Sessile growth promotes PrrF- and 2-alkyl-4(1*H*)-quinolone-dependent iron regulation of

the HSI-II type six secretion locus in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*

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ABSTRACT

Pseudomonas aeruginosa is an opportunistic pathogen that is frequently associated with

chronic, polymicrobial infections. *P. aeruginosa* possesses a complex regulatory network that

modulates nutrient acquisition and virulence, but our knowledge of these networks is largely

based on studies with shaking cultures, which are not likely representative of conditions during

infection. Here, we provide proteomic, metabolic, and genetic evidence that regulation by iron, a

critical metallo-nutrient, is altered in sessile *P. aeruginosa* cultures. We identified type VI

secretion as a target of iron regulation in *P. aeruginosa* in static but not shaking conditions, and

we demonstrate that this regulation occurs via PrrF sRNA-dependent production of 2-alkyl-

4(1*H*)-quinolone metabolites. We further discovered that iron-regulated interactions between *P.*

aeruginosa and a Gram-positive opportunistic pathogen, *Staphylococcus aureus*, are mediated

by distinct factors in shaking versus sessile bacterial cultures. These results yield new bacterial

iron regulation paradigms and highlight the need to re-define iron homeostasis in sessile

microbial communities.

INTRODUCTION

Antimicrobial-resistant bacterial pathogens represent a substantial health risk, raising concerns of a return to a "pre-antibiotic era." One prominent example is multi-drug resistant (MDR) *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, a Gram-negative opportunistic pathogen that is capable of establishing acute infections of the blood and lung in immunocompromised individuals. *P. aeruginosa* also causes chronic infections in surgical wounds, diabetic foot ulcers, and in the lungs of individuals with cystic fibrosis (CF) and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD). *P. aeruginosa* is the leading cause of morbidity among nosocomial pathogens, and is responsible for over 10% of all hospital-acquired infections (1-7). Therapeutic options for *P. aeruginosa* are rapidly dwindling due to the spread of antimicrobial resistance, underscoring the need for novel antimicrobials that can be used to treat MDR infections. To that end, a more complete understanding of the metabolic processes that contribute to *P. aeruginosa* survival and pathogenesis during infection is necessary for the discovery and development of effective therapeutics.

Iron is a required metallo-nutrient for most living organisms and has a significant impact on the establishment and progression of *P. aeruginosa* infections (8, 9). During infection, the host sequesters iron from invading pathogens through a process referred to as nutritional immunity (10-12). In response to iron starvation, *P. aeruginosa* expresses several virulence factors that cause host cell damage, presumably releasing iron and other nutrients from host cells (13-17). Iron starvation also induces the expression of multiple systems that mediate high affinity uptake of iron and heme (18, 19). Additionally, iron starvation induces expression of the PrrF small regulatory RNAs (sRNAs), which post-transcriptionally reduce expression of non-essential iron-dependent metabolic enzymes. The PrrF sRNAs are required for virulence in an acute murine lung infection model and are also highly expressed in the lungs of CF patients (9, 20, 21). However, the specific mechanisms by which the PrrF sRNAs contribute to mammalian infection remain unclear.

One prominent function of the PrrF sRNAs is their ability to indirectly promote the

production of several small secreted metabolites collectively referred to as 2-alkyl-4(1*H*)-

quinolones (AQs), which mediate a range of toxic activities against the host, as well as microbial

pathogens that co-colonize *P. aeruginosa*-infected hosts (20, 22-24). 2-alkyl-4-quinolone N-

oxides (AQNOs) are potent cytochrome inhibitors that obstruct respiratory metabolism in

mammalian and microbial cells (25-27). 2-alkyl-3-hydroxy-quinolone, which is more commonly

referred to as PQS, and 2-alkyl-4-hydroxyquinolones (AHQs) both function as quorum signaling

molecules and induce the expression of secreted factors that further inhibit growth of

mammalian and microbial cells (28-31). AQ synthesis is initiated by enzymes encoded by the

pqsABCDE operon, with PqsA catalyzing the first step with the conversion of anthranilate into

anthraniloyl-CoA (32). The PrrF sRNAs promote AQ production by repressing the translation of

the anthranilate degradation enzyme complexes AntABC and CatBCA (16), which degrade

anthranilate to metabolites that enter the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle. Thus, the PrrF sRNAs

spare anthranilate for AQ production and are therefore required for optimal AQ production in

iron-depleted conditions (9, 20, 23, 33) .

In accordance with PrrF promoting AQ production in iron-depleted environments, we

previously discovered that iron starvation enhances AQ-dependent antimicrobial activity against

the Gram-positive pathogen *Staphylococcus aureus*, which can co-colonize with *P. aeruginosa*

in chronic wounds and in CF lung infections (20, 23). Surprisingly, these previous studies

showed that the *prrF* locus was not required for iron-regulated antimicrobial activity, and several

possible explanations for this have been considered. One explanation that has not been

investigated is that earlier studies used either agar plates or static liquid cultures, which are

likely distinct from the shaking liquid cultures historically used to study iron regulation. While

aerobic shaking cultures are exposed to constant aeration and perturbation to promote

homogenous cultures, *P. aeruginosa* infections are typically more heterogeneous and feature

planktonic as well as adherent biofilm communities of *P. aeruginosa*, particularly during chronic

infections. Changes in the iron metabolism and iron regulatory factors in response to aeration

and perturbation have been documented in other bacterial species, suggesting a regulatory link

between iron regulated metabolism and sessile growth that may be common among other

bacterial species (34, 35). Because of the broad impact of iron on *P. aeruginosa* physiology, we

hypothesized that sessile growth would likewise alter iron-regulated metabolism in *P.*

aeruginosa, potentially revealing novel iron regulatory pathways that are more relevant during

infection.

In the current study, we sought to identify targets of iron and PrrF regulation during

sessile growth of *P. aeruginosa* using an untargeted proteomics-based approach. Our results

revealed a number of proteins that were differently affected by iron and PrrF in sessile versus

shaking cultures. Amongst these were the proteins for phenazine biosynthesis, which were

repressed by iron in sessile conditions, while recent studies show they are induced by iron in

shaking conditions (12, 36). We also discovered PrrF positively affects the expression of the

Hcp1 secretion island II type VI secretion system (HSI-II T6SS) in *P. aeruginosa*, and that this

regulation is due to PrrF-mediated AQ production. Moreover, while PrrF is not required for

antimicrobial activity against *S. aureus* in sessile conditions, we found that it still promotes the

production of AQs in sessile conditions. However, the relative abundances and roles of

individual AQ species for interspecies interactions varied between shaking versus sessile

cultures, thereby altering the requirement of PrrF for antimicrobial activity. Lastly, we show that

reduced oxygen availability in sessile cultures is not solely responsible for the changes in iron

regulation observed in this study. Combined, these results indicate that sessile bacterial

communities use unique regulatory and metabolic networks to adapt to decreased nutrient

availability, likely affecting the production of key virulence determinants.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains and growth conditions. Bacterial strains used in this study are listed in **Supplementary Table S1**. Lysogeny broth (LB) and agar (LA) were prepared using 10g/L NaCl (Sigma, St Louis, MO), 10g/L tryptone, and 5g/L yeast extract, 15g/L agar when applicable (Becton-Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ). *P. aeruginosa* and *S. aureus* strains were both routinely grown on LA from freezer stock. Five isolated colonies of each strain were selected from overnight-incubated agar plates and inoculated into 5mL LB. For iron starvation studies, bacterial strains were grown in a Chelex-treated and dialyzed trypticase soy broth (DTSB) prepared as previously described (16). Media dialysis was carried out using Spectra/Por®2 dialysis membrane tubing (29mm diameter) with a molecular weight cutoff of 12-14kD (Repligen, Waltham, Ma).

For co-culture assays, quantitative real time PCR (qRT-PCR) analysis, and mass spectrometry-assisted metabolite and proteome studies, *S. aureus* and *P. aeruginosa* cultures were diluted into 1.5mL of DTSB with or without 100µM (high iron) $FeCl_3$ supplementation, to an absorbance (OD_{600}) of 0.08 and 0.05, respectively. Mono- and co-cultures of *P. aeruginosa* and *S. aureus* were prepared in DTSB media and incubated at 37˚C for 18 hours in a shaking incubator. Shaking aerobic cultures were incubated in 1.5mL of DTSB media in 14mL round bottom tubes and closed with a foam stopper to allow for sufficient aeration. Sessile cultures were incubated in 1.8mL DTSB media in 6-well polystyrene culture plates, which were covered in breathe-easy wrap to prevent evaporation. During incubation, cultures were grown at a shaking rate of either 250rpm (shaking conditions) or 0rpm (static conditions). Microaerobic co-cultures were grown in identical growth conditions as shaking cultures, except culture tubes were placed into an air-tight candle jar in the presence of a CampyPak (BD Diagnostics, NJ, USA). Sealed candle jars were secured in a shaking incubator and incubated for 18 hours at 37˚C and a shaking rate of 250rpm.

Quantitative label-free proteomics. Cell cultures were prepared for proteomics

analysis as described previously (36). Briefly, cells were harvested by centrifugation and

washed in phosphate-buffered saline prior to lysis in 4% sodium deoxycholate. Lysates were

washed, reduced, alkylated and trypsinolyzed on filter (37, 38). Tryptic peptides were separated

using a nanoACQUITY UPLC analytical column (BEH130 C18, 1.7 µm, 75 µm x 200 mm,

Waters) over a 165-minute linear acetonitrile gradient (3 – 40%) with 0.1 % formic acid on a

Waters nano-ACQUITY UPLC system and analyzed on a coupled Thermo Scientific Orbitrap

Fusion Lumos Tribrid mass spectrometer. Full scans were acquired at a resolution of 120,000,

and precursors were selected for fragmentation by higher-energy collisional dissociation

(normalized collision energy at 32 %) for a maximum 3-second cycle. Tandem mass spectra

were searched against *Pseudomonas* genome database PAO1 reference protein sequences

(39) using Sequest HT algorithm and MS Amanda algorithm with a maximum precursor mass

error tolerance of 10 ppm (40, 41). Carbamidomethylation of cysteine and deamidation of

asparagine and glutamine were treated as static and dynamic modifications, respectively.

Resulting hits were validated at a maximum false discovery rate of 0.01 using a semi-

supervised machine learning algorithm Percolator (42). Label-free quantifications were

performed using Minora, an aligned AMRT (Accurate Mass and Retention Time) cluster

quantification algorithm (Thermo Scientific, 2017). Protein abundance ratios between the high

iron cultures and the low iron cultures were measured by comparing the MS1 peak volumes of

peptide ions, whose identities were confirmed by MS2 sequencing as described above. Gene

function and pathway analysis was completed using information from the *Pseudomonas*

genome database (39), KEGG database (43), *Pseudomonas* metabolome database (44), and

the STRING database (45).

Real time PCR analysis. Quantitative real time PCR (qRT-PCR) analysis was

conducted on at least three biological replicates of the PAO1 reference strain, the isogenic

Δ*prrF* mutant, or Δ*pqsA* mutant grown in DTSB supplemented with either 100µM or 0µM iron. *P.*

aeruginosa cells were lysed after 18 hours using 2.5mg/mL lysozyme and incubated at 37˚C for

30 minutes. RNA extraction was performed using the RNeasy mini kit (QIAGEN, Germantown,

MD). Real-time qualitative PCR analysis was performed as described previously (9) using an

Applied Sciences StepOne Plus Real Time PCR System (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA).

Primer and probe sequences used for gene expression analysis are listed in **Supplementary**

Table S2. Quantitation of cDNA was carried out using standard curves compiled for individual

gene targets. *P. aeruginosa* expression data was normalized to *oprF* expression in aerobic

shaking conditions, or *omlA* in either microaerobic shaking conditions or sessile growth

conditions.

Quantitation of AQs using liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry. AQ

quantitation was carried out as previously reported (46). Briefly, 300µL of culture were

harvested and spiked with a 25µM stock nalidixic acid internal standard to a final concentration

of 500nM, followed by an extraction using ethyl acetate with 0.1% acetic acid. The organic

phase containing extracted AQs was harvested from each sample, dried down, and

resuspended in 300µL of 0.1% formic acid suspended in 1:1:1 (v/v/v) mixture of methanol,

water, and acetonitrile. Extracts were analyzed via quantitative liquid chromatography-tandem

mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) using multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) performed on a

Waters ACQUITY UHPLC coupled to a Xevo TQ-XS tandem quadrupole mass spectrometer in

positive ion mode**.**

In order to quantify the amount of PQS and AHQ export from sessile and shaking

cultures, supernatants were analyzed in 5 biological replicates of wild type PAO1 using LC-

MS/MS and compared to whole culture extracts. 300µL of 18h DTSB cell cultures were either

subjected to ethyl acetate extraction or were centrifuged for 5 minutes at 21000rcf, and cell

supernatants were transferred to fresh eppendorf tubes. Cell supernatants were then subjected

to AQ extraction using ethyl acetate with 0.1% acetic acid prior to LC-MS/MS analysis, as

described above.

AQ complementation. For chemical complementation of the $\Delta pqsA$ mutant, individual

AQ standards were obtained commercially from the following sources: 2-heptyl-3-hydroxy-4-

(1*H*)-quinolone (C7-PQS) and 2-heptyl-4-quinolone (HHQ) were both purchased from Millipore

Sigma (Burlington, MA, USA); 2-nonyl-3-hydroxy-4-(1*H*)-quinolone (C9-PQS) was obtained from

Cayman Chemical Company (Ann Arbor, MI, USA); 2-nonyl-4-quinolone (NHQ) was purchased

from Combi-Blocks (San Diego, CA, USA). 50μM stock solutions of each AQ were then

prepared by suspending dried samples in methanol, incubating at 37˚C for 10 minutes, and then

sonicating samples in a sonicating water bath for 20 seconds. Cell cultures were prepared by

incubating wild type PAO1 and $\Delta pqsA$ strains in low or high iron DTSB at a shaking rate of

250rpm (shaking conditions) or 0rpm (sessile) at 37˚C, as described above. After 18h

incubation, 400μL of cell culture were removed and diluted in RNAlater (Invitrogen, Carlsbad,

CA) for qRT-PCR analysis as described above. An additional 50μL of culture was removed and

subjected to ethyl acetate extraction for targeted LC-MS/MS analysis. Chemically

complemented $\Delta pqsA$ groups were supplemented with either a mixture of C7-PQS and C9-PQS

to a final concentration of 15μM and 8μM, respectively, or a mixture of HHQ and NHQ to a final

AQ concentration of 3 μM and 4μM, respectively. Wild type and $\Delta pqsA$ control cultures were

treated with an equivalent volume of MeOH to account for MeOH-mediated effects on T6SS

gene expression. Complemented and un-complemented strains were then incubated for 2 hours

under identical incubation parameters as described above. After 2 hours, 400μL of culture were

diluted in RNAlater for qRT-PCR analysis, while an additional 50μL of culture were subjected to

ethyl acetate extraction for targeted LC-MS/MS analysis.

For complementation of the $\Delta pqsA$ mutant with culture supernatants, PAO1 donor

cultures were grown in 1.5mL of either low or high iron supplemented DTSB at 37˚C, and

incubated at a shaking rate of either 250rpm or 0rpm, as described above. After 18 hours, donor

cultures were centrifuged at 20,000rcf for 4 minutes and supernatants were subsequently

removed and filter sterilized using 28mm, 0.20µM syringe filters (Corning Inc., NY, USA). 50µL

of filtered supernatants were removed and subjected to ethyl acetate to confirm the presence of

AQs via LC-MS/MS. Acceptor cultures were incubated under identical conditions as those

described for donor cultures. After 18 hours incubation, 400µL of acceptor cultures were

removed and diluted into 400µL of RNAlater for qRT-PCR analysis, while an additional 50µL

was removed and subjected to ethyl acetate extraction for LC-MS/MS analysis. 700µL of

remaining culture were then transferred to microcentrifuge tubes and centrifuged at 20,000rcf

for 4 minutes. Upon centrifugation, wild type and ΔpqsA strains were either pipette mixed back

into solution, serving as positive and negative controls, respectively, or their cell supernatants

were removed and replaced with supernatants from donor cultures grown under identical

conditions. Once resuspended, cultures were transferred into fresh 15mL culture tubes and

incubated for 2 hours under their previous incubation parameters. After 2 hours, 400µL of

acceptor culture were diluted into 400µL of RNAlater for qRT-PCR analysis, and an additional

50µL were removed and subjected to ethyl acetate extraction for subsequent LC-MS/MS

analysis.

Co-culture studies. 400µL of *P. aeruginosa* and *S. aureus* mono- and co-cultures were

harvested at 15000rcf for 5 minutes. Cell pellets were resuspended in 400µL of 0.1% Triton-X in

phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and vortexed rigorously. From these resuspensions, serial

dilutions were prepared in 0.1% Triton-X in PBS. 10µL of each dilution was spotted onto Baird-

Parker agar plates and Pseudomonas Isolation Agar (PIA) plates to select for *S. aureus* and *P.*

aeruginosa growth, respectively. Upon spotting 10µL of dilutions onto agar plates, the plates

were tilted to facilitate even drips across the plate surface. PIA plates were incubated at 37˚C

for 18 hours and colony forming units (CFU) were counted. Baird-Parker plates were incubated

for 37˚C for 48 hours to allow for adequate growth of *S. aureus* small-colony variants observed

in some assays prior to counting CFUs.

Statistics. Statistically significant changes in cell viability, RNA gene expression, and

AQ concentrations between treatment groups were identified using a two-tailed students t-test

on Microsoft Excel 2013, with a significance threshold of p value ≤ 0.05. Protein expressions

that changed 2-fold or more with an FDR adjusted p-value < 0.05 were considered statistically

significant.

RESULTS

Proteomics reveals altered iron-regulation in sessile *P. aeruginosa* cultures. Our

current knowledge of *P. aeruginosa* iron regulation is largely restricted to shaking cultures (14,

16, 19, 23, 36, 47). To determine whether global iron regulatory pathways are altered in sessile

cultures *of P. aeruginosa*, we applied a label-free, LC-MS/MS-based proteomics methodology

recently described by our laboratories (36). Using this unbiased approach, we determined the

proteomes of static and shaking cultures of PAO1 and the isogenic Δ*prrF* mutant grown in

chelexed and dialyzed TSB medium (DTSB), supplemented with or without 100µM FeCl$_3$. Mass

spectra were identified using a PAO1 reference proteome, which were in turn validated to a

false discovery rate of 0.01 to ensure proper assignment of protein identities.

Initially, we sought to confirm whether iron regulatory effects previously identified in

shaking conditions were similar to shaking cultures analyzed in the current study. For this, we

identified proteins whose levels showed a statistically significant (FDR adjusted *p*-value <0.05)

log fold change (LFC) > 1 upon iron starvation. This analysis revealed 178 and 191 proteins that

were significantly induced and repressed, respectively, by iron starvation (**Supplementary**

Dataset S1). As previously observed (14, 19, 48-52), iron starvation significantly increased

proteins for the siderophore (pyoverdine and pyochelin) and heme uptake systems, as well as

several iron-regulated virulence factors, during shaking growth (**Fig. 1A**). Also as previously

observed, iron-containing proteins involved in the TCA cycle and oxidative metabolism,

including aconitase A, succinate dehydrogenase B, and catalase, were induced by iron in a

PrrF-dependent manner under shaking conditions (**Fig. 1B**) (16, 53). We also observed PrrF-

dependent iron regulation of more recently identified PrrF targets in shaking conditions,

including proteins involved in Fe-Sulfur cluster biogenesis (IscS, IscU) and amino acid

metabolism (IlvD) (**Fig. 1B**) (36). Contrary to previous real-time PCR and microarray analyses

showing iron induction of the *antABC* mRNAs (36), neither iron supplementation nor *prrF*

deletion significantly affected levels of the AntABC proteins for anthranilate degradation under

shaking conditions (**Fig. 1B**). Overall however, this analysis replicated many of the global iron

regulatory pathways observed in previous studies.

We next determined whether known targets of PrrF and iron regulation under shaking

conditions were similarly regulated under sessile conditions. Iron repression of siderophore and

heme uptake proteins was largely retained during static growth, indicating that these iron

regulatory pathways are not altered under sessile conditions (**Fig. 1A**). In contrast, iron and PrrF

regulation of several proteins involved in the TCA cycle or oxidative stress protection was

reduced or eliminated in static conditions (**Fig. 1B**). We also noted robust iron induction of the

anthranilate degradation proteins AntABC and CatBCA, which occurred in a PrrF-independent

manner (**Fig. 1B**), in agreement with trends we observed in subsequent qRT-PCR analysis of

antR and *antA* under identical growth conditions (**Supplementary Fig. S1**). Combined, these

data indicate that PrrF-dependent iron regulatory pathways are altered in static conditions.

To determine if there are iron or PrrF regulatory effects that are unique to either sessile

or shaking growth, we mined our proteomics dataset for proteins whose levels were altered by

iron depletion in either sessile or shaking conditions, but not in both, by an LFC ≥ 1 and an FDR

adjusted *p* value ≤ 0.05. Approximately 410 proteins demonstrated significantly altered iron

regulation in response to growth conditions. Of these, 126 of these were specifically iron

induced and 93 were iron repressed in shaking but not static conditions, while 78 were iron

induced and 129 were iron repressed only in static conditions (**Supplementary Tables S3-S7**

and Dataset S1). Approximately 50% of the proteins affected by iron supplementation in static

conditions were unaffected by iron in the Δ*prrF* mutant (**Supplementary Tables S3-S7 and**

Dataset S1), indicating PrrF still mediates iron homeostasis during these growth conditions,

despite the loss of PrrF-mediated iron regulation on previously identified targets as shown in

Fig. 1B.

STRING network analysis was next used to identify relationships between the proteins

within each of these four groups. Several of the proteins that were induced by iron in shaking

conditions but not in static conditions were related to motility, including proteins for flagellar

assembly (FlgA, FlgL, FliC, and FliI), a chemotaxis-associated protein (ChpA), and proteins

involved in twitching pilus formation (PilV, PilY2, and FimU) **(Supplementary Dataset S1).**

Proteins that were significantly induced by iron depletion in static but not shaking cultures

included numerous enzymes required for synthesis of the redox cycling phenazine metabolites

and the pyochelin siderophore, as well as proteins encoded by the HSI-II T6SS locus (**Fig. 2A,**

Supplementary Tables S4-S5). Iron regulation of the phenazine and pyochelin synthesis

proteins occurred in a PrrF-independent manner, while iron regulation of many of the T6SS

proteins was either reduced or lost in the Δ*prrF* mutant (**Fig. 2B**). Moreover, we found that *prrF*

deletion had a negative effect on T6SS proteins in static but not shaking conditions

(Supplementary Dataset S1). The identification of T6SS as iron- and PrrF-regulated during

static but not shaking conditions was particularly intriguing, as this contact-dependent secretion

system is known to mediate virulence and interbacterial interactions that may be more relevant

in static conditions than in highly perturbed, shaking conditions. No complementarity was

identified between the PrrF sRNAs and the mRNAs encoding these proteins, thus we

hypothesized expression of these proteins is indirectly regulated by PrrF.

HSI-II T6SS genes are differentially regulated by AQs in shaking versus static

conditions. No previous reports have demonstrated a regulatory link between the PrrF sRNAs

and T6SS, nor were we able to identify complementarity between PrrF and T6SS secretion

mRNA sequences. Previous reports, however, have demonstrated that PrrF sRNAs are

necessary for full AQ production via repression of the anthranilate-degrading enzymes (9, 33).

AQs, in turn, induce expression of several virulence-associated genes, including genes involved

in T6SS (54, 55). We therefore first sought to determine whether defects in T6SS gene

expression observed in the $\Delta prrF$ mutant during our proteomics analysis were due to a partial

loss of AQ production. To test this, we performed targeted expression analysis of T6SS genes

in our wild type, $\Delta prrF$, and $\Delta pqsA$ strains grown in sessile conditions using quantitative real

time PCR (qRT-PCR). Specifically, we analyzed the expression of genes encoding proteins that

demonstrated PrrF dependence in our proteomics analysis, including *clpV2*, *fha2*, and *lip2*. In

agreement with our proteomics analysis, the $\Delta prrF$ mutant exhibited statistically significant

decreases in expression of each of these genes when grown in static conditions (**Fig. 3A**).

Moreover, the $\Delta pqsA$ mutant demonstrated even more dramatic decreases in the expression of

clpV2, fha2, and *lip2* relative to wild type PAO1 (**Fig. 3A**), supporting the notion that AQs are

necessary for the expression of T6SS genes in sessile cultures. In contrast, neither *prrF* nor

pqsA were required for T6SS gene expression in shaking conditions (**Fig. 3B**), supporting the

hypothesis that AQ regulation of T6SS is enhanced by sessile growth. Furthermore, we

observed that iron regulation of T6SS genes was either reduced or eliminated in shaking

conditions (**Fig. 3B**). Thus, iron regulation of T6SS in strain PAO1 occurs in a PrrF- and AQ-

dependent manner, and at least under the current media conditions, is restricted to sessile

growth.

AHQ concentrations are increased in static growth conditions. Our proteomics and

qRT-PCR analysis indicated that AQ regulation of T6SS genes is specific to sessile conditions,

although the underlying mechanism of this shift was not clear. Previous reports have

demonstrated that static growth can dramatically impact broad aspects of *P. aeruginosa*

physiology, including expression of virulence traits. These reports have suggested that

diminished oxygen availability in static conditions plays a defining role in mediating these effects

(56-58). Additional studies showed that oxygen limitation decreases PQS production while

increasing production of the PQS precursor molecules, AHQs (59). As such, we hypothesized

that oxygen limitation resulting from sessile growth conditions would favor production of AHQs,

potentially influencing AQ regulation of T6SS.

To test this, we used a validated LC-MS/MS method (46) to measure levels of various

AQ species in shaking and sessile cultures of wild-type PAO1 and the isogenic Δ*prrF* mutant.

As previously observed (23, 33), PrrF was required for optimal production of the C7 and C9

congeners of PQS, AQNO, and AHQ in shaking conditions (**Fig. 4A,B,C, white bars**). Similarly,

PrrF was required for optimal production of each AQ congener in static cultures (**Fig. 4A,B,C,**

gray bars), indicating that PrrF still promotes AQ production in sessile growth conditions. We

also observed a dramatic decrease in the levels of the C7 and C9 congeners of both PQS and

AQNO in sessile cultures (**Fig. 4 A,B, gray bars**), likely due to the previously reported oxygen

requirement for activity of the PqsH and PqsL enzymes (59, 60). The decrease in PQS in static

cultures corresponded to an increase in the AHQ congeners, both in the wild type and Δ*prrF*

strains (**Fig. 4C, gray bars versus white bars**). However, when we performed analysis of

cultures grown in shaking microaerobic conditions, AHQ levels were not significantly enhanced

relative to shaking aerobic cultures, despite decreased production of PQS and AQNO

congeners (**Fig. 4A,B,C striped bars versus white bars**). This indicates that increased AHQ

levels in sessile cultures are not solely due to reduced oxygen availability, but that sessile

growth causes distinct changes in *P. aeruginosa* AQ metabolite profiles.

Wild type supernatants partially restore T6SS expression in static Δ*pqsA* cultures.

Since AQ-dependent induction of T6SS corresponded closely with increases in the production

of AHQ quorum signaling molecules, we speculated that AHQs might possess enhanced

regulatory activity over T6SS gene expression. To test this hypothesis, we incubated the wild

type and Δ*pqsA* strains in DTSB under shaking or static conditions. After 18h incubation, we

supplemented the Δ*pqsA* mutant culture with a mixture of synthesized C7 and C9 congeners of

either PQS or AHQ, each at concentrations equivalent to those observed in iron-depleted PAO1

cultures **(Fig. 4A,C, white and gray bars),** and we grew these cultures for an additional 2

hours. We measured expression of T6SS systems genes in these cultures before AQ

supplementation (18h of growth) and two hours after supplementation (20h total growth). These

again data confirmed that *pqsA* is required for numerous HSI-II T6SS genes in static condition

but not shaking conditions (**Fig. S2**). Surprisingly, the AHQ and PQS mixtures both significantly

induced T6SS gene expression in shaking cultures of the Δ*pqsA* mutant, but not in sessile

cultures **(Fig. S2**)**.** The un-supplemented wild type and Δ*pqsA* controls did not demonstrate

statistically significant induction over the 2-hour incubation period, with or without shaking (**Fig.**

S2), verifying that the induction of T6SS expression in supplemented shaking cultures was not

due to longer growth. LC-MS/MS analysis of supplemented cultures before and after the 2-hour

incubation period indicated that AHQ is converted to PQS in shaking cultures, and to a lesser

extent in static cultures (**Fig. S3**). As a result, it was unclear if the observed induction in T6SS

genes during shaking conditions was caused by AHQs or PQS.

We next wondered if the lack of induction of T6SS expression by AQs in static conditions

above was due to differences in exogenous versus endogenous AQ delivery. PQS is known to

promote the formation of and insert into *P. aeruginosa* outer membrane vesicles (OMVs), which

mediate transport of PQS and other metabolites from cell to cell. Thus, it was possible that

exogenous delivery of MeOH-solubilized AQs did not accurately model the biology that

surrounds quinolone-mediated quorum sensing in sessile and shaking cultures. LC-MS/MS

analysis of supernatants and whole cultures from wild type *P. aeruginosa* demonstrated that

sessile cultures exhibited a higher proportion of C7- and C9-PQS outside the cell (**Fig. S4**),

further indicating that distinct trends in AQ-mediated QS may exist in sessile cultures versus

shaking conditions. To examine this possibility in light of T6SS expression, we supplemented

the Δ*pqsA* mutant with sterile filtered supernatants from wild type PAO1 cultures, thus

conserving potential delivery and transport mechanisms that exist in wild type cultures.

Specifically, we grew wild type and Δ*pqsA* strains for 18 hours in iron-deplete DTSB under

shaking or static conditions and then centrifuged the cultures and removed the supernatant. We

then resuspended these cultures in the sterile filtered supernatants from wild type PAO1 grown

under identical conditions, effectively supplementing these strains with AQs in their most

biologically relevant state. Supplemented cultures and un-supplemented control cultures were

incubated for an additional two hours with the transplanted medium. At 18h, we observed the

characteristic requirement of *pqsA* for T6SS gene expression in sessile but not shaking cultures

(**Fig. S5**). Notably, incubation with wild type PAO1 supernatants resulted in a significant

induction of all measured HSI-II T6SS genes in the Δ*pqsA* mutant grown under static conditions

but not in shaking conditions, indicating a differential impact of AQs on T6SS gene expression in

response to perturbation (**Fig. 5**). Thus, delivery of AQs and/or AQ-induced exoproducts in their

natively produced state allows for induction of T6SS expression in static but not shaking DTSB

cultures.

PrrF-mediated antimicrobial activity is altered by sessile growth conditions. We

next probed the impact of sessile growth on iron-regulated interactions with *S. aureus*. As

discussed above, we previously discovered that iron starvation enhances AQ-dependent

antimicrobial activity against *S. aureus* on agar plates as well as in a transwell co-culture system

(20, 23). Surprisingly, the Δ*prrF* mutant demonstrated similar antimicrobial activity to wild type

PAO1 in this previous study, suggesting that PrrF's effects on AQs may be distinct in these

assays (23). In light of our proteomic, qPCR, and metabolite analysis discussed above, we

hypothesized that the sessile nature of these co-culture systems may influence relative levels of

AQs that are produced, thus altering the impact of PrrF on antimicrobial activity.

To test this idea, we co-inoculated mono- and co-cultures of *P. aeruginosa* strain PAO1

and *S. aureus* strain USA300 in DTSB, supplemented with or without 100μM $FeCl_3$, and grew

them either statically or in a shaking incubator at 250rpm. After 18 hours, viability of *P.*

aeruginosa and *S. aureus* was quantified by enumerating CFUs on selective PIA and Baird

Parker agar, respectively. In agreement with earlier studies showing that AQs mediate

antimicrobial activity against *S. aureus*, USA300 viability was reduced significantly during low

iron co-culture with PAO1 static conditions, whereas the Δ*pqsA* mutant did not exhibit

antimicrobial activity against USA300 (**Fig. 6B, white bars**). Also in agreement with our earlier

work, iron limitation significantly enhanced antimicrobial activity of PAO1 against USA300 in

sessile co-cultures (**Fig. 6B, white versus gray bars**). We observed similar AQ-dependent,

iron-regulated antimicrobial activity in shaking cultures, though *S. aureus* viability was reduced

approximately 50,000-fold in low iron co-cultures with PAO1*,* signifying more robust killing than

in sessile co-cultures (**Fig. 6A, white bars).** Notably, the Δ*prrF* mutant was defective for

antimicrobial activity relative to the isogenic parent strain PAO1 in low iron shaking co-cultures

(**Fig. 6A, white bars**), a result that contrasted with our previous and current reports on sessile

co-cultures (23). *P. aeruginosa* viability was not affected by iron supplementation or deletion of

either *pqsA* or *prrF* in any of the conditions tested (**Fig. 6**), verifying that changes in

antimicrobial activity were not the result of changes in the viability of the *P. aeruginosa* Δ*pqsA* or

Δ*prrF* mutants.

These results indicated that the influence of PrrF on antimicrobial activity is reduced

during sessile growth, which was surprising since PrrF is still required for optimal AQ production

during sessile growth (**Fig. 4, white and gray bars)**. However, our LC-MS/MS analysis also

showed that AHQs were much more abundant in static cultures compared to shaking cultures of

both the wild type and Δ*prrF* mutant (**Fig. 4C, gray bars**). Thus, AHQ production by the Δ*prrF*

mutant in sessile culture, even if it is reduced compared to wild type, may still be robust enough

to promote antimicrobial activity against *S. aureus*. Conversely, our LC-MS/MS analysis showed

that shaking microaerobic cultures did not allow for a similar increase in AHQ levels (**Fig. 4C,**

striped bars). To investigate whether the ability of the Δ*prrF* mutant to maintain antimicrobial

activity in sessile growth was due solely to oxygen limitation or due to the increase in AHQs, we

co-cultured *S. aureus* with *P. aeruginosa* wild type PAO1, Δ*pqsA,* or Δ*prrF* strains with shaking

in either microaerobic or aerobic conditions. Similar to what was observed in shaking aerobic

cultures, the Δ*prrF* mutant was defective for antimicrobial activity in shaking microaerobic

conditions (**Fig. 7A,B**), indicating that changes in PrrF-dependent antimicrobial activity during

sessile growth are not solely due to changes in oxygen availability, but may instead correlate

with an overall increase in AHQ levels.

Phenazines and pyochelin are not solely required for antimicrobial activity in

sessile co-culture. Since iron-regulated antimicrobial activity occurs in a PrrF-independent

manner in sessile cultures, we sought to determine the impact of iron regulated, PrrF-

independent pathways on antimicrobial activity in static conditions. To do so, we focused on the

impact of phenazine and pyochelin biosynthesis proteins, which were induced by iron starvation

in a PrrF-independent manner in our proteomics dataset (**Fig. 2**). To determine the impact of

these systems on antimicrobial activity, we used agar co-cultures of *S. aureus* with a phenazine-

deficient PA14 Δ*phzA1-A2* mutant and its isogenic PA14 parent strain, as well as a pyochelin-

deficient PAO1 Δ*pchEF* mutant and its PAO1 parent strain. The *S. aureus* strain USA300 was

swabbed onto agar plates containing low or high iron DTSB media, and wild-type *P. aeruginosa*

strains or their isogenic mutant strains were spotted onto the monolayers. Both the phenazine-

deficient Δ*phz* mutant and pyochelin-deficient Δ*pchEF* mutants demonstrated wild type levels of

antimicrobial activity against *S. aureus* (**Fig. S6**), suggesting that neither phenazines nor

pyochelin alone account for enhanced antimicrobial activity in static, low iron conditions. A

siderophore deficient double mutant carrying deletions of *pchEF* and the pyoverdine synthesis

gene *pvdA* in a PAO1 background was completely defective for antimicrobial activity in these

conditions (**Fig. S6**). Single deletion of the *pvdA* gene did not eliminate antimicrobial activity

(**Fig. S6**), suggesting that the composite effect of these two siderophores is critical in static

conditions.

Because sessile growth also triggered iron regulation of HSI-II T6SS genes, albeit in a

PrrF-dependent fashion, we tested the impact of this T6SS locus on antimicrobial activity using

a Δ*clpV2* transposon insertion mutant, which is expected to be defective for HSI-II T6SS

function, from the University of Washington PAO1 Transposon Library (61). The Δ*clpV2*

transposon mutants showed reduced antimicrobial activity against *S. aureus* when compared to

our laboratory's PAO1 strain (**Fig. S6, S7**). However, the parental mPAO1 strain used for

generating the transposon library exhibited very low baseline antimicrobial activity on agar

plates (**Fig. S6**) or in liquid shaking or static cultures (**Fig. S7A,B**), making it difficult to interpret

the impact of *clpV2* on this process. Thus further studies will be necessary to determine the

relative impact of HSI-II T6SS against *S. aureus*.

Sessile growth alters the impact of specific AQs on antimicrobial activity. We next

questioned whether individual AQ species differentially impacted antimicrobial activity in shaking

versus static cultures. AQNOs are known to induce fermentative metabolism in *S. aureus,* and

subsequently the formation of slow-growing small colony variants of *S. aureus;* PQS- and AHQ-

mediated quorum sensing mediates production of virulence factors such as rhamnolipids,

phenazines, and hydrogen cyanide (30, 62, 63). To test the relative contributions of these AQ

species, we co-incubated *S. aureus* with either a PQS-deficient mPAO1 Δ*pqsH* transposon

insertion mutant or an AQNO-deficient PAO1 Δ*pqsL* strain in liquid co-cultures. Similar to

previous analysis reported by our lab and others (20, 24), *pqsH* was not required for

antimicrobial activity in either shaking or static conditions (**Fig. S8A,B**). In contrast*, Δ*pqsL* was

completely defective for antimicrobial activity against *S. aureus* in shaking cultures but retained

some antimicrobial activity in sessile co-cultures (**Fig. 8A,B**). While antimicrobial activity of the

Δ*pqsL* mutant is less robust than the wild type parent, these data suggest that the role of

AQNOs in antimicrobial activity is reduced in sessile co-cultures, supported by the significant

decrease in AQNO production observed in the wild type and Δ*prrF* strains in sessile cultures

(**Fig. 4**). Combined, these results demonstrate that different classes of AQ metabolites have

distinct impacts on polymicrobial interactions in sessile versus shaking cultures.

DISCUSSION

505   The PrrF sRNAs are critical for *P. aeruginosa* pathogenesis due to their ability to

mediate numerous biological functions upon iron starvation (9). Amongst these is the Δ*prrF*

mutant's well-documented defect in the production of AQs (23, 33), which are necessary for

virulence in several infection models (64-66). In the current study, we identified the HSI-II T6SS

loci as a novel PrrF-responsive system, and we provide evidence that this iron regulatory effect

is promoted by sessile growth and mediated by quorum signaling AQs. The T6SS contributes to

P. aeruginosa virulence in several models of infection (54, 55) and also facilitates inter-bacterial

interactions in *P. aeruginosa* and other bacterial species (67, 68). T6SS mediates cell-to-cell

interactions that are contact dependent and likely disrupted in shaking cultures (67), making this

newly elucidated iron regulatory pathway more relevant to sessile growth. This study therefore

provides yet another potential mechanism for how the PrrF sRNAs may contribute to

pathogenesis. More broadly, our results highlight how iron regulatory pathways are highly

dynamic and subject to changing environmental conditions, which may have broad implications

for the heterogeneous conditions within the host.

519   Iron depletion was previously reported to enhance expression of T6SS systems in *P.*

aeruginosa, though this was presumed to be the result of ferric uptake regulator (Fur) regulation

due to the presence of a Fur consensus site in promoter of the HSI-II locus (54). In the current

study, we show that iron regulation of T6SS genes occurs via the PrrF sRNAs, which

themselves are regulated by iron via the Fur protein. Based on these data, we propose the

regulatory model shown in **Figure 9**, wherein the PrrF sRNAs activate HSI-II expression by

promoting production of the PQS and AHQ molecules, which in turn function as co-inducers of

the PqsR/MvfR regulatory protein. Previous studies suggest that MvfR activates expression of

the HSI-II T6SS loci via another quorum sensing regulator, RhlR, which directly activates HSI-II

T6SS promoter activity in *P. aeruginosa* strain PAO1. These previous studies showed that AQs

induced HSI-II T6SS in shaking cultures grown in nutrient-rich LB medium (55), whereas we

found that AQs were not necessary for HSI-II T6SS expression in shaking cultures grown in a

nutrient depleted medium (DTSB). Notably, synthesized AQs caused robust induction of T6SS

expression in shaking cultures of Δ*pqsA,* but not in static cultures, while culture supernatants

caused slight induction of T6SS expression in the Δ*pqsA* mutant in static conditions alone (**Fig.**

4A,B), suggesting that how AQs are delivered to *P. aeruginosa* impacts their ability to promote

T6SS expression. PQS is known to intercalate into and initiate the formation of outer membrane

vesicles (OMVs), which mediate PQS transport from cell to cell; HHQ transport is still not fully

characterized but is instead dependent on the MexEF-OprN efflux pump (69)**.** The export of

these molecules has not been previously studied in sessile conditions, and our current studies

indicate that export of C7-PQS and C9-PQS is enhanced in sessile growth conditions (**Fig. S4**).

Notably, exogenous PQS levels are actually higher in sessile conditions than in static conditions

(**Fig. S4**). As such, additional studies will be needed to determine the mechanism by which

sessile growth conditions alter the export and biological activity of PrrF-regulated AQs.

Sessile growth also revealed changes in how iron affects the expression of pyochelin

and phenazine biosynthetic proteins (**Fig. 6**). Recent studies of iron regulation in shaking

conditions showed that iron starvation diminished phenazine biosynthesis gene expression and

phenazine production (12, 36), while the sessile growth conditions in the current studies showed

that iron depletion enhanced expression of phenazine biosynthesis proteins. This difference

may be related to the varying role of phenazines in shaking versus sessile growth conditions.

For instance, phenazines can induce auto-poisoning and extracellular DNA release, and these

toxic effects are enhanced by nutrient depletion during aerobic shaking growth (70). However,

phenazines also contribute to iron acquisition and survival due to their inherent redox-cycling

activity, by which they are capable of catalyzing the formation of bioavailable ferrous iron from

ferric iron (71, 72). This may be especially pertinent in static conditions, where iron requirements

for biofilm formation are shown to be enhanced (73). The inherent redox-cycling activity of

phenazines promotes biofilm formation by promoting the reduction of ferric iron to more

bioavailable ferrous iron (71-73). Similarly, our study showed that pyochelin siderophore

biosynthetic proteins were more strongly induced by iron depletion in static cultures (**Fig. 2**).

While pyochelin is primarily appreciated for its role in the acquisition of ferric iron, iron-bound

pyochelin can also promote the production of reactive oxygen species, particularly in

conjunction to phenazines (74-77). As such, coordinated production of phenazines and

pyochelin in sessile cultures may function to promote *P. aeruginosa* biofilm formation. Biofilms

are an important adaptive feature of *P. aeruginosa* infection, and the appearance of robust

biofilm-producing *P. aeruginosa* isolates during chronic lung infections is associated with

increased mortality in CF patients (4, 78, 79). While the current study did not specifically

address the impact of iron depletion within biofilm communities, the distinct effects of iron during

sessile growth may be relevant to *P. aeruginosa's* ability to form biofilms during chronic

infections.

In addition to promoting virulence in mammalian hosts, many of the iron-regulated

systems discussed in this report have been implicated in polymicrobial interactions. Previous

work from our own groups showed that iron depletion enhanced the production of AQs, thereby

enhancing antimicrobial activity during co-culture with *S. aureus* (23). While this earlier work

suggested that PrrF was not required for this regulatory effect, the current study demonstrates

that the role of PrrF in antimicrobial activity is dependent on culture agitation. Specifically, we

show that PrrF is required for antimicrobial activity in shaking cultures, but dispensable in static

cultures. Our work further highlighted distinct roles of different AQ species in mediating

antimicrobial activity in shaking versus static conditions. Notably, we observed greatly

diminished levels of AQNOs in sessile cultures, while AHQ levels were substantially increased.

Thus the mechanism of antimicrobial activity against *S. aureus* is likely quite different between

shaking and sessile cultures. Interestingly, Filkins *et al* previously showed that AQNOs were

critical for antimicrobial activity against *S. aureus* in biofilms grown on CF bronchial epithelial

cells (24), which might be expected to more closely mimic our static versus shaking conditions.

This apparent inconsistency could be due to any number of differences between the culture

conditions used here and in the Filkins study, including the time to form a mature biofilm, media

selection, and the presence of mammalian cell lines. Consistent with this previous study,

however, we found that siderophore-mediated iron uptake was critical for antimicrobial activity.

Our analyses of how T6SS impacts antimicrobial activity were unfortunately less conclusive,

due in part to the weak antimicrobial activity of the *P. aeruginosa* transposon mutant parent

strain, mPAO1. While T6SSs have been shown to deliver toxins to Gram-negative bacteria as

well as host cells, interspecies delivery to Gram-positive bacteria has not been demonstrated,

making this an intriguing direction for future studies. However, because PrrF sRNAs are not

required for AMA in sessile conditions, we predict that PrrF-dependent T6SS is not a key

mediator of polymicrobial interactions in our current assays.

Iron availability plays a critical role in the ability of *P. aeruginosa* to express a variety of

virulence traits, including the production of secondary metabolites, toxin secretion, and biofilm

formation. The Fur protein and PrrF sRNAs maintain tight control over the expression of many

of these activities in response to iron availability. However, these regulatory networks have not

been fully characterized in sessile communities, which are likely to more closely reflect

conditions in the host. The current study highlights the dramatic impact that sessile growth has

on key iron regulatory pathways in *P. aeruginosa*, and highlights to need to further investigate

iron regulation in sessile microbial communities such as biofilms. Such studies are likely to

reveal many more striking physiological adaptations that are critical for chronic *P. aeruginosa*

infections, yielding novel targets for the development of effective antimicrobial therapies.

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FIGURES AND FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Static growth reduces the effects of classical PrrF regulation. Heatmaps showing

the log$_2$ fold change (LFC) of **(A)** known iron-repressed proteins and **(B)** known PrrF-regulated

proteins, in the indicated strains grown in high versus low iron conditions or in the ΔprrF mutant

versus wild type PAO1 grown in low iron conditions. Wild type PAO1 and ΔprrF strains were

inoculated into 1.5mL DTSB supplemented with either iron (0μM) or high iron (100μM) and

incubated in shaking or static conditions. LC-MS/MS-based proteomics analysis showed

statistically significant protein regulation (FDR adjusted p-value < 0.05) of known iron and PrrF

targets, as indicated by at least 2-fold induction or repression (i.e. 1 LFC) in response to

treatment. Gray boxes indicate proteins that were undetected in one or more condition. White

boxes indicate no significant change in gene expression was observed.

Figure 2. Proteomics reveals novel targets of iron regulation in static conditions. Wild

type PAO1 and the Δ*prrF* strain were inoculated into 1.5mL DTSB media and supplemented

with either low iron (0µM) or high iron (100µM) and incubated in either shaking or static

conditions. Statistically significant iron regulation (FDR adjusted p-value < 0.05) in static and

shaking conditions was identified by at least 2-fold (i.e.1 LFC) induction in response to iron

starvation as described in Materials and Methods. **(A)** Network analysis of differentially

regulated genes was carried out using STRING database software, which revealed distinct

several virulence-associated genes that were similarly impacted by iron starvation under static

conditions. Line thickness indicates strength of data support for association between two

proteins, as calculated by STRING network analysis (45). Red nodes represent genes which

were significantly regulated by PrrF in low iron static conditions, gray nodes indicated genes that

do not exhibit regulation by PrrF. Black nodes represent genes that exhibited iron regulation in

static conditions but were not detected in one or more iron conditions in shaking cultures. **(B)**

Heatmaps of differentially regulated genes from HSI-II T6SS, phenazine, and pyochelin

biosynthetic operons. Gray boxes indicate proteins that were not detected in one or more

condition. White boxes indicate that no significant change in gene expression was observed.

= Low Iron **= High Iron**

Figure 3. AQs differentially regulate expression of T6SS genes in sessile and shaking conditions. Cultures were grown in 1.5 mL of DTSB media supplemented with either 0μM FeCl$_3$ or 100μM FeCl$_3$ in 14mL polystyrene round bottom culture tubes for 18 hours at 37˚C. Cultures were incubated **(A)** without perturbation (0rpm) or **(B)** with perturbation (250rpm) prior to RNA extraction (**Methods and Materials)**. Bars in each graph indicate the average value of 3 independent experiments (error bars represent standard deviation), and individual data points from biological replicates are indicated by black circles. Asterisks represent a significant difference relative to low iron PAO1, whereas triangles indicate a significant difference in expression relative to low iron within a strain, as determined by a two-tailed Student's *t* test as follows: *p<0.05; **p<0.005; ***p<0.0005.

**Figure 4. Concentrations of AQs in shaking, static, and microaerobic cultures of *P.*

aeruginosa. Cultures were grown in 1.5 mL of iron-deplete DTSB media in 14mL polystyrene

round bottom culture tubes and incubated for 18 hours at 37˚C. Microaerobic cultures were

sealed in an air-tight GasPak™ system in the presence of an EZ Campy Container™ packet.

Shaking and microaerobic cultures were incubated with perturbation (250rpm). Sessile cultures

were incubated in shaking incubators with no perturbation (0rpm). Representative structures for

(**A**) PQS molecules, (**B**) AQNO molecules, and (**C**) AHQ molecules are depicted in black, with

oxygen-dependent structural elements highlighted in red (R indicates alkyl chain). AQs were

quantified by LC-MS/MS where bars in each graph indicate the average concentration of 5

independent experiments and individual data points from biological replicates are indicated by

black circles (error bars represent standard deviation). Asterisks indicate a significant difference

as determined by a two-tailed Student's *t* test as follows: *p<0.05; **p<0.005; ***p<0.0005.

Figure 5. Supernatant transplants from WT induces expression of T6SS genes in Δ*pqsA*

strain. Wild type and Δ*pqsA* cultures were grown in 1.5 mL of DTSB media supplemented with

either 0μM FeCl$_3$ or 100μM FeCl$_3$ in 14mL polystyrene round bottom culture tubes for 18 hours

at 37˚C. Cultures were incubated **(A)** without perturbation (0rpm) or **(B)** with perturbation

(250rpm) prior to RNA extraction (**Methods and Materials)**. Cells receiving supernatant

transplants were centrifuged, their supernatant was removed, and then resuspended in an

equivalent volume of centrifuged supernatant from wild type PAO1. Cultures were grown for an

additional 2 hours, and subjected to qRT-PCR analysis to determine the LFC in gene

expression from within each strain from 18h to 20h. Bars in each graph indicate the average

value of 3 independent experiments (error bars represent standard deviation), and individual

data points from biological replicates are indicated by black circles. Asterisks represent a

significant difference relative to un-supplemented controls, as determined by a two-tailed

Student's t test with a significance threshold of $p \leq 0.05$.

Figure 6. PrrF-mediated antimicrobial activity is altered in shaking conditions. *P. aeruginosa* and *S. aureus* were co-inoculated in DTSB media supplemented with (high iron) or without (low iron) 100µM FeCl₃. Co-cultures were incubated either in 14mL round bottom polystyrene cell culture tubes in shaking aerobic conditions **(A)** or in 6 well polystyrene cell culture plates in static conditions **(B)** for 18 hours. After incubation, CFUs were enumerated as described in the Materials and Methods. Bars in each graph indicate the average value in low (white bars) or high (gray bars) iron conditions, and individual data points from biological replicates are indicated by circles (low iron) or squares (high iron). Error bars indicate the standard deviation of 5 independent experiments. Asterisks indicate a significant difference as determined by a two-tailed Student's *t* test as follows: *p≤0.05; **p≤0.005; ***p≤0.0005; ****p≤0.00005.

Figure 7. *P. aeruginosa* antimicrobial activity requirement for PrrF is not influenced by

oxygen availability in co-culture with *S. aureus.* *P. aeruginosa* and *S. aureus* were co-

inoculated into 1.5 mL of iron-deplete DTSB media in 14mL round-bottom polystyrene culture

tubes. Cultures were incubated for 18hr at 37˚C in either **(A)** shaking aerobic or in **(B)** shaking

microaerobic conditions. Microaerobic cultures were incubated in air-tight GasPak systems™ in

the presence of a GasPak EZ Campy Container™ packet to ensure microaerobic conditions.

After 18hr incubation, CFUs were enumerated as described above. Bars in each graph indicate

the average value, and individual data points from biological replicates are indicated with circles.

Error bars indicate the standard deviation of 5 independent experiments. Asterisks indicate a

significant difference as determined by a two-tailed Student's *t* test as follows: *p≤0.05;

**p≤0.005.

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Figure 8. AQNOs are not required for antimicrobial activity in static conditions. *P.*

aeruginosa and *S. aureus* were co-inoculated in DTSB media supplemented with (high iron) or

without (low iron) 100μM FeCl₃. Co-cultures were incubated either in 14mL round bottom

polystyrene cell culture tubes in shaking aerobic conditions **(A)** or in 6 well polystyrene cell

culture plates in static conditions **(B)** for 18 hours. After incubation, CFUs were enumerated as

described in the **Materials and Methods**. Bars in each graph indicate the average value, and

individual data points from biological replicates are indicated by circles. Error bars indicate the

standard deviation of 5 independent experiments. Asterisks indicate a significant difference as

determined by a two-tailed Student's *t* test with a significance threshold of *p≤0.05.

Figure 9. Proposed mechanism of PrrF-mediated iron regulation of T6SS. In both sessile

and shaking conditions, low iron promotes AQ production via the PrrF sRNAs. In sessile

conditions, oxygen limitation limits production of PQS molecules (red), resulting in an

accumulation of the PQS precursor molecules, AHQs (purple). PQS export appears to be

enhanced in sessile conditions relative to shaking conditions, and this metabolite is expected to

be transported to neighboring cells via intercalation into outer membrane vesicles. In contrast,

AHQ export is more efficient in shaking conditions, although the mechanism of AHQ efflux and

inter-cell delivery has not been fully characterized. AHQ can be converted to PQS in both

shaking and sessile conditions, but this conversion occurs more readily in shaking conditions.

Once in the cell, PQS and AHQ act as cofactors for the virulence factor regulator, PqsR. PqsR

in turn induces the RhlR quorum sensing system, which is a known inducer of HSI-II T6SS

expression.