Surface Hydrophilicity Promotes Bacterial Twitching Motility

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Abstract

The bacterial type IV pilus (T4P) is a critical virulence factor for many pathogens. These include

Acinetobacter baumannii and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, which are WHO priority pathogens

because of their increasing antibiotic resistance. The T4P powers bacterial twitching motility

which is frequently analyzed by interstitial colony expansion between agar and the polystyrene

surfaces of plastic Petri dishes. In such assays with Petri dishes, the twitching motility of

Acinetobacter nosocomialis, an opportunistic human pathogen, was observed with MacConkey

but not Luria-Bertani (LB) agar media. One difference between these two media is that bile salts

are present as a selective agent in MacConkey but not in LB. We found here that that the

addition of bile salts to LB allowed *A. nosocomialis* to display twitching. Similarly,

supplementation of bile salts to LB enhanced the twitching of *A. baumannii* and *P. aeruginosa*.

These observations suggest that there is a common mechanism for bile salts to enhance bacterial

twitching to promote interstitial colony expansion. Bile salts are used to inhibit the growth of

Gram$^+$ bacteria in MacConkey as they are detergents that can disrupt lipid membranes.

Surprisingly, their effects on twitching motility are more related to the alteration of

physicochemical properties of twitching surfaces rather than a change in bacterial physiology.

This is because bacteria displayed increased twitching motility on hydrophilic surfaces such as

those of glass and plasma-treated polystyrene plastics. On such surfaces, twitching motility is no

longer stimulated by bile salts. We conclude that the hydrophilicity of surfaces, such as those of

animal tissues as well as of medical implants and devices, may significantly impact the

functionality of T4P as a virulence factor and its interaction with hosts in the establishment and

persistence of a bacterial infection.

Introduction

Twitching motility is a form of non-flagellated bacterial translocation that allows bacteria to move on or between solid surfaces [1]. This type of motility is powered by the bacterial type IV pilus (T4P) and the supramolecular T4P machinery (T4PM) [2-5]. In the current model, it is the recurrent cycles of T4P extension and retraction that powers this bacterial surface motility [6]. The T4PM assembles the long T4P protein filament that protrudes from a cell into its surroundings. When the tip of an assembled or extended T4P attaches to a solid substratum, the retraction of the T4P by the T4PM moves a bacterium directionally. This results in the translocation of bacterial cells on or between solid surfaces, resulting in bacterial twitching motility [7].

More important to human health, T4P plays a crucial role in the pathogenesis of many important bacterial pathogens [8-13]. These include World Health Organization (WHO) priority pathogens [14], *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Acinetobacter baumannii* which use T4P to adhere to human cells or tissues to initiate colonization and invasion [1, 15, 16]. *Acinetobacter nosocomialis*, a close relative of *A. baumannii*, is itself an opportunistic pathogen primarily causing nosocomial or hospital-acquired infections [17]. Additionally, the *A. nosocomialis* M2 strain has been used as a model system for *Acinetobacter* studies of pathogenesis [16, 18, 19]. Although the lack of flagellated motility led to the acineto- or non-motile designation for this genus, many *Acinetobacter* species, in fact, possess T4P and exhibit the T4P-dependent twitching motility [20]. As such, twitching motility provides a convenient assay for bacterial T4P in these medically important pathogens.

Twitching motility is commonly analyzed by observing interstitial colony expansion between the surfaces of solidified nutrient agar and of plastic Petri dishes made of polystyrene

[21]. It was observed previously that *A. nosocomialis* exhibited twitching only with MacConkey

agar, but not Luria-Burtani (LB) agar on these polystyrene petri dishes [22]. Notwithstanding

their commonalities, LB lacks peptone, lactose and bile salts that are present in MacConkey.

Peptone is a proteinous nutrient source and lactose is a carbon and energy source. Bile salts,

primarily sodium glycocholate and sodium taurocholate, are detergents produced from

cholesterol degradation in humans and other vertebrates [23]. They are included in MacConkey

as a selective agent against Gram$^+$ bacteria and for enteric bacteria. The amphipathic nature of

bile salts allows them to interact with hydrophilic and hydrophobic molecules, thus enabling

them to result in envelope stress on bacteria [24] or alter the physicochemical properties of solid

surfaces they are applied to [25].

In this study, we examined the composition of MacConkey media and determined that

bile salts are stimulatory of *A. nosocomialis* twitching motility on polystyrene Petri dishes. We

also observed similar stimulatory effects of bile salts on the twitching of *P. aeruginosa* and *A.*

baumannii. Our results further demonstrate that other detergents likewise can enhance bacterial

twitching on polystyrene surfaces. Antibiotics, including outer membrane-targeting polymyxin

B, do not increase *P. aeruginosa* twitching motility, suggesting that the mechanism for the

stimulatory effect of bile salts is unlikely related to a bacterial response to envelope or

antimicrobial stress. Instead, we discovered that it was the hydrophilicity of surfaces that

promotes bacterial twitching. Plasma-treated polystyrene or glass surfaces, which are more

hydrophilic, for example, promote twitching motility significantly without detergents. The

results here suggest that bacterial pathogens may have evolved mechanisms to differentially

interact with surfaces with different physicochemical properties to optimize host recognition,

colonization and infections.

Results

Bile salts enable *A. nosocomialis* twitching motility in agar plates. It has been reported in the

literature that *Acinetobacter nosocomialis* displays twitching motility in agar plate assays with

MacConkey but not in LB [22]. In these assays, bacterial cells are stabbed through the agar to form an

interstitial colony on the Petri dish surface below agar [21]. The size of an interstitial colony can be

measured to quantify twitching motility in such assays. As shown in Figure 1, the *A. nosocomialis* M2

strain shows clear twitching with MacConkey, but not with LB agar. These results here confirmed the

effect of agar media on *A. nosocomialis* twitching motility in the literature.

To investigate the underlying reason for this observation, the composition of these two

commonly used growth media were compared. As shown in Table S1, both media use the same

concentration of agar and sodium chloride, 1.2% and 0.5% respectively. The key components in

MacConkey that are absent in LB include peptone, lactose, and bile salts. Neutral red, another

component that differed between them, is a pH indicator dye for the detection of lactose

fermentation and we considered it unlikely to be responsible for the differences in twitching. We

supplemented the LB agar with peptone, lactose or bile salts at the same concentration as in

MacConkey agar to determine if one of these could enable *A. nosocomialis* to twitch. As shown

in Figure 1A, bile salts, but not the others, were found to permit *A. nosocomialis* twitching

motility in LB agar plates. This result suggests a bile salt-specific stimulation of twitching

motility in *A. nosocomialis*.

Twitching motility as analyzed by the agar stabbing method has been observed in

Acinetobacter baumannii, a closely related *Acinetobacter* species and WHO priority pathogen

[14]. The twitching motility of this bacterium is similarly noted in MacConkey agar and not LB

agar. We tested two *A. baumannii* strains, AYE and AB0057, in LB supplemented with bile salts

in comparison with *A. nosocomialis* M2. As shown in Figure 1C, bile salts stimulated the

twitching motility of the two *A. baumannii* strains similar to the observation of *A. nosocomialis*.

These results suggested that the stimulatory effects of bile salts on twitching motility occurred in

Acinetobacter species as a general phenomenon.

Bile salt-stimulated twitching motility of *P. aeruginosa*. These above observations prompted us to

investigate if bile salts enhance bacterial twitching by a more general mechanism in other bacteria.

Pseudomonas aeruginosa, a WHO priority pathogen [14], has been used as a model for studies of

twitching motility [6, 26, 27]. Its twitching motility has been routinely analyzed with LB instead of

MacConkey agar plates. As shown in Figure 2A, bile salts supplemented at 0.5%, the same

concentration present in MacConkey, significantly increased the twitching motility of the *P. aeruginosa*

strain PAO1, the frequently used strain for the studies of twitching motility in this bacterium [28, 29].

The dose response of bile salts on PAO1 twitching was examined and as shown in Fig. 2B, there is a

concentration-dependent response, reaching a maximum stimulation around 0.4% bile salts. At higher

concentrations, bile salts start to inhibit *P. aeruginosa* growth and reduce its twitching area in this assay.

We also observed that the twitching motility of PA14, another common *P. aeruginosa* strain in research

laboratories [30-32], was stimulated by bile salts in LB media (Figure S2). These results demonstrate

that the stimulatory effect of bile salts on twitching is applicable to both *Acinetobacter* species and *P.*

aeruginosa. For the remaining part of this study, we mostly used *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 as the model

organism to investigate the mechanisms by which bile salts stimulate bacterial twitching motility.

Detergents stimulate twitching motility. Bile salts are anionic detergents, produced from

cholesterol degradation [33], that can elicit a lipid membrane stress response in bacteria [34]. Thus, it is

possible that bile salts function as a detergent and apply envelope stress to stimulate bacterial twitching

[34]. To examine this possibility, we investigated the effect of other detergents on the twitching motility

of *P. aeruginosa.* To avoid crosstalk between growth inhibition and twitching motility, non-inhibitory

concentrations of detergent were determined to guide their use in the twitching motility assays (Table

S2). For this experiment, we tested sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), an anionic detergent, as well as Triton

X-100 and Triton X-114, which are non-ionic detergents (Table S2). As shown in Fig. 3A, all the

detergents examined, whether anionic or non-ionic, significantly stimulated the twitching motility of *P.*

aeruginosa much like bile salts. These results suggest that the stimulatory effects of bile salts on

twitching is related to their chemicophysical properties as detergents.

The stimulatory effects of detergent on twitching motility could be explained by a physiological

response of a bacterium to envelope stress applied by these amphipathic molecules or a general stress

applied by other stressors [35]. To investigate this, we tested a few antibiotics with different targets at

non-inhibitory concentrations as stressors distinct from detergents. These included ampicillin,

gentamicin, and ciprofloxacin, which target cell wall biosynthesis, ribosome function and DNA

topology, respectively. Maximum non-inhibitory concentrations (MaxNICs) of these antibiotics were

determined by testing the effect of different concentrations on *P. aeruginosa* growth in liquid culture

(Table S3). Antibiotics at their respective MaxNICs were tested for their effect on *P. aeruginosa*

twitching. As shown in Figure 3B, none of these three antibiotics increased *P. aeruginosa* twitching

motility. This suggested that the stimulation of twitching was unlikely the result of a general

physiological response to stressors. We additional tested the effect of polymyxin B, which targets the

outer membrane and would apply envelop stress similar to bile salts and the detergents. Somewhat

surprisingly, this antibiotic at its MaxNIC (Table S3) showed no stimulatory effect on *P. aeruginosa*

twitching (Figure 3B). These results suggested that the observed stimulation of twitching motility by

bile salts and other detergents in Figures 1 and 2 was not a response to envelope stress.

Hydrophilic surfaces promote twitching motility in *P. aeruginosa.* Detergents are amphipathic

molecules that can mediate both hydrophobic and hydrophilic interactions [33]. Besides physiological

effects on bacteria as envelope stressors, they can also change properties of surfaces on which bacterial

twitching motility occurs [25]. In the stabbing assay, bacteria cells twitch in the interstitial space

between the agar media and the surface of the hydrophobic polystyrene Petri dish. We considered the

possibility that detergents such as bile salts may interact with the hydrophobic surface of the polystyrene

Petri dishes. Such interactions could coat the surface and make it more hydrophilic to facility twitching

motility. Glass is a hydrophilic surface, so we compared *P. aeruginosa* twitching on glass versus

polystyrene microscope slides placed within Petri dishes containing LB agar without bile salts or

detergents. As shown in Figure 4, twitching motility on glass is significantly higher than that on

polystyrene for the wildtype (WT) strain. The addition of bile salts had minimum effects on twitching on

glass surfaces, in contrast to the observations with polystyrene ones (Figure 4). These results indicate

that surface hydrophilicity likely enhances twitching motility and the effects of detergents and bile salts

on twitching could be attributed to their ability to change a hydrophobic surface to a more hydrophilic

one.

To further examine this possibility, we used a coating to change the surface hydrophilicity of glass

by pretreating it with a polydimethylsiloxane solution (PDMS). When the glass surface was layered with

PDMS to mimic the hydrophobicity of a polystyrene plate, *P. aeruginosa* twitched at similar levels as it

did with polystyrene Petri dishes in LB media without bile salts (Figure 4B). PDMS coating did not

impact twitching motility of *P. aeruginosa* on polystyrene surfaces which is already hydrophobic

(Figure 4B). A *P. aeruginosa pilA* mutant was used as control. It showed no twitching with any of the

surfaces with or without PDMS treatment. These results are consistent with the notion that hydrophilic

surfaces enhance *P. aeruginosa* twitching and that bile salts and other detergents stimulate twitching

motility on the hydrophobic polystyrene surfaces by making it more hydrophilic.

While natural polystyrene surfaces are hydrophobic, they can be treated with plasma gas to increase

their hydrophilicity for tissue culture purposes [36]. We therefore compared *P. aeruginosa* twitching

motility on 6-well polystyrene plates either untreated or treated by plasma gas for tissue culture. As

shown in Figure 5A, the wildtype *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 strain exhibited significantly increased twitching

motility on plasma-treated surfaces in LB media over those untreated surfaces. In contrast, while the

addition of bile salts significantly enhanced *P. aeruginosa* twitching on untreated plates, it had no

significant effect on PAO1 twitching on the treated surfaces. These results led us to conclude that the

stimulatory effect of bile salts on twitching motility is related to the changes in surface hydrophobicity

instead of a physiological response of a bacterium elicited by the presence of bile salts or other

detergents.

The increase in *P. aeruginosa* twitching motility without any media additives on hydrophilic

surfaces was striking, thus we wanted to confirm if this phenotype was consistent with *Acinetobacter*

nosocomialis, which is non-motile in LB media. Markedly, the wildtype *A. nosocomialis* M2 strain (M2

WT) also exhibited increased twitching motility on plasma-treated polystyrene in LB media and no

twitching on hydrophobic polystyrene in LB media (Figure 5B). The difference between these two

polystyrene structures is their hydrophilicity, therefore we provided significant evidence that surface

hydrophilicity promotes twitching motility in *P. aeruginosa* and *A. nosocomialis*.

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Discussion

Here we describe the discovery of detergent-stimulated twitching motility and identify a

relationship between surface hydrophilicity and twitching motility of *Acinetobacter* species as

well as *P. aeruginosa*. It was previously observed that *A. nosocomialis* can perform twitching

motility on MacConkey agar but not Luria-Bertani (LB) agar [22]. We discovered that bile salts

were the component in MacConkey agar that facilitated the twitching motility of *A. nosocomialis*

as well as *A. baumannii* on polystyrene surfaces. This stimulatory effect further extended to *P.*

aeruginosa. We observed that other ionic and anionic detergents, such as Triton X-100, Triton

X-114 and sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) also promoted *P. aeruginosa* twitching motility. The

stimulatory effect of bile salts and other detergents on bacterial twitching is likely due to their

effects on physicochemical properties of surfaces instead of a physiological response of the

bacteria to detergents. This conclusion is supported by our experimental results with antibiotics

that have various modes of actions, as they all failed to enhance twitching motility. Rather, we

found that physicochemical properties of surfaces play a critical role in modulating the level of

bacterial twitching motility: surface hydrophilicity promotes whereas hydrophobicity suppresses

bacterial twitching.

The interaction between pathogens and host surfaces is essential for the establishment of a

bacterial infection. Additionally, interactions with the surfaces of medical implants and devices play a

major role in the establishment of hospital-acquired bacterial infections [15, 37-40]. The bacterial type

IV pilus (T4P) is an important virulence factor needed for the establishment of infection for many WHO

priority pathogens [14], such as *P. aeruginosa* and *A. baumannii* [15]. Thus, studying the T4P as a

motility apparatus is essential to better understanding the first step of infection. Interested in

understanding how MacConkey agar could enable the T4P-mediated twitching motility of *A.*

nosocomialis, we discovered an important relationship between surface chemistry and twitching

motility. Not only did hydrophilic surfaces, such as glass and plasma-treated polystyrene increase

bacterial twitching motility, but hydrophobic surfaces, like polystyrene, completely disabled twitching

motility of *A. nosocomialis*. This result highlights a powerful control point for T4P functionality via

surface polymer construction. Hence, we propose that the hydrophilicity of surfaces, such as those of

host tissues or medical implants, may play an important role in the activity of the T4P as a virulence

factor responsible for the establishment and persistence of a bacterial infection.

While the implications of this discovery are a much-needed consideration in future research, we

note that the mechanism of surface hydrophilicity-promoted twitching motility remains unclear.

Hydrophobic surfaces allow for better attachment by *P. aeruginosa* for biofilm formation, a nonmotile

or sessile state [41]. Thus, it is possible that the interaction between the T4P head and surfaces during

twitching motility has better attachment to hydrophilic surfaces than hydrophobic surfaces. Additionally,

hydrophilicity may play a role in reducing the friction between the cell surface during translocation over

the surface via pilus retraction. In general, there are like-to-like observations for surface attachment, in

which bacteria with hydrophobic cell surfaces adhere better to hydrophobic surface materials [42]. Both

P. aeruginosa and *A. baumannii* have high surface hydrophobicity [43, 44], thus adhering better to

hydrophobic twitching surfaces. When these hydrophobic cells move over hydrophilic surfaces, it is

expected that the cells will adhere less which may promote increased motility. Although we are unsure

of the mechanism of surface hydrophilicity-promoted twitching, it is reasonable to conclude that

increased hydrophilicity of a material surface would stimulate twitching motility.

While our observations are consistent with surface hydrophilicity promoted twitching

motility, it is also possible the changes in motility are due to the surface sensing capacity of the

T4P. The T4P has been implicated as a surface sensor in *Caulobacter crescentus* [45-47]. The

T4P retraction motor and minor pilins were also found to be involved in sensing surface

association necessary for quorum sensing in *P. aeruginosa* [48]. Additionally, twitching motility

has been shown to require bacteria to sense and respond to surfaces [49]. Thus, it is possible that

bacteria are sensing the hydrophilicity of a surface, and this results in the increased twitching

motility phenotype we describe in this study. Since surface hydrophilicity is less conducive for

hydrophobic cell attachment [42], it is possible that surface sensing of hydrophobicity would

result in increased twitching via cell signaling.

A few lines of evidence suggest that hydrophilic surfaces increase the twitching motility of *P.*

aeruginosa and *A. nosocomialis*. Mainly, two hydrophobic surfaces, glass and plasma-treated

polystyrene, resulted in significantly increased twitching. On the other hand, hydrophobic surfaces

decreased twitching motility. Using detergents and antibiotics we also supported the physicochemical

twitching response and demonstrated that bacterial physiology was not the mechanism of detergent-

stimulated motility. While this result highlights the discovery of surface hydrophilicity-promoted

motility, future work is necessary to elucidate the mechanisms of this phenomenon. Additionally, it

would be interesting to investigate the extents of this phenomenon as it may play a role in other T4P-

dependent motilities, such as social gliding motility in *Myxococcus xanthus* [50]*,* or other pathogens that

utilize twitching motility, like *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* [1, 51]. We suggest that the hydrophilicity of

surfaces, such as those of animal tissues as well as of medical implants and devices, may significantly

impact the functionality of T4P as a virulence factor and its interaction with hosts in the establishment

and persistence of a bacterial infection.

Materials and Methods

Strains and culture conditions. The bacterial strains used in this study are detailed in Table 1. These

include wildtype and *pilA* mutant *Acinetobacter nosocomialis* M2 and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* PAO1.

Additionally, wildtype *Acinetobacter baumannii* strains, Ab0057 and AYE, were used. *Pseudomonas*

aeruginosa PA14 was used in supplemental analysis. MacConkey broth media from the manufacturer,

Oxoid, supplemented with 1.2% granulated agar, was used for twitching assays. The components of this

media include 1% lactose, 2% peptone, 0.5% sodium chloride, 0.5% bile salts, and 0.075% neutral red.

LB broth supplemented with 1.2% granulated agar was also utilized for twitching assays throughout this

study. *P. aeruginosa* strains were grown and maintained on 1.5% Luria-Bertani agar (LBA) at 37°C,

while *A. nosocomialis* and *A. baumannii* strains were grown and maintained on 1.5% MacConkey agar

at 37°C.

Polystyrene Petri dish twitching motility assay. Twitching assays were performed on fresh 25 mL

1.2% LBA plates prepared the day before. When additives were added to the media, antibiotics or

detergents were utilized at their maximum non-inhibitory concentration. Before performing the assay,

the 1.2% LBA plates were dried face up without their lids on in the biosafety cabinet for 20 minutes.

Condensation was wiped off the Petri dish lids, and after 20 minutes of drying, the plates and the lids

were sterilized under UV light for 2 minutes. The inoculum was prepared by spreading a loopful of

bacteria from the outside edge of the overnight culture onto an untouched 1.5% LBA plate to create a

thin layer of culture. Using a toothpick, a unified amount of inoculum was picked up and inoculated the

1.2% LBA plates by stabbing through the agar, making sure to touch the bottom of the plate. The

inoculated 1.2% LBA plates were incubated in stacks at 37°C for 48 hours in a humidity chamber. The

humidity chamber was prepared by placing a dampened paper towel to cover the bottom of a plastic box.

Every 24 hours the paper towel was removed and replaced with a fresh one. After 48 hours of

incubation, the twitching motility was visualized by removing the agar from the Petri dish and stained

with 1% crystal violet. Twitching area was determined by analyzing the stained area of the plate with

ImageJ software. This protocol was modified from a previously described twitching motility assay [21].

Twitching motility on glass and polystyrene microscope slides coated with a polydimethylsiloxane

solution. Glass or polystyrene microscope slides were submerged in either a filter-sterilized

polydimethylsiloxane solution or 70% ethanol as a control. These slides were left on a rack to dry for a

few hours at 40°C. Once dry, the microscope slides were laid inside polystyrene Petri dishes, and 25 mL

of 1.2% LBA was poured on top of them. The modified plates were inoculated as described above. The

inoculated 1.2% LBA plates were incubated in stacks at 37°C for 18 hours in a humidity chamber. After

18 hours of incubation, the twitching motility was visualized without removing the agar from the Petri

dish by holding the plates up to the light and tracing the visible twitching area with a permanent marker.

Twitching area was determined by analyzing the traced area of the plate with ImageJ software.

Optimized 6-well twitching motility assay on polystyrene and plasma-treated polystyrene.

Twitching motility assays were performed as described above, with modifications to the volume of

media placed in each well and incubation times. 2 mL of 1.2% LBA, with or without 0.5% bile salts,

was dispensed into each well of a 6-well polystyrene or plasma-treated polystyrene plate. Inoculated

plates are placed in a humidity chamber and incubated for 24 hours at 37°C. Rather than staining the

plate with 1% crystal violet, once the agar is removed from the wells, the twitching area was traced with

a permanent marker. The twitching area was determined by analyzing the marked area with ImageJ

software.

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Figure Legends

Table 1. Bacterial strains used in this study.

Figure 1. Bile salts alone enable the twitching motility of *A. nosocomialis* in LB medium.
(A) Subsurface twitching motility assays inoculated with *A. nosocomialis* were performed in triplicate on MacConkey agar, Luria-Bertani (LB) agar, and LB agar supplemented with each component of MacConkey agar, not found in LB media: 0.5% bile salts, 1% lactose, and 2% peptone. Plates were incubated for 48 hours in a humidity chamber at 37℃. Asterisks (*) specify that the twitching area values at the indicated additives are statistically different (P<0.05) from those of the no-additive LB control. **(B)** A single colony of *A. baumannii* strains (AB0057 and AYE) and *A. nosocomialis* (M2), were inoculated in triplicate into LB agar plates supplemented with or without 0.5% w/v bile salts (BSs). After 48 hours of incubation, the agar was removed, and cells adhered to the plate were stained with 1% crystal violet. Twitching area was quantified using image analysis of stained plate region. Asterisks (*) specify that the twitching area values with bile salts for the indicated strains are statistically different (P<0.05) from those without bile salts.

Figure 2. Twitching motility analysis of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in the presence of bile salts. (A) Subsurface twitching motility assays inoculated with *P. aeruginosa* (PAO1) were performed in triplicate on LB agar supplemented with or without 0.5% bile salts (BSs). Asterisks (*) specify that the twitching area values with bile salts for the indicated strains are statistically different (P<0.05) from those without bile salts. **(B)** *P. aeruginosa* (PAO1) subsurface twitching

assays on LB agar with varying bile salt concentrations. After 48 hours of incubation, the agar

was removed, and cells adhered to the plate were stained with 1% crystal violet. Twitching area

(cm²) of three experiments performed in triplicate was quantified using image analysis of stained

plate region and normalized to 1.

Figure 3. Detergents, and not antibiotics, promote twitching motility equivalent to the bile

salts response. (A) Subsurface twitching motility assays of *P. aeruginosa* (PAO1) were

performed three times in triplicate on LB agar (-) and LB agar supplemented with the membrane-

disruptive detergents: bile salts (BSs), Triton X-100 (TX100), Triton X-114 (TX114), and

sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS). **(B)** Twitching motility assays of *P. aeruginosa* (PAO1) were also

performed on LB agar supplemented with ampicillin (Amp), ciprofloxacin (Cipro), gentamicin

(Gent), and polymyxin B (PB). After 48 hours of incubation, the agar was removed, and the

twitching area was quantified using image analysis. Asterisks (*) specify that the twitching area

values at the indicated additives are statistically different ($P<0.05$) from those of the no-additive

LB (-) control, and twitching values that are not statistically different ($P>0.05$) are represented by

(ns).

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Figure 4. Hydrophilic glass surfaces increase twitching motility of *P. aeruginosa* in LB

media. Subsurface twitching motility assays of wildtype (WT) and a *pilA* mutant strain (pilA⁻) of

P. aeruginosa (PAO1) were performed in LB agar on polystyrene and glass microscope slides

placed within a polystyrene Petri dish. The twitching motility of WT and pilA⁻ *P. aeruginosa*

was also analyzed in LB supplemented with 0.5% bile salts (BSs) on polystyrene and glass

microscope slides. To test the effect of hydrophobic surfaces, the twitching motility of WT and

pilA⁻ *P. aeruginosa* was additionally analyzed on polystyrene and glass microscope slides coated

with a polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) solution. The microscope slides not coated in PDMS, were

coated with 70% ethanol as a control. All of these conditions were tested via three biological

replicates in triplicate. After 18 hours of incubation, the agar was removed, and the twitching

area was quantified using image analysis. Asterisks (*) specify that the twitching area values on

the indicated surfaces are statistically different ($P<0.05$) from those of the polystyrene control,

and twitching values that are not statistically different ($P>0.05$) are represented by (ns).

Figure 5. Tissue-treated plates (hydrophilic) promote twitching motility over untreated

plates (hydrophobic) with LB. (A) Subsurface twitching motility assays of wildtype (WT) and

a *pilA* mutant strain (pilA⁻) of *P. aeruginosa* (PAO1) were performed three times in triplicate in

LB agar on polystyrene and plasma-treated polystyrene 6-well plates with or without the addition

of 0.5% bile salts (BSs). **(B)** Twitching motility assays of wildtype (WT) and a *pilA* deletion

strain (pilA⁻) of *A. nosocomialis* (M2) were also performed three times in triplicate in LB agar on

polystyrene and plasma-treated polystyrene 6-well plates. After 18 hours of incubation, the agar

was removed, and the twitching area was quantified using image analysis. Asterisks (*) specify

that the twitching area values on the indicated surfaces are statistically different ($P<0.05$) from

those of the polystyrene control.

Supplemental Materials

Table S1. Composition of LB and MacConkey media. Ingredients and their concentration are

listed for both media used.

Figure S1. Twitching motility analysis of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* PA14 in the presence of

bile salts. Subsurface twitching motility assays inoculated with *P. aeruginosa* PA14 were

performed in triplicate on LB agar supplemented with or without 0.5% bile salts (BSs). After 48

hours of incubation, the agar was removed, and cells adhered to the plate were stained with 1%

crystal violet. Asterisks (*) specify that the twitching area values with bile salts for the indicated

strains are statistically different (P<0.05) from those without bile salts.

Table S2. Properties of detergents. Characteristics of detergents and their maximum non-

inhibitory concentration (MaxNIC) in P. aeruginosa.

Table S3. Antimicrobial susceptibility testing of *P. aeruginosa* strain PAO1.

Table 1.

Strain		Description	Reference
Acinetobacter nosocomialis	M2	Metro Health Systems clinical isolate	(Niu et al., 2008)
	M2	*pilA* deletion	(Harding et al., 2013)
Acinetobacter baumannii	Ab0057	Walter Reed Army Medical Center clinical isolate	(Hamidian et al., 2017)
	AYE	Valenciennes Hospital clinical isolate	(Adams et al., 2008)
Pseudomonas aeruginosa	PAO1	Wildtype	(Stover et al., 2000)
	PW8622	*pilA* transposon insertion (*pilA*-H02::ISphoA/hah)	(Held. et al., 2012)

Fig. 1

A

B

Fig. 2

A

B

Fig. 3

Fig. 4

Fig. 5