 1 (*Angpt1*) with the TEK tyrosine receptor (*Tek*) in the uninfected niche. (E) Chord diagram of the cellular interactome between keratinocytes, fibroblasts, macrophages, and endothelial cells from infected populations. (F) Chord diagrams of the cellular interactome for TNF, SPP1 and CXCL signaling pathways across all cell types in infection. (G) Gene Ontology analysis of the uninfected specific ECs. (H) Dot plot of ligand:receptor pairs in the healing niche. (I) Differential interaction strengths of the cellular interactome for TGF- β and VEGF signaling pathways in the unwounded niche. (K) Infection-specific expression of Cd14, Ccl3, Csf3r, *Itgam*, and *Tnf* in endothelial cells (Wilcoxon Rank Sum test, **** P < 0.0001).

