The biofilm matrix scaffold of *Pseudomonas* species contains non-canonically base paired extracellular DNA and RNA

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Abstract

While extracellular DNA (eDNA) is recognized as a critical biofilm matrix component, it is not understood how it contributes to biofilm function. Here we isolate eDNA from *Pseudomonas* biofilms using ionic liquids, and discover that its key biophysical signatures, i.e. fluid viscoelasticity, nucleic acid conformation, and temperature and pH dependencies of gel to solution transitions, are maintained. Solid-state analysis of isolated eDNA, as a proxy for eDNA structure in biofilms, revealed non-canonical Hoogsteen base pairs, triads or tetrads involving guanine and thymine or uracil. These were less abundant in chromosomal DNA and undetected as eDNA underwent gel-sol transition. Purine-rich RNA was present in the eDNA network, which potentially enables eDNA to be the main cross-linking exopolymer in the matrix through non-canonical nucleobase interactions. Our study suggests that *Pseudomonas* assemble extracellular DNA and RNA into a network with viscoelastic properties, which underpin their persistence and spreading, and may aid the development of more effective controls for biofilm-associated infections.

Introduction

Biofilms are key microbial ecosystems that contribute to bacterial pathogenicity (1), disrupt flow in water filtration systems (2) and facilitate wastewater treatment bioprocesses (3). They represent bacterial adaptation strategies allowing for increased antibiotic tolerance (4), enhanced resource capture (5) and the establishment of ecological microniches (6). Such properties are unique to biofilms, in contrast to planktonic bacteria, and are not mediated directly by the cells but instead by an extracellular polymeric matrix the cells secrete (7). While cells themselves are stiff and rigid, the matrix provides the biofilm with a viscoelastic property that allows cells to withstand mechanical and chemical stress, and enhances surface colonization by facilitating biofilm migration. Moreover, the viscoelastic property of the matrix itself has been identified as a virulence factor in chronic biofilm infections (8).

Exopolymer functions in biofilms have been studied extensively, particularly for *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, which contributes to one in five clinical infections (9). No fewer than eight exopolymers have been identified as supporting key traits in *P. aeruginosa* biofilms, including three exopolysaccharides (10), four proteins (11-13) and extracellular DNA (eDNA) (14). While progress has been made towards describing the structures and identities of extracellular polysaccharides and proteins, by applying classical chemical and molecular approaches, the important question regarding extracellular DNA is not what it is but how it differs structurally from chromosomal DNA and what enables it to perform a structural function in the biofilm matrix. eDNA has been described as a key matrix biopolymer in clinical (15) and environmental biofilms (16), particularly in *P. aeruginosa* biofilms (13), and has been shown to colocalize with putative *P. aeruginosa* polysaccharide Pel (17) and be degraded by DNA-specific endonucleases (18). While there have been attempts to explain the properties of eDNA, they have tended to

focus on primary-structure differences with the chromosomal DNA and as yet, no signature

eDNA sequences have been identified (19).

DNA can form multiple higher-order structures arising from differences in torsional stress as the

two strands are twisted around the axis. For chromosomal DNA (cDNA), this is known to consist

of supercoiled duplex structures that are formed by the action of histone-like proteins and

topoisomerases, and then relaxed by gyrases to allow replication and transcription to occur (20).

DNA supercoiling, however, does not reconcile with descriptions of eDNA as a primary biofilm

structural agent which would imply a networked structure. While eDNA has been shown to

colocalize with DNA-binding proteins (21), this does not distinguish it from chromosomal DNA

nor allude to its higher-order structure. We propose that a molecular understanding of how the

eDNA is assembled and organized is key to answering how and why DNA transforms from the

chromosomal form to that found in the biofilm matrix. In this study, we elucidate molecular

interactions that lead to the higher-order structure of eDNA. We seek to contrast the biophysical

properties of eDNA and chromosomal DNA and correlate differences to a distinct eDNA

molecular signature. We hypothesize that isolating eDNA such that its higher-order structure is

preserved should enable us to describe interactions in eDNA that underpin its ability to form

networked structures.

Results

eDNA elasticity is preserved during extraction.

To isolate eDNA from *P. aeruginosa* biofilms while preserving its higher-order structure, we use

ionic liquid 1-ethyl-3-methyl-imidazolium acetate (EMIM-Ac). This has been previously shown

to non-destructively dissolve a range of recalcitrant biopolymers, including DNA (22) and

cellulose (23), and we recently demonstrated its use in dissolving *P. aeruginosa* biofilm

exopolymers (24). Here, we consider the change in fluid rheology upon dissolving *P.*

aeruginosa biofilms in EMIM-Ac, whereby we observe the subsequent fluid to be highly

viscoelastic which is characteristic of high molecular weight polymers in solution. We observe

viscoelasticity, in that the EMIM-Ac following biofilm dissolution displayed both elastic and

viscous characteristics, upon measuring a normal force during viscosity measurements on a

parallel plate rheometer as a function of shear rate under steady shear conditions. The viscosity is

only slightly shear-thinning (Supplementary Figure 1A and Supplementary Table 1). Normal

force (i.e. contact force perpendicular to the parallel plates applying shear), however, is zero for

Newtonian fluids and thus the observation of finite values indicates the presence of an

anisotropic polymer in the fluid, giving rise to non-linear elasticity, which is expected for dilute

polymer solutions in viscous Newtonian fluids (i.e. Boger fluids) (25). Normal force is

characterized as a normal stress difference ($\Delta N = N_1$-N_2), where N_1 and N_2 are primary and

secondary normal stress differences respectively (see definition in Materials and Methods (26)).

The fluid's elasticity is observed to dominate over the viscous flow properties for the wild type

biofilm in EMIM-Ac, whereby ΔN is an order of magnitude greater than shear stress (Figure 1A;

Wild type). The solvent (EMIM-Ac) alone exhibited no elasticity, indicating that the elastic

properties arise from the dissolution of polymeric components within the biofilm matrix. ΔN has

a power law dependence on the shear rate with an exponent (*n*) of 1.4 (Supplementary Figure 1B,

Wild type). We find that the viscosity and non-linear elasticity measurements are accurately

modeled using the modified, finitely-extensible nonlinear elastic (FENE-P) polymer model

(Figure 1A-B; Supplementary Tables 1 and 2), which is commonly used to describe solutions

containing flexible/semi-flexible polymers using the common assumption that $\Delta N \sim N_1$ (27). As

DNA is a very high molecular weight semi-flexible polymer, we hypothesize that this may be the

dominant polymer giving rise to the nonlinear elastic properties of the fluids.

The polysaccharides alginate, Pel and Psl have been suggested as the structural scaffolds of *P.*

aeruginosa biofilms (10). To investigate the possibility that the polysaccharides, rather than the

DNA, cause the elastic behavior of the fluid after biofilm dissolution, an alginate over-

expressing strain PDO300 (i.e. mucoid) and its isogenic Pel and Psl genetic knockout mutants

were dissolved in EMIM-Ac (28). When Psl is absent, the elasticity (i.e. ΔN) and viscosity

increase relative to the wild type, and the mucoid strain PDO300 is less elastic than the wild type

despite the over-expression of alginate (Figure 1; Δpsl). In contrast, when Pel is absent, there

was a slight decrease in both elasticity and viscosity relative to both the wild type and PDO300

(Figure 1; Δpel).

The contributions of proteins, RNA and DNA were also explored by digestion using pronase,

RNase A and DNase I, respectively (Figure 1; Pronase, RNase, DNase). Removing each

exopolymer component individually decreased biofilm elasticity in EMIM-Ac. All treatments,

except for DNase I-treated biofilm, displayed *n* values of $0.9 - 1.7$ (Supplementary Table 1),

characteristic of elasticity imparted by DNA (29). While viscosity was unchanged following

pronase treatment, there was a slight decrease in elasticity. This decrease in elasticity was even

greater following RNase treatment and elasticity was completely lost upon DNase treatment,

with ΔN reduced to zero. We suggest that the elastic response of the biofilm in EMIM-Ac can

thus be primarily attributed to DNA. Elasticity was not detected in EMIM-Ac solutions of calf

thymus DNA at the same concentration, indicating that elasticity is not a universal property of

DNA solutions in EMIM-Ac.

Furthermore, characterization of linear viscoelastic properties of hydrated native *P. aeruginosa*

biofilms (i.e. in water rather than EMIM-Ac) under conditions of oscillating shear show that the

storage (or elastic) modulus (G') is greater than the loss (or viscous) modulus (G'') across the

frequency range 0.1 to 1 s^{-1}, even in the absence of Pel and Psl (Figure 1C), providing further

evidence that they are not primarily responsible for the viscoelastic property of the biofilm. This

is consistent with the hydrated biofilm being classified as a gel. A storage modulus could not be

measured following digestion of the native biofilm by DNase I, and biofilm digested with heat-

inactivated DNase I also remained as a gel, illustrating that the lack of measurable G' was due to

enzymatic activity (Supplementary Figure 1C).

DNA is thus considered the main contributor to the elastic gel-like rheology of *P. aeruginosa*

biofilms, and to the non-linear elasticity upon dissolution of lyophilized *P. aeruginosa* biofilm in

EMIM-Ac. The fundamental structure of the DNA within the two systems is different; a gel-like

rheology may arise from a polymer network structure, while the non-linear elasticity indicates

the movement and deformation of high molecular weight polymers during flow. The approach of

dissolving biofilm in EMIM-Ac therefore allows the assessment of the contribution of individual

exopolymers to its properties that is complemented by rheological assays on the native biofilms.

The data suggest that multiple exopolymers contribute to the rheology, with the matrix from the

Δ*psl* mutant being the most elastic, followed by wild type and RNase A-treated biofilms, which

were the least elastic. It has been noted previously that a range of *P. aeruginosa* exopolymers

influence biofilm extracellular matrix crosslinking (10) and the data presented here further

clarify that these exopolymers can only modulate biofilm rheology if eDNA is present. An

eDNA scaffold is therefore a prerequisite for this rheological differentiation of the matrix.

Further support for the presence of an eDNA scaffold is provided in the micrograph of a biofilm

stained with TOTO-1 for DNA visualization (Figure 1D), which shows DNA fibers in the

extracellular matrix.

Figure 1: (A) Non-linear elasticity as normal stress difference ($\Delta N = N_1$-N_2) and (B) viscosity against shear rate for

Pseudomonas aeruginosa biofilm wild type, PDO300, Δpsl, Δpel, and pronase, RNase A and DNase I digested wild

type biofilm in 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium acetate (40 mg/mL) at 25 °C, 250 µm gap. This is measured as a

function of shear stress from 10 to 1000 Pa. ΔN is not described for DNase I digested biofilm in Figure 1A and

Supplementary Figure 1B as their normal force (F_N) is less than the resolution of the rheometer (i.e. 0.1 N) and set to

zero for calculating ΔN. Both the ΔN and viscosity data are fitted with the FENE-P model, a rigid dumbell model for

polymer solutions. Fitting parameters are shown in Supplementary Table 2. (C) Frequency dependence rheogram

showing that storage (G' or elastic) exceeds loss (G'' or viscous) modulus for wild type, Δpsl and Δpel biofilms and

isolated eDNA gel at 25°C (250 μm plate gap). (D) Micrograph of *P. aeruginosa* biofilm DNA stained green with

TOTO-1 (scale bar 10 μm). (E) Phase separation of extracellular DNA extracted from *P. aeruginosa* biofilms into a

gel occurs upon transfer from 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium acetate (EMIM-Ac) into water.

The absence of phospholipids and lipopolysaccharides in EMIM-Ac following biofilm

dissolution demonstrate that EMIM-Ac did not lyse either biofilm or planktonic cells

(Supplementary Figure 2A). Therefore, it was concluded that the DNA dissolved following

treatment of *P. aeruginosa* biofilms with EMIM-Ac is extracellular and not due to extraction of

intracellular DNA.

Key biophysical signatures of nucleic acids are preserved during isolation.

We recovered the eDNA from EMIM-Ac following biofilm dissolution by exploiting the ability

of perchloric acid to selectively precipitate DNA over protein (Supplementary Figure 2B).

Following further purification by gel permeation chromatography, the polymer phase-separated

into a gel upon transfer from EMIM-Ac into water (i.e. the gel isolate), mimicking the formation

of networks in native biofilms (Figure 1E). G' exceeded G'' across the same frequency range as

for the hydrated, native *P. aeruginosa* biofilms, consistent with gels, as was the case for the

biofilms (Figure 1C) and as distinct from the viscous behavior (G' < G'') commonly displayed

by aqueous solutions of DNA (30). Furthermore, DNase degraded the isolated gel into shorter

DNA fragments (Supplementary Figure 3A). Other fractions, including those not precipitated by

perchloric acid, did not self-assemble into gels (Supplementary Figure 3B). Similarly, calf

thymus DNA did not form gels when processed the same way, either with or without added

cations (Supplementary Figure 3C) suggesting, once again, that networking and elastic behavior

is not a general feature of DNA under the conditions applied in this study. Moreover, the biofilm

and isolated eDNA displayed similar phase transition temperatures of 56.8 and 57.2°C,

respectively (Supplementary Figures 4A and 4B), and the elasticity described for the isolated

eDNA and biofilm in Figure 1C was lost at temperatures exceeding the phase transition

temperatures and upon alkalinization (i.e. 0.2 M NaOH).

Circular dichroism (CD) is a highly sensitive spectroscopic technique for determining the

secondary structure of biomolecules, particularly proteins and nucleic acids. It was used here to

understand whether the nucleic acid (NA) conformation was modified during extraction and

isolation. Unprocessed *P. aeruginosa* biofilms displayed a major circular dichroism (CD) peak at

250-285 nm (Figure 2A), which is consistent with the presence of NA (31) and this peak was

also observed to dominate the CD spectrum of the gel isolate (Figure 2B). The spectral trough at

225.5-226.5 nm is typical for proteins (32). NA can also display a trough in this region, although

the relative depth of the trough and its absence after proteolysis and fractional precipitation that

excludes proteins (Supplementary Figure 2B) suggest that it denotes proteinaceous material.

Nonetheless, while the CD spectrum shows that proteins are significant components of the

biofilm matrix, as indicated by Figure 1A they are not major contributors to biofilm elasticity.

Figure 2: Representative circular dichroism (CD) spectra of (A) *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* biofilm and (B) eDNA gel isolate at 30°C (blue), 40°C (yellow), 60°C (red) and 95°C (black) dialysed against double distilled water. (C) Amplitude of dominant NA peak, CD_{max} (260-285 nm), from CD spectra of *P. aeruginosa* biofilm (seen in (A)) and its extracted extracellular nucleic acid gel (i.e. isolate) (seen in (B)) from T = 30°C to T = 95°C. (D) Representative CD spectra of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* biofilm chromosomal DNA in double distilled water at 30°C (blue), 40°C (yellow), 60°C (red) and 95°C (black). (E) Amplitude of dominant NA peak, CD_{max} (260-285 nm), from CD spectra of *P. aeruginosa* biofilm chromosomal DNA (seen in (D)) from T = 30°C to T = 95°C with and without solubilization in 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium and fractional precipitation.

The CD spectrum of the isolated eDNA gel (Figure 2B) is dominated by the same NA peak that appears in the biofilm CD spectrum. CD melting experiments were then performed on both samples. The resulting melting curves (Figure 2C) show that their NA peak absorbance values follow the same trend across the temperature profiles with a maximum at their phase transition, or melting temperatures (i.e. T_m) of (i.e. ≈ 57°C), indicating that melting occurs due to an eDNA

gel-sol transition and that heating disrupts the higher order structure of NA. In contrast, the NA

peak in chromosomal DNA extracted from *P. aeruginosa* planktonic cells decayed steadily with

temperature (Figure 2D and 2E). This was also observed for chromosomal DNA processed

through ionic liquid (i.e. EMIM-Ac dissolution and fractional precipitation).

Thus, *P. aeruginosa* eDNA has a different higher order structure to its chromosomal DNA. The

elastic behavior observed throughout purification and faithfully preserved in the isolated eDNA,

is not a consequence of the processing method. The extracted eDNA gel isolate is therefore an

accurate proxy for understanding the intermolecular interactions that stabilize the extracellular

matrices of *P. aeruginosa* biofilms. Moreover, the CD spectrum of the eDNA gel (Figure 2B)

indicates multiple nucleic acid conformations. In addition to the peak at 272 nm, there is a trough

that shifts from 245 to 230 nm with increasing temperature, another maximum at 215 nm that

remains constant with temperature, and other sub-maxima at 260 and 253 nm that change with

temperature. The absence of a trough at 200-215 nm precludes the possibility of NA in A- or Z-

conformations (31). The dominant maximum and minimum could indicate either B-DNA or G-

quadruplex conformations (33), although the peak at 215 nm is not a feature of B-DNA CD

spectra and is slightly higher than the characteristic G-quadruplex low wavelength peak of 210

nm. Nonetheless, the appearance of several peaks in the NA region of 250-285 nm indicates that,

while the dominant NA conformation is unclear, several conformations likely contribute to phase

separation of the NA.

Non-canonical base pairs or tetrads support extracellular network.

Sequence analysis of the extracted material indicated that the gene coverage was even for both

chromosomal and eDNA with the exception of bacteriophage Pf4 genes (Supplementary Figure

5). However, the Pf4 knockout mutant of *P. aeruginosa* also displayed an elastic response when

dissolved in EMIM-Ac (Supplementary Figure 6, Supplementary Tables 1 and 2), indicating that

Pf4 DNA is unlikely to be responsible for the phase-separating behavior of *P. aeruginosa*

biofilms. The biophysical properties of eDNA cannot be explained by uneven gene coverage,

including the expression of Pf4.

To describe the nature of nucleic acid base-pair interactions contributing to the elastic behavior

of the isolated eDNA we performed Magic-angle spinning (MAS) solid-state NMR (SSNMR).

This technique is ideal for intractable systems such as biofilms to eliminate solubility and

extraction biases (34), and to analyze inter-molecular H-bond interactions to describe, for

instance, inter-nucleotide base pairing in RNA (35). MAS SSNMR averages anisotropic

interactions to provide high-resolution spectral characterization of insoluble and large

biomolecular systems. By analyzing dipolar interactions, through-space heteronuclear

correlations (e.g. N···H) can be detected.

To elucidate the mechanism of DNA gelation, we generated, by SSNMR, a 2D, through-space,

^{15}N-^{1}H HETCOR spectrum of ^{15}N labeled eDNA gel isolated from *P. aeruginosa* biofilm matrix.

The absence of signature protein and polysaccharide peaks in the ^{15}N-^{1}H HETCOR spectrum

confirmed the complete absence of proteins and polysaccharides in the gel isolate

(Supplementary Figure 7), which supports our assertions that neither contribute to eDNA

gelation, despite the fact that both have been reported previously to co-localize with eDNA

(17,21). The HETCOR spectrum across the imino proton region showed four signal clusters at δ_H

10-14 ppm, and δ_N 140-160 ppm (Figure 3), which arose from direct N-H couplings of T/U and

G nucleobase imino groups. Two of these clusters (δ_H 12-14 ppm) resulted from imino protons

hydrogen-bonded to a nucleobase nitrogen (i.e. N-H···N), and the other two (δ_H 10 -12 ppm)

from imino protons hydrogen-bonded to a nucleobase carbonyl oxygen (i.e. N-H···O) (36). Due

to the longer cross polarization times we were able to observe a strong, long-range and indirect

(i.e. intermolecular) correlation at δ_N 196 ppm arising from G-C Watson-Crick base pairing, i.e.

C(N3)-G(H1). There was also a weak and indirect correlation at δ_N 220 ppm resulting from A-

T/U Watson-Crick base pairing, i.e. A(N1) to U/T(H1).

Figure 3: (A) Representative solid-state 2D ^1H-^{15}N through-space heteronuclear correlation (HETCOR) spectrum

of extracellular nucleic acid (NA) gel isolate dialysed against double distilled water (2 mg), T = 25°C. Red ovals

show the cross-peaks from direct N-H couplings of G (N1-H1) and T/U (N3-H3) when the protons were hydrogen

bonded to nucleobase nitrogen atoms (i.e. NH···N). Green ovals present the cross-peaks generated form indirect (via

hydrogen bonds) N-H couplings between the G(H1) and C(N3) as well as between T/U(H3) and A(N1). The

threshold for the A(N1)-T/U(H3) correlation was increased due to lower signal intensity for that particular coupling.

Cross-peaks denoted by red and green ovals indicate Watson-Crick G-C and U/T-A base pairings respectively. Blue

ovals show cross-peaks from direct N-H couplings of G (N1-H1) and T/U (N3-H3) when the protons were hydrogen

bonded to carbonyl oxygen (i.e. NH···O). These cross-peaks reveal non-canonical base pairings between G, T or U

and G, T, U or C as well as the possibility of G-tetrad formations. (B) Canonical and non-canonical base pairing

schematics illustrate the possible H-bond interactions between imino protons of A and G that can be observed in the

HETCOR spectrum. The correlations are color-coded to match the spectrum. Covalent and hydrogen bonds are

indicated by solid and dashed lines respectively.

The observation of NH to O interactions suggests the occurrence of non-canonical base pairs,

triads or tetrads involving G and T/U. The absence of long-range correlations between the

clusters at δ_H 10 -12 ppm is also consistent with non-Watson-Crick pairings for the G and T/U

nucleobases, where Hoogsteen H-bonded G-bases can assemble planarly into tetrads and self-

stack to form structurally stable G-quadruplexes (37). δ_H assignments of imino protons H-bonded

to nucleobase carbonyl O and N respectively are validated by 1-D ^{1}H NMR spectra of well-

characterized G-quadruplex and canonical B-DNA structures (Supplementary Figure 8A and

8B), and of a DNA quadruplex-duplex structural hybrid (Supplementary Figure 8C).

To determine whether non-canonical base pairs contribute to eDNA elasticity, a ^{15}N-^{1}H

HETCOR spectrum was recorded for ^{15}N labeled-eDNA gel after heating it to above the gel-sol

transition temperature. In contrast to the sample without heating (Figure 4A), no non-canonical

base-pair ^{15}N-^{1}H interactions were detected in the sample heated to 65°C (Figure 4B). The

Watson-Crick base-pair interactions, on the other hand, persisted with and without heating.

Similarly, the chromosomal DNA of *P. aeruginosa*, which does not exhibit the elastic or gel-like

behavior characteristic of the eDNA (Figure 2D and 2E), displayed no NH to O interactions,

which is consistent with the absence of non-canonical base-pair interactions (Figure 4C). Only

canonical base-pair interactions were observed in the ^{15}N-^{1}H HETCOR solid state spectrum of P.

aeruginosa PAO1 chromosomal DNA before (green) and after (gold) receiving the same

treatment as eDNA, demonstrating that non-canonical base pair interactions are specific for the

eDNA of *P. aeruginosa* and not an artifact of extraction and processing. Hence, the non-

canonical base pairs, triads or tetrads are characteristic of eDNA in a gel or networked state and

may contribute to stabilizing the higher order structure of eDNA networks.

Figure 4: Representative solid-state 2D ^{1}H-^{15}N through-space heteronuclear correlation (HETCOR) spectrum of ^{15}N-labelled extracellular nucleic acid (NA) gel isolate in double distilled water (2 mg), including direct N-H coupling region only, at T = 25°C with no pre-heating (A) and with pre-heating to 65°C (B), and ^{15}N-labelled chromosomal DNA extracted from *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* biofilms in double distilled water before (green) and after (gold) receiving the same treatment as the extracellular nucleic acids (C), indicating the loss of non-canonical base pairings, triads or tetrads in the gel isolate upon heating and their absence in chromosomal DNA.

Purine-rich RNA is also a component of eDNA gel.

Total correlation spectroscopy (TOCSY) and ^{1}H-^{13}C heteronuclear single quantum coherence

(HSQC) are nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) techniques that can identify proton NMR

correlations within individual ribose sugars and their proton-carbon single bond correlations

respectively. Raising the pH can solubilize *P. aeruginosa* biofilms (38) and here we show that

after alkalinization, the NA peaks dominate the solution ^{1}H-^{13}C HSQC spectra for the isolated

material which provides further evidence that proteins or polysaccharides were absent

(Supplementary Figure 9A) (39). However, the ^{1}H-^{13}C HSQC-TOCSY spectrum of the isolated

gel when dissolved by alkalinization showed two clusters of sugar proton peaks (C1'-H1') with

correlations to neighboring carbons (C2'-H1') (Figure 5A). This demonstrates that there are two

types of nucleic acid present and contributing to the composition of the isolated gel.

The first cluster (rectangles) has C2' chemical shift values of ~40 ppm and the second cluster

(ovals) has C2' values of ~70 ppm. The ^{1}H-^{13}C correlations denoted by the rectangles therefore

arise from deoxyribose and those denoted by the ovals from ribose sugar conformations. The

broadened form of the deoxyribonucleotide peaks is consistent with high molecular weight

(MW) molecules, while the sharpness of the ribonucleotide peaks suggests that they arise from

small nucleotides. Hence, eDNA and small ribonucleotides are both likely to be present in the

gel dissolved by alkalinization.

Spin-systems (i.e. groupings of nuclei that do not couple with nuclei beyond their respective

systems) for the eight sharp ribonucleotide peaks (Figure 5B) were assigned by HSQC-TOCSY

and correlation spectroscopy (COSY) (Supplementary Figure 9B) with absolute identification

achieved by heteronuclear multiple bond correlation spectroscopy (Supplementary Figure 10).

The ^{31}P NMR spectrum of the eDNA gel isolate at elevated pH revealed the presence of a

mixture of monoesterified (3.4 to 4.1 ppm) and diesterified phosphates (-0.8 to -1.2 ppm),

330 indicating the coexistence of monoribonucleotides and DNA respectively (Figure 5C (i)). Long-

331 range ^{31}P-^{1}H correlations (i.e. from NA phosphorous to adjoined ribose proton) were observed in

332 the ^{31}P-^{1}H heteronuclear correlation (HETCOR) spectrum (Figure 5C (ii)) for both

333 monoribonucleotides and DNA. The broad ^{31}P-^{1}H cross peaks at ~-1.0 ppm (Figure 5C (ii))

334 correspond to long-range correlations between DNA phosphorous to H3' and H5'/H5'' protons.

335 The eight monoribonucleotides were assigned to 2'- and 3'-(A, U, G, and C)-monophosphates.

336 We therefore have both 2' and 3' monoribonucleotides present with the eDNA in the gel

337 solubilized under alkaline conditions.

338 Importantly, the monoribonucleotide peaks only became resolved upon alkaline dissolution of

339 the biofilm, in contrast to the broad peaks evident at pH 7 (Supplementary Figure 11A). This

340 indicates that the monoribonucleotides are derived from chain structures that exist at biological

341 pH, which is consistent with the observation in Figure 1A that RNA is a major contributor to *P.*

342 *aeruginosa* biofilm elasticity.

Figure 5: (A) Representative Nuclear magnetic resonance

(NMR) ^{1}H-^{13}C heteronuclear single quantum coherence

(HSQC)-total correlation spectroscopy (TOCSY) spectrum

at 25°C of extracellular nucleic acids (NA) gel isolate after

alkalinization showing the C1'-H1' cross peaks of RNA

(blue ovals) and DNA (red rectangles) and their

correlations to the neighboring carbon C2'-H1'.

Schematics (right) illustrate these correlations. (B) ^{1}H-^{13}C

HSQC spectrum of extracellular eDNA gel isolate at 25°C

after alkalinization identifying eight monoribonucleic acid

ribose spin systems. (C) 1-D ^{31}P NMR of NA isolate gel

and *Pseudomomonas aeruginosa* biofilm with proton

decoupling showing the presence of monoesterified (i.e.

monoribonucleotides) and diesterified (i.e. DNA)

phosphate peaks (i), and 2-D ^{1}H-^{31}P heteronuclear

correlation (HETCOR) spectrum of extracellular NA

showing the ^{31}P-^{1}H cross-peaks of monoribonucleotides

and DNA (ii). Couplings of monoesterified phosphates to

H2' or H3' of eight monoesterified monoribonucleotides

(from left to right: 3' AMP/3' GMP, 3' CMP/3' UMP, 2'

CMP/2' UMP, 2' AMP, 2' GMP); and diesterified

phosphate to DNA H3' and H5'/H5'' protons, are denoted

by the dashed lines. There is a discontinuity (wavy line) in the ^{31}P axis due to the different thresholds required to

illustrate the ^{31}P-^{1}H correlations in the mono-esterified and di-esterified regions. All samples were prepared in 0.1 M

NaOD (10 mg/mL) and preheated to 55°C for 2 h.

The molar ratio of the individual ribonucleotides could be determined from the ^{31}P spectrum of

the gel dissolved at high pH (Table 1). While several peaks could not be separated, it was

possible to deduce that the RNA is purine rich (i.e. 57 mol% A+G) and that the G+C mol%

content of 46-50% differs from that of the *P. aeruginosa* genome (i.e. 67 mol%) (40).

Quantification was undertaken on the basis of relative ^{31}P NMR peak areas for the eight

monoribonucleotides and is therefore unaffected by the presence of any free nucleic acid bases.

The same peaks were also observed in the biofilm ^{31}P spectrum after alkalinization (Figure

5C(i)). Sequence analysis of the eDNA (Supplementary Figure 5) indicated that, on the other

hand, eDNA nucleobase ratios were consistent with the genome and the presence of canonical

nucleotides.

Table 1: Relative abundances of monoribonucleotides in extracellular eDNA gel isolate from *Pseudomonas*
aeruginosa biofilm as determined by integrating ^{31}P NMR spectrum following alkalinization.

^{31}P shift (ppm)	Ribonucleotide	Relative abundance
4.03	3'AMP	18 %
4.01	3' GMP	17 %
3.90	3' CMP/3' UMP	9 %
3.87	3' CMP/3' UMP	11 %
3.68	2' CMP/2' UMP	10 %
3.66	2' CMP/2' UMP	12 %
3.50	2' AMP	10 %
3.42	2' GMP	13 %

In contrast to the liquid state ^{31}P NMR spectrum of the alkali-dissolved isolate (Figure 5C (i)),

the ^{31}P SSNMR spectrum of the gel isolate (i.e. no alkali treatment; Figure 6A (i)) showed a

single peak in the diesterified phosphate region, consistent with the presence of both DNA and

RNA chains. There are no sharp peaks present in the monoesterified phosphate region, further

demonstrating that the monoribonucleotides are a consequence of alkali transesterification (41).

Only the diesterified phosphate peak was observed in the ^{31}P SSNMR spectrum of the biofilm

(Figure 6A (iii)), while both RNA-derived monoesterified and DNA-derived diesterified

phosphate peaks were present in the ^{31}P SSNMR spectrum of alkali digested eDNA gel-isolate

and biofilm (lyophilized) (Figure 6A (ii) and Figure 6A (iv), respectively). Complete alkali RNA

transesterification was confirmed by the full conversion of diesterified to monoesterified

phosphates (from liquid state ^{31}P NMR spectra) for the RNA standard, when dissolved in 0.1 M

NaOH (Supplementary Figure 11B). Conversely, RNA diesterified phosphate peaks were

preserved in the RNA standard spectrum following dissolution in EMIM-Ac and recovery by

perchloric acid (Supplementary Figure 11C). Hence, the alkaline conditions break down the

RNA chains into individual monoribonucleotides, while the ionic liquid-based extraction does

not. This suggests that the conventional method for *P. aeruginosa* biofilm dissolution in alkali

(38) may in fact work by transesterifying RNA as a primary structural component and illustrates

the importance of the ionic liquid-based extraction protocol described here as a non-destructive

method for interrogating biofilm structural polymers.

Figure 6: (A) Solid-state ^{31}P NMR spectra at T = 25°C of extracellular eDNA gel isolate (i), alkalinized and

lyophilized eDNA gel isolate (ii), *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* biofilm (iii) and alkalinized and lyophilized *P.*

aeruginosa biofilm (iv) showing the presence of diesterified phosphate peaks and the absence of monoesterified

phosphate peaks for both eDNA gel isolate and biofilm in double distilled water, and the coexistence of diesterified

and monoesterified phosphate peaks for both samples after alkalinization. This indicates that alkalinization of the

matter results in RNA transesterification. Micrographs of *P. aeruginosa* eDNA gel isolate stained green with (B)

SYTO RNASelect showing RNA fibers and (C) TOTO-1 showing DNA fibers (scale bar 10 μm).

To visualize the DNA-RNA network organization, we used nucleic acid-specific stains, i.e. RNA

specific SYTO RNASelect dye (Figure 6B) and the eDNA-specific TOTO-1 dye (Figure 6C)

(42). Fibrous structures, which are typical of networked polymer gels (43), were observed in the

eDNA gel isolate stained with both nucleic acid dyes as well as in the biofilm stained with the

eDNA specific dye (Figure 1D). This is consistent with our observation that the biofilm is readily

degraded by DNase I (Figure 1A) (44). Furthermore, the eDNA gel isolate was stained positively

with the RNA-specific dye even after DNase I digestion, providing further evidence that RNA

contributes to networking (Supplementary Figure 12A). However, digestion with RNases III, A

and H, did not degrade the biofilm (Figure 1A; Supplementary Figure 12B). This may suggest

that the RNase binding was shielded by hairpins in the network, or the presence of non-canonical

DNA-RNA interactions (45,46). Additionally, while eDNA gel isolate treated directly with

RNAse A was not reduced in size (i.e. 1000–4000 nucleotides; Supplementary Figure 12C, Lane

D1), gel isolate pre-digested with DNase I (Lane E1) and subsequently digested by RNase A

(F1), was degraded from 350-1000 nucleotides into a single band of approximately 150

nucleotides. This provides further evidence that extracellular RNA, of MW 350 to 1000

nucleotides, are protected from RNase A digestion because they are likely complexed to eDNA.

The ScreenTape analysis also shows the absence of clear 23S and 16S RNA bands, unlike the

control (Lane G1), indicating that extracellular RNA are either partially degraded or not

ribosomal RNA, and highlighting the challenges in detecting and analyzing RNA in the

extracellular matrix.

The presence of purine-rich RNA was confirmed by LCMS analysis, where the eDNA gel was

found to consist of about 4 % w/w RNA although the actual amount is likely to be higher due to

incomplete transesterification. Nonetheless, the structural importance of RNA is illustrated by

the irreversible pH dependent gel-sol transition displayed by the biofilm (Figure 1C), which

occurs coincident with transesterification of RNA and not DNA (Figure 5). If the role of RNA is

to facilitate cross-linking of DNA, relatively low amounts of RNA would be required to facilitate

its cross-linking.

Discussion

We extracted a gel-forming complex composed of DNA and RNA from the extracellular matrix

of *P. aeruginosa* biofilms without disrupting its fundamental structural or chemical organization.

Long-term stability has been reported for various biomolecules in ionic liquids, including DNA

(47), and its use here for assessing higher-order eDNA structure is informative. We report the

novel observation that extracellular RNA contributes structurally to biofilms and that it

contributes along with eDNA to the fundamental viscoelasticity of *Pseudomonas* biofilms. A

viscoelastic matrix differentiates planktonic cells from biofilms and the viscoelastic property of

the matrix itself is considered a virulence factor in chronic biofilm infections (8). Our data

suggest that in forming biofilms *Pseudomonas* assemble their RNA and DNA into an

extracellular framework that supports viscoelasticity. Understanding how the DNA and RNA is

organized extracellularly during different development stages and in response to environmental

conditions is thus central to understanding *Pseudomonas* biofilms.

While gel-forming exopolymers have been detected in other biofilms (48), no functional DNA

gel has been described for any biological system, much less one also including extracellular

RNA. DNA hydrogels are attractive biomaterials due to their biocompatibility, however DNA

gelation typically requires either ligase-mediated reactions to induce branched DNA molecule

formation (i.e. Y-scaffold), chemical crosslinking agents (e.g. epoxides), cationic

poly(electrolytes) (e.g. spermidine) to promote complexes by electrostatic interactions, or

physical entanglements (49). The presence of RNA with eDNA therefore addresses the question

of how DNA, otherwise favoring linear or circular structures, can form networked structures in

biofilms in the absence of, for example, cationic polyelectrolytes. RNA is more structurally

versatile than DNA (e.g. hairpins), has a greater tendency to form non-canonical base pairs, and

has been shown to undergo a sol-gel transition due to multivalent interactions between strands

(50). It informs on why *Pseudomonas* biofilms are readily dissolved by alkalinization, resulting

from RNA transesterification, providing further evidence of the structural role of RNA. It also

suggests RNA as potential targets for biofilm control, and there are several possible explanations

for why RNA nucleobase ratios might deviate from genomic abundances (i.e. 67% G-C for *P.*

aeruginosa) (51), including small-RNA, microRNA, non-coding RNA, virus RNA and

alternative polyadenylation (52).

While it is not possible to identify the precise nature of the DNA-RNA interaction based on the

information presented in this study, purine-rich RNA as described here for the extracellular

eDNA gel isolate (57 mol% A-G) is a characteristic of DNA-RNA duplexes because RNA

purines bind more strongly to their DNA pyrimidine complement than vice versa (53). Both

Watson-Crick and non-canonical interactions were present in the eDNA gel isolate, which is also

consistent with the discrepancy observed between RNA and DNA G+C mol% contents (Table

1). It is possible, therefore, that interactions between DNA and RNA, as described in this study,

account for the formation of a highly stable nucleic acid gel.

The results presented provide unprecedented resolution of the biofilm exopolymeric matrix and

its key foundation structural components. We have developed a methodology that preserved the

molecular organization of the foundational polymer in its native state upon extraction and

isolation. This enabled us to use SSNMR to describe intermolecular associations at the atomic

level.

This study demonstrates that an eDNA-RNA network, responsible for the elastic gel-like

properties of the matrix, contributes greatly to the formation of a physically distinct habitat in the

matrix of *P. aeruginosa* biofilms, which in turn is responsible for emergent properties such as

nutrient accumulation, stress and antibiotic resistance, and shelter (54). This finding is a

departure from the prevailing paradigm that biofilm gelation is only due to polysaccharides. The

elastic and biofilm-forming properties were also observed for *Pseudomonas putida* and

Pseudomonas protegens (Supplementary Figures 6 and 13; Supplementary Tables 1 and 2)

suggesting that eDNA is broadly important for biofilm formation in member species of this

genus. In addition to *Pseudomonas* spp., other organisms are known to have eDNA, including

the clinically relevant organisms *Staphylococcus aureus* (55)*, Staphylococcus epidermidis* (56)

and *Mycobacterium abscessus* (57) as well as environmental isolates such as strain F8 from the

South Saskatchewan River (16).

While eDNA is commonly thought to be the product of cell lysis, and has been shown to be

released by a sub-population of lytic *P. aeruginosa* cells (19), there is an increasing awareness

that it serves an important structural function, such as in activated sludge granules (58).

Additionally, Bockelmann et al.(16) observed that stable filamentous networks produced by the

aquatic strain F8 were comprised of DNA. The present study provides the first account of a

structural signature for eDNA, absent in the chromosomal DNA. However, the environmental

factors contributing to eDNA release and how this is regulated (i.e. whether it is an active or

passive process) are still unclear. It is possible that DNA-RNA foundational gel networks, as

described here for the Pseudomonads, are broad-scoping phenomena in biofilms, and that

interactions with RNA enable an extracellular structural function for DNA more broadly. Thus,

elucidating how nucleic acids, including RNA, are integral to the biophysical and other emergent

properties imparted on the biofilm via the extracellular matrix, will inform the regulation and

control of extracellular nucleic acid release across environmental and clinical biofilms.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial strains

Unless otherwise stated, all experiments were undertaken directly on *P. aeruginosa* PAO1

biofilms grown in lysogeny broth (LB) at 37°C. The *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 Δ*pf4* knockout mutant

is a defined Pf4 chromosomal deletion mutant of the entire Pf4 prophage genome (59). *P.*

aeruginosa PDO300, PDO300 (Δ*pel*) and PDO300(Δ*psl*) mutant strains were gratefully received

from Professor Bernd H. A. Rehm, Institute of Molecular Biosciences, Massey University, New

Zealand (28), where PDO300 is an isogenic *mucA* deletion mutant of PAO1 that overproduces

alginate. PDO300, PDO300 (Δ*pel*), PDO300(Δ*psl*) and PAO1 (Δ*pf4*), were also grown in LB at

37°C. *P. protogens Pf-5* and *P. putida* ATCC BAA-477 and S12 strain were grown in LB at

30°C.

Biofilm growth assay

Ten milliliter aliquots of *P. aeruginosa* planktonic pre-cultures (LB, 200 rpm, 37°C, OD$_{600}$ 2.40,

16 h) were diluted 50 times with LB in 2 L Erlenmeyer flasks and incubated for 5 d under static

conditions. Supplementary Figure 14A displays an image of 5 d old biofilm in LB. The cultures

were centrifuged at 10,000 x *g* for 15 min, the supernatant removed by decanting, and the

biofilm then collected and lyophilized (LabConco). Supplementary Figure 14B displays an

image of the culture after centrifugation showing clear separation of biofilm and supernatant.

Enzymatic digestions

Twenty milligrams of lyophilized biofilm was resuspended in 1 mL of either i) RNase buffer (50

mM Tris HCl, 10 mM EDTA, pH8) with 0.2 mg RNaseA from bovine pancreas (Sigma Aldrich),

ii) storage buffer (10 mM NaCl, 10 mM Tris-HCl) with 0.1 mg Pronase E from *Streptomyces*

grisens (Sigma Aldrich) with 0.5% (v/v), iii) 1X RNase H reaction buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl pH

7.8, 40 mM KCl, 8 mM $MgCl_2$, 1 mM DTT) with 0.4 mg RNase H (Thermo Fisher Scientific),

iv) 1X RNase III reaction buffer (500 mM NaCl, 100 mM Tris pH 7.9, 100 mM $MgCl_2$, 10 mM

DTT) with 0.6 mg RNase II (Thermo Fisher Scientific) or v) DNase I buffer (100 mM Tris (pH

7.5), 25 mM $MgCl_2$ and $CaCl_2$) with 0.2 mg DNAse I (active and inactivated) from bovine

pancreas (Sigma Aldrich). DNase I was inactivated with the addition of 1 mM EDTA and

following heating to 85°C in DNase I buffer for 10 min. All digestions were performed with

shaking at 200 rpm at 37°C for 16 h. The suspensions were then centrifuged (10,000 x *g*, 15

min), the supernatant was discarded and the pellets of the biofilm materials were lyophilized.

Normal force measurement

Forty milligrams per milliliter solutions of lyophilized biofilms were added to 1 mL 1-ethyl-3-

methylimidazolium acetate and incubated at 55°C for 2 h. A Haake Mars 3 (Thermo Fisher

Scientific) stress-controlled rotational rheometer with Peltier controlled element at 25°C, was

used for rheological measurements. Thirty five-millimeter diameter parallel plate geometry was

used with smooth titanium plates to measure viscosity and normal stress difference ($N_1 - N_2$)

where N_1 is the difference between normal stresses in the direction of shearing and those oriented

perpendicular to the shear plane, and N_2 the difference between normal stresses perpendicular to

the shear plane and those in the neutral, traverse, direction (26). Prior to measurement, the gap

error was zeroed at 4 N and gap error calculated as previously described (60-62). The parallel

plate rheometer was used because it allows rheological characterization of ultra-low sample

volumes and permits access to high shear rates for characterization of non-linear elasticity

without measurement artifacts such as inertia (i.e. Reynolds number is low). One hundred

microliters of sample were deposited on the plates. The plates were closed to 100 μm, the sample

trimmed and the sample allowed to sit for 5 min prior to measurement. All measurements with

Normal force (F_N) less than the resolution of the rheometer (i.e. < 0.1 N) were set to 0 before

calculation of N_1-N_2 using equations 9-11, and viscosity from equation 3-5 in Davies and Stokes

(60) for the parallel plate geometry.

Only the linearly increasing portion of the normal stress difference curves are presented. Above

this range normal stress difference begins to decrease again which may be due to elastic

instabilities or associating polymers (63). Corrections were made to $N_1 - N_2$ to account for inertia

using equation 17 in Davies and Stokes (60) and to correct for the baseline residual force in the

samples. Except for the DNase I-treated biofilm, the shear rheology for all treatments could be

modelled using the finitely extensible non-linear elastic with Gaussian closure proposed by

Peterlin (FENE-P) constitutive model by varying four parameters to fit shear viscosity and

normal stress difference as a function of shear rate (Supplementary Table 2). To use this model,

we make the assumption that $N_2 << N_1$, and thus $\Delta N \sim N_1$, as is common for polymer solutions

(Davies and Stokes (60)). Fitting parameters for the FENE-P model include λ_1 = relaxation

time, b = a measure of the relative extensibility of the model spring, η_s = solvent viscosity, η_p =

polymer contribution to the viscosity. The FENE-P equations can be written in the following

format, as shown by Bird et al.(61):

$$\eta = \eta_s + \frac{\eta_p}{\lambda_1 \dot{\gamma}}\left((C_2 + C_1)^{\frac{1}{3}} - (C_2 - C_1)^{\frac{1}{3}}\right)$$ (Equation 1)

$$N_1 = \frac{2\eta_p}{\lambda_1}\left((C_2 + C_1)^{\frac{1}{3}} - (C_2 - C_1)^{\frac{1}{3}}\right)^2$$ (Equation 2)

Where:

$$C_1 = \frac{b}{4}\lambda_1 \dot{\gamma}$$ (Equation 3)

$$C_2 = \left(C_1^2 + \left(\frac{b+3}{6}\right)^3\right)^{1/2}$$ (Equation 4)

All measurements were performed in triplicate. For clarity, one representative data set is

presented in Figure 1A-B and Supplementary Figure 1A-B, with the respective Power Law and

FENE-P model fit to that data set. Averaged values for the FENE-P and Power law fits, with the

standard deviation across three biological replicates are shown in Supplementary Tables 1 and 2,

where each biological replicate refers to a separate growth assay.

For oscillatory measurements a Haake Mars 60 (Thermo Scientific) stress-controlled rotational

rheometer with Peltier controlled element at 25°C was used. 0.25 mL biofilm (native wild type,

wild type following digestion with active and inactivated DNase I, RNase III and RNase H,

PDO300(Δpel) and PDO300(Δpsl) and eDNA gel were collected from solution and deposited on

thirty five-millimeter diameter parallel plate geometry with smooth titanium plates, which were

closed to 250 μm, and the sample trimmed prior to measurement. A frequency range of 0.1 to 1

s^{-1} was used and at a strain in the linear viscoelastic region for each of the samples analyzed.

Extracellular polymeric substances (EPS) extraction

Lyophilized biofilms were dissolved in ionic liquid mixture (40% (v/v) 1-ethyl-3-

methylimidazolium acetate (EMIM Ac): 60% (v/v) N,N-dimethyl acetamide (DMAc)) at 55°C

for 16 h. The solution was centrifuged (10,000 x g) to remove any undissolved material.

Perchloric acid (70%) was added (0.05% v/v) to the viscosified centrate (on ice). After 15 min

incubation, the solution was centrifuged at 10,000 x g at 4°C for 15 min and the pellet recovered.

This was repeated on the centrate two to four times until the solution was not viscous. The

precipitate was dialysed against double distilled water for 2 d at 4°C (SnakeSkin™ Dialysis

Tubing, 3.5K MWCO, 22 mm) and the retentate lyophilized (FreeZone Plus 4.5 Liter Cascade

Benchtop Freeze Dry System). The same procedure was performed in triplicate on calf thymus

DNA, lipase, cytochrome C for the purposes of determining recovery yield of representative

exoproteins, and on RNA from torula yeast for assessing by ^{31}P NMR whether the extraction

procedure contributed to RNA transesterification (all from Sigma Aldrich).

Extracellular nucleic acid isolation

Twenty milligrams of lyophilized retentate (i.e. post perchloric acid precipitation) were dissolved

in 1 mL of 40% (v/v) EMIM-Ac, 60% DMAc (v/v) (55°C, 16 h). Chromatographic separation

was achieved in a Shimadzu system comprising DGU-20A 3r Prominence Degasser and LC-

20AD Solvent Delivery Unit, fitted with two Agilent PLgel 10 μm column of 10^5Å pore size for

separation across the MW range 200 kDa to 2000 kDa. The eluent flow rate was 3.0 mL.min^{-1}

and the injection volume 1 mL. The fractions with molecular weight range of 2000-800kDa and

800-200kDa were pooled, precipitated with 60% v/v ethanol, and the precipitate resuspended in

doubled distilled water and dialyzed for 2 d at 4°C (SnakeSkin™ Dialysis Tubing, 3.5K MWCO,

22 mm) against double distilled water to induce gelation. The gel was then collected from the

dialysis tubing.

eDNA temperature-dependent phase transition

Five-day old biofilm and eDNA gel isolate were resuspended in double distilled water to achieve

UV absorbance reading 1 and ddH$_2$O served as a blank. The heat-treated samples were analyzed

by JASCO-815 spectropolarimeter in a 1 cm path length quartz cuvette containing a solution

volume 500 μL. Spectra (200-320 nm) were measured at 1°C increments from 30 - 95°C. For

each measurement, an average of three scans was taken and the buffer spectra subtracted. The

magnitude of the DNA peak presented is the rolling average across five temperatures. The

differential scanning calorimetry thermogram was measured in a MicroSC multicell calorimeter

(Setaram,), using Calisto for data collection and processing. 400 and 60 mg of 5 d biofilm and

eDNA gel isolates respectively added to sealed-1 mL Hastelloy C cells for measurement. An

empty HastelloyC cell was used as reference. The samples were heated from 20-100°C at 1

K.min^{-1}, then cooled down to 20°C at 1 K.min^{-1}. The experiment was run under nitrogen gas

sweeping.

Solid-state NMR

For solid-state NMR experiments performed on the eDNA gel isolate, ^{15}N labeled NH$_4$Cl-

supplemented M9 minimal media was used for biofilm growth. M9 consisted of 9.552 g.L^{-1}

Na$_2$HPO$_4$.2H$_2$O, 4.41 g litre^{-1} KH$_2$PO$_4$, 1.71 g.L^{-1} NaCl, 1 g.L^{-1} [15]NH$_4$Cl, 0.24 g.L^{-1} MgSO$_4$,

0.011 g.L^{-1} CaCl$_2$, 2 g.L^{-1} casamino acids, and 0.4 g.L^{-1} glucose. The eDNA gel was prepared

from the M9 grown *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 biofilm as described above.

Solid-state NMR experiments were performed on 1) eDNA gel with and 2) without preheating to

65°C, and 3) chromosomal DNA after lyophilization, dissolution in (EMIM Ac): 60% (v/v)

N,N-dimethyl acetamide (DMAc)) at 55°C for 16 h, precipitation with ethanol (60% v/v) and

dialysis against water (3500 Da MWCO) as described above for eDNA. A 14.1 T Bruker

Advance III instruments was used equipped with a 1.9 mm MAS probe operated in double mode.

The typical ^{1}H, ^{15}N and ^{31}P $\pi/2$ pulse lengths were 2.3, 3.7, and 4.5 μs, respectively. 2D dipolar-

based ^{15}N-^{1}H heteronuclear-correlation (HETCOR) experiments were conducted on the ^{15}N-

labelled eDNA gel isolate at 37 kHz MAS spinning frequency. Variable temperature was

regulated at -20ºC and the sample temperature was 12ºC (calibrated using ethylene glycol). In

the ^{15}N-^{1}H HETCOR experiments, the initially excited ^{1}H magnetization was transferred to ^{15}N

through a cross polarization step followed by t1 evolution. Then, the ^{15}N magnetization was

flipped to longitudinal axis and 400 ms proton saturation pulses were applied for water

suppression. Subsequently, the ^{15}N magnetization was flipped to the transverse plane and

transferred to ^{1}H via a second CP step for signal acquisition. Two ^{15}N-^{1}H HETCOR experiments

were collected, one with 400 μs and the other with 2 ms contact times applied for both of the CP

steps. Low power XiX ^{1}H decoupling (~10 kHz) was employed during ^{15}N evolution and

WALTZ-16 decoupling (10 kHz) was implemented on ^{15}N channel during ^{1}H acquisition.

1-D ^{31}P experiments were performed on ^{15}N-labelled eDNA gel isolate and ^{15}N-labelled *P.*

aeruginosa PAO biofilm, both directly after dialysis against double distilled water at 4°C for 2 d

(SnakeSkin™ Dialysis Tubing, 3.5K MWCO, 22 mm) and following alkalinization (0.1 M

NaOD, 55ºC, 15 min) and lyophilization (FreeZone Plus 4.5 Liter Cascade Benchtop Freeze Dry

System). 15 kHz MAS spinning frequency and a sample temperature of 27ºC. 75 kHz

SPINAL64 ^{1}H decoupling was applied during ^{31}P acquisition time. All chemical shifts were

indirectly referenced using adamantane as a secondary standard (downfield peak is at 40.48 ppm,

DSS scale).

Solution-state nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR)

Solution-state NMR experiments were performed on an 800 MHz Bruker Avance III

spectrometer at 25°C. Sample concentration was 10 mg (dry weight).mL^{-1} unless otherwise

specified. Spectra were recorded either under conditions of neutral pH in 100% D_2O (Cambridge

Isotope Laboratories), or following alkalinization (i.e. transesterification, 0.1 M NaOD, 55°C, 2

h). 1-D NMR experiments include ^1H and ^{31}P direct detection, while 2-D NMR analysis include

^{13}C-HSQC, ^{13}C-HSQC-TOCSY, ^1H-^{31}P HETCOR, HMBC, and COSY. All spectra were

referenced internally against the solvent peak (90% H2O and 10% D2O, unless otherwise

specified), and all spectral analyses were performed using Topspin 4.0 and NMRFAM-SPARKY

(64) software.

Asolectin (Sigma Aldrich) standard (10 mg/mL) and lyophilized *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 biofilm (10

mg/mL) were dissolved in 40% (v/v) EMIM Ac: 60% (v/v) DMAc at (55°C, 2 h). *P. aeruginosa*

PAO1 pre-culture cell lysate was prepared by lysing pre-culture cells with lysozyme in PBS. 10%

(v/v) of D_2O was added to all samples for locking purposes.

Chromosomal DNA extraction

Chromosomal DNA was extracted from the biofilm using FastDNA SPIN Kit for soil (MP

Biomedicals, USA) as per the standard protocol. Briefly, biofilm was resuspended in Sodium

Phosphate Buffer in was lysed (Lysing Matrix), homogenized (FastPrep®, 40 seconds, speed

setting 6.0), and the cell debris removed by centrifugation (14,000 x *g*, 5 min). Proteins were

removed by precipitation (250 µl Protein Precipitation Solution), the supernatant mixed with

DNA Binding Matrix, which was then homogenized and transferred to a SPIN™ Filter. Excess

supernatant was removed by centrifugation (14,000 x *g*, 5 min). DNA was then eluted from air

dried DNA Binding Matrix with DNase/ Pyrogen-Free Water.

Nucleotide sequencing, size and compositional analysis

The eDNA gel isolate was resuspended in 500 uL of 1x Protease K solution (10× Protease K

solution: 10 mM Tris HCl, 1% SDS and 10 mM EDTA, pH 8 buffer (10× protease K buffer

containing 500 mM Tris-HCl, 10% SDS, 10 mM $CaCl_2$) and 10 μL of Protease K (20 mg.mL^{-1},

Thermo Fisher Scientific) was added and the mixture incubated at 60°C for 2-16 h, after which

DNA was extracted as previously described in the phenol-chloroform method (65).

Samples before sequencing were further purified to remove any remaining protein and RNA by

RNase and Proteinase K treatment. The DNA was then isolated using phenol-chloroform

precipitation as described above. The DNA precipitate was dissolved in TE buffer, the purity

confirmed by 260/280 value in Nanodrop (acceptable range value: 1.8-2.0) and Qubit® 2.0

fluorometer.

The molecular weight distributions of extracellular and genomic DNA were measured on a 1%

agarose gel, which was prepared from Viviantis LE grade agarose using 1x TAE buffer (40 mM

Tris, 20 mM Acetate and 1 mM EDTA, pH 8.6). Gels were run horizontally. After

electrophoresis, the gel was stained for 0.5 h with ethidium bromide and visualized under

UV(66).

Three biological replicates were used for each DNA sequence analysis. Library was produced

using Illumina DNA sample preparation kit. The libraries were sequenced using Illumina MiSeq

platform (Illumina, San Diego, Ca) with paired-end protocol to read lengths of 600 nt generating

a total of 1,614,106 and 1,848,846 paired end reads. Raw reads were quality filtered (reads

remaining after trimming: PPG1-1549104, PBLC1-1666280) and aligned to the *P. aeruginosa*

PAO1 (AE004091) genome using CLC Genomics Workbench 9.0 (CLC bio, Cambridge, MA).

Extracellular RNA length was determined by TapeStation, model 2200 (Agilent Technologies).

Monoribonucleotide quantification was achieved on three biological replicates of the nucleic

acid isolate gels, pre-alkalinized with 0.4 M NaOH in double distilled water (10 mg dry weight

gel/mL) at 55 °C for 2 h. Extracellular monoribonucleotides resulting from transesterification

were quantified using Waters ACQUITY UPLC™ (Waters Milford, MA) liquid chromatography

system with XEVO TQ-S mass spectrometer (Waters Milford, MA) equipped with an

electrospray ionization (ESI) source. 2 µl of diluted samples were injected for analysis. An

AQUITY UPLC HSS T3 column (2.1 mm x 150 mm, 1.7 µm, Waters, USA) was used,

maintained at 45°C. 0.1% v/v formic acid and acetonitrile were used to establish the required

gradient. The elution gradient increased from 0-1% v/v acetonitrile in first 6 min and then to

100% at 7 min, which was maintained for another 1.5 min, reduced to 0% at 8.6 min and held

until 12 min. Torula yeast RNA (0.5 mg/L) was used as RNA standard (Sigma Aldrich). The

HPLC flow rate was maintained at 0.3 ml.min^{-1}.

Staining and microscopy

Microscopic imaging was conducted on a confocal microscope Zeiss LSM 780 with a 63×

objective. Extracellular RNA in the gel isolate were stained using SYTO RNASelect (Thermo

Fisher Scientific) green fluorescent cell stain (5 mM solution in DMSO). Five µM stain solution

was prepared from 1 µL of stock in 1X PBS solution (137 mM NaCl, 2.7 mM KCl, 4.3 mM

Na$_2$HPO$_4$, 1.47 mM KH$_2$PO$_4$). The gel isolate was labelled with 5 µM stain solution, kept at

37°C for 20 min and then transferred to glass side for imaging. eDNA staining was achieved by

depositing biofilm or eDNA gel isolate on a glass slide, air-drying overnight and incubating with

2 µM TOTO-1 iodide (1 mM solution in DMSO, Thermo Fisher Scientific) for 15 min.

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Author Contributions

T.S., F.R.W., W.L.L., S.M., H.M.S., S.S.A. and X.S. performed experiments; T.S. and A.T.P. designed the experiments. T.S. (all), F.R.W. (nucleic acids), A.T.P. (nucleic acids), H.M.S. (rheology), G.S.K. (sequencing), S.S.A. (LCMS/MS) and J.R.S. (rheology) advised on measurements and analysed the data. T.S., F.R.W., W.L.L., H.M.S., S.A.R., A.T.P and S.K. wrote the manuscript. J.R.S edited the manuscript.

Competing Interests

All authors have no competing interests.

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