1 **Static growth alters PrrF- and 2-alkyl-4(1*H*)-quinolone regulation of virulence trait**

2 **expression in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa***

4 Running title: Static growth alters *P. aeruginosa* iron regulation
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ABSTRACT

Pseudomonas aeruginosa is an opportunistic pathogen that is frequently associated with

both acute and chronic infections, the latter of which are often polymicrobial. *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 static *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 present evidence 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 static bacterial cultures. These results yield new bacterial iron regulation paradigms and

highlight the need to re-define iron homeostasis in static 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 expression 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 that have historically been used to study iron

regulation. Whereas 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 similarly documented in other bacterial

species, suggesting a regulatory link between iron homeostasis mechanisms and static 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 static growth would likewise alter the

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 static

growth of *P. aeruginosa* using an unbiased proteomics-based approach. Our results revealed a

number of proteins that were differentially affected by iron and PrrF in static versus shaking

cultures. Amongst these were proteins for phenazine biosynthesis, which were repressed by

iron in static conditions, a result that is in contrast to our own shaking cultures and recent

studies showing that phenazine synthesis genes are iron-induced 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 we provide evidence that this regulation is

due to PrrF-regulated AQ production. Moreover, while PrrF is not required for antimicrobial

activity against *S. aureus* in static conditions, we found that it still promotes the production of

AQs in static conditions. However, the relative abundances and roles of individual AQ species

for interspecies interactions varied between shaking versus static cultures, thereby altering the

requirement of PrrF for antimicrobial activity. Lastly, we show that reduced oxygen availability in

static cultures is not solely responsible for the changes in iron regulation observed in this study.

Combined, these results indicate that static 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 subcultured into 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 to an absorbance (OD_{600}) of 0.08 and 0.05, respectively, into 1.5mL of DTSB with (high iron) or without (low iron) 100 µM $FeCl_3$ supplementation,. 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. Static 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 aerobic 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 (FDR) 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 (high iron) or without (low

iron) 100 µM $FeCl_3$. *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 generated by performing qPCR of individual gene targets using cDNA reverse-

transcribed from serial dilutions of RNA. *P. aeruginosa* expression data was normalized to *oprF*

expression in aerobic shaking conditions, or *omlA* in either microaerobic shaking conditions or

static growth condition, as expression of these genes is not impacted by iron in each respective

growth condition (9).

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

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

and spiked with a 25 µM stock nalidixic acid internal standard to a final concentration of 500 nM,

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

300 µL 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**.**

Quantification of viable cells in co-culture studies. 400 µL of *P. aeruginosa* and *S.*

aureus mono- and co-cultures were harvested at 15000 rcf for 5 minutes. Cell pellets were

resuspended in 400 μL 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.

10 μL 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

10 μL 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 one-way ANOVA two-tailed

on Prism 6, using either Tukey's, Sidak's, or Dunnett's post test for multiple comparisons, 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 static *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 static

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 as well as the isogenic Δ*prrF* mutant grown in

Chelexed and dialyzed TSB medium (DTSB), supplemented with or without 100 μM $FeCl_3$.

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

a false discovery rate (FDR) 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 1). As previously observed (14, 19, 48-52), iron starvation significantly increased levels

of 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 tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle and oxidative

metabolism, including aconitase A (AcnA), succinate dehydrogenase B (SdhB), and catalase

(KatA), 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 of shaking

P. aeruginosa cultures.

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

conditions were similarly regulated under static 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 static 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 **(Fig. S1B,C)**. Combined, these data indicate

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

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 Δ*prrF* mutant versus wild type PAO1
grown in low iron conditions. Wild type PAO1 and Δ*prrF* strains were inoculated into 1.5mL DTSB
supplemented with FeCl$_3$ and incubated in shaking or static conditions as described in the Materials and
Methods. 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.
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To determine if there were additional iron or PrrF regulatory effects that were unique to

either static or shaking growth, we mined our proteomics dataset for proteins whose levels were

altered by iron depletion in either static 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 Table S3-7 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 Table S3-7 and**

Dataset S1), indicating PrrF still contributes to iron regulation 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 (45). 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 Fig S4-5). 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 that PrrF-regulated

expression of these proteins occurs via an indirect mechanism.

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 (0
µM) or high iron (100 µM) 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 proteins 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 proteins that were
significantly regulated by PrrF in low iron static conditions, gray nodes indicated proteins that do not
exhibit regulation by PrrF. Black nodes represent proteins 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 proteins encoded by the 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 protein levels was observed.

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 sought to determine whether reduced levels of T6SS proteins in

the Δ*prrF* mutant during our proteomics analysis were due to a partial loss of AQ production.

To investigate this idea, we first performed targeted expression analysis of T6SS genes

in our wild type, Δ*prrF,* and Δ*pqsA* strains grown in static conditions using quantitative real time

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

demonstrated PrrF dependent iron regulation in our proteomics analysis, including *clpV2*, *fha2*,

and *lip2*. In agreement with our proteomics analysis, the Δ*prrF* mutant exhibited statistically

significant decreases in expression of each of these genes when grown in static conditions (**Fig.**

3A). The Δ*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 static cultures. Similar AQ-dependent

expression of other T6SS genes was also observed (**Fig. S2).** In contrast, neither *prrF* nor *pqsA*

were required for T6SS expression in shaking conditions (**Fig. 3B and Fig. S2**), supporting the

hypothesis that AQ regulation of T6SS is enhanced by static growth. In agreement with our

proteomics, T6SS expression was iron regulated in static cultures of wild type PAO1, but not in

shaking cultures (**Fig. 3A,B),** with expression of *clpV2, fha2,* and *lip2* repressed by an average

of 4.07-, 3.12-, and 3.86-fold in high iron static cultures, respectively. Iron repression of these

genes was diminished or was not statistically significant in static Δ*pqsA* cultures (*clpv2*

repressed 2.40-fold; *fha2* repressed 1.72-fold; *lip2* repressed 2.25-fold). Interestingly,

expression of T6SS synthesis proteins was still repressed by iron in static Δ*prrF* cultures, with

expression of *clpV2, fha2, and lip2* repressed by an average of 3.78-fold, 3.63-fold, and 3.83-

fold in high iron static conditions, respectively, suggesting that PrrF is not the sole mediator of

iron-regulated T6SS gene expression in PAO1. We noted that expression of the T6SS genes

was greatly reduced in low iron shaking cultures of PAO1, with C_t values 2-3 higher than what

was observed in low iron static cultures of PAO1 (data not shown). Thus, shaking growth

appears to reduce T6SS expression by PAO1 when grown in DTSB low iron medium, masking

iron, PrrF, and AQ regulation to be observed.

Figure 3. PrrF and AQs differentially regulate expression of T6SS genes in static and shaking
conditions. Cultures were grown in 1.5 mL of DTSB media supplemented with either 0 μM FeCl₃ or 100
μM FeCl₃ 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. Triangles represent a significant difference of each mutant grown in low iron conditions relative to
the low iron cultures PAO1, whereas black stars indicate a significant difference in expression in high iron
versus low iron conditions within a strain, as determined by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-test for
multiple comparisons, with a significance cutoff of p ≤ 0.05.
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PrrF-mediated AQ production is retained in static growth conditions. Our

proteomics and qRT-PCR analysis indicated that AQ regulation of T6SS genes is specific to

static conditions, although the underlying mechanism of this shift was not clear. Previous reports

have demonstrated that static growth can dramatically impact *P. aeruginosa* physiology,

including regulated 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 static 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 static 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 all AQ congeners except HQNO in static cultures

(**Fig. 4A,B,C, gray bars**), indicating that PrrF still promotes production of most AQs in static

growth conditions. Production of C7-PQS, C9-PQS, and NQNO was diminished in static

conditions, likely due to the previously reported oxygen requirement for activity of the PqsH and

PqsL enzymes (59, 60). In contrast, production of AHQ congeners was more robust in static

than in shaking conditions, 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 static cultures is not solely due to

reduced oxygen availability, but that static growth causes distinct changes in *P. aeruginosa* AQ

metabolite profiles.

Figure 4. Concentrations of AQs in shaking, static, and microaerobic cultures of *P. aeruginosa.*
Cultures were grown in 1.5 mL of DTSB media without iron supplementation 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). Static cultures were incubated in shaking incubators
with no perturbation (0rpm). The core structures of (**A**) PQS, (**B**) AQNO, 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. Bars in each graph indicate the average concentration of 5
independent experiments, and individual data points from each biological replicate are indicated by black
circles (error bars represent standard deviation). Asterisks indicate a significant difference compared to
PAO1 within each growth condition as determined by one-way ANOVA with Sidak's post test for multiple
comparisons, with significance thresholds as follows: *p≤0.05; **p≤0.005; ***p≤0.0005; ****p≤0.00005.

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

probed the impact of altered AQ profiles in static 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 AQ-mediated

antimicrobial activity may be impacted by static growth (23). This idea was further supported by

our proteomic, qPCR, and metabolite analysis discussed above, showing that both PrrF-

mediated iron regulatory pathways and AQ profiles are altered in static growth (**Fig. 2 and Fig.**

3). To investigate how culture perturbation would affect antimicrobial activity, we co-inoculated

mono- and co-cultures of *P. aeruginosa* strain PAO1 and *S. aureus* strain USA300 in DTSB,

supplemented with or without 100 μM 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

previous studies showing that AQs mediate antimicrobial activity against *S. aureus*, USA300

viability was reduced significantly during low iron co-culture with PAO1 under static conditions,

whereas the Δ*pqsA* mutant did not exhibit antimicrobial activity against USA300 (**Fig. 5B, white**

bars). Also in agreement with our earlier work, iron limitation significantly enhanced

antimicrobial activity of PAO1 against USA300 in static co-cultures (**Fig. 5B, white versus gray**

bars). Iron limitation similarly enhanced the antimicrobial activity of the Δ*prrF* mutant, although

this trend was not statistically significant, perhaps due to overall weak growth of *S. aureus* in

static conditions.

In shaking cultures, we observed similar AQ-dependent, iron-regulated antimicrobial

activity. However, *S. aureus* viability was reduced approximately 50,000-fold in low iron co-

cultures with PAO1*,* signifying more robust killing than in static co-cultures (**Fig. 5A, white**

bars). Notably, the Δ*prrF* mutant was defective for antimicrobial activity relative to the isogenic

PAO1 parent strain in low iron shaking co-cultures (**Fig. 5A, white bars**), a result that

contrasted with our previous and current reports on static 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. 5**), 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.

Figure 5. 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) 100 μM 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 compared to *S. aureus* monoculture as determined by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post test for multiple comparisons, with significance thresholds as follows: *p≤0.05; **p≤0.005; ***p≤0.0005; ****p≤0.00005.

Static growth alters the impact of specific AQs on antimicrobial activity. We observed that the impact of PrrF on antimicrobial activity is reduced during static growth, which was surprising since PrrF is still required for optimal production of most AQs during static growth (**Fig. 4, white and gray bars)**. Because antimicrobial activity was AQ-dependent in both shaking and static co-cultures, we next questioned whether individual AQ species differentially impacted antimicrobial activity in shaking versus static cultures. LC-MS/MS analysis showed that levels of both HQNO and NQNO are dramatically reduced in static conditions, and HQNO, which was the most abundant AQNO congener observed in our analysis of shaking cultures,

was not dependent on PrrF in these conditions (**Fig. 4B**). This led us to hypothesize that AQNO-

mediated antimicrobial activity would be greatly reduced, and likely unaffected by PrrF, in static

conditions. To test the relative contributions of AQNOs in static versus shaking conditions, we

co-incubated *S. aureus* with an AQNO-deficient PAO1 Δ*pqsL* strain in liquid co-cultures. Similar

to previous analyses reported by our lab and others (20, 24)*,* Δ*pqsL* was completely defective

for antimicrobial activity against *S. aureus* in shaking cultures (**Fig**. **6A).** In contrast, the Δ*pqsL*

retained modest antimicrobial activity in static co-cultures (**Fig. 6B**). Considering the dramatic

decrease in AQNOs during static growth, these data suggest the relative contribution of AQNOs

towards antimicrobial activity is reduced in static co-cultures.

Figure 6. AQNO-mediated antimicrobial activity is reduced in static conditions.
P. aeruginosa and *S. aureus* were co-inoculated in DTSB media supplemented with (high iron) or without
(low iron) 100 µM FeCl$_3$. 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 compared to *S. aureus* monoculture as determined by one-way ANOVA
with Dunnett's post test for multiple comparison, with a significance threshold of *$p \leq 0.05$.

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 static culture, even if it is reduced

compared to wild type, may still be robust enough to promote antimicrobial activity against *S.*

aureus in a seemingly PrrF-independent manner. 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 determine if the ability of the Δ*prrF* mutant to maintain antimicrobial activity in

static 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 static growth are

not solely due to changes in oxygen availability, but may instead correlate with an overall

increase in AHQ levels. Combined, these results demonstrate that different classes of AQ

metabolites have distinct impacts on polymicrobial interactions in static versus shaking cultures,

with AHQs potentially playing a more prominent role than AQNOs during static growth.

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 achieve 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 compared to *S. aureus* monoculture as determined by one-way
ANOVA with Dunnett's post test for multiple comparisons, with a significance threshold of *p≤0.05.
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DISCUSSION

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 (61-63). 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 static growth and mediated by AQs. 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 (64, 65). T6SS mediates cell-to-cell interactions that are

contact dependent and likely disrupted in shaking cultures (64), making this newly elucidated

iron regulatory pathway more relevant to static 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.

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 one of the promoters of the HSI-II locus (54). In

the current study, we show that expression of T6SS genes is dependent on PrrF in static

conditions, which themselves are regulated by iron via the Fur protein. The PrrF sRNAs appear

to regulate the HSI-II locus island through AQs, likely the PQS or AHQ molecules that 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. Interestingly,

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). There are several

reasons for this apparent discrepancy, including media selection and the well-documented

variability of *P. aeruginosa* strains between laboratories (66). As such, additional studies will be

needed to determine the mechanism by which static growth conditions alter AQ-mediated

regulation T6SS. However, it is clear that iron substantially affects T6SS gene expression, and

the use of static conditions in our current study allowed us to elucidate how the PrrF sRNAs

contribute to this regulatory effect.

Static growth also revealed changes in how iron affects the expression of phenazine

biosynthetic proteins (**Fig. 2**). Recent studies of iron regulation in shaking conditions showed

that iron starvation diminished phenazine biosynthesis gene expression and phenazine

production (12, 36), while the static 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 static 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 (67). 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 (68, 69). This may be especially pertinent in static conditions, where iron requirements

for biofilm formation are enhanced (70). The inherent redox-cycling activity of phenazines

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

iron (68-70).

Our study also showed that pyochelin siderophore biosynthetic proteins were more

strongly induced by iron depletion in static cultures as compared to shaking 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 (71-74). As such, coordinated production of phenazines and

pyochelin in static 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, 75, 76). While the current study did not specifically address the

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

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 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 antimicrobial activity, 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 static cultures, while AHQ levels were substantially increased.

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

shaking and static 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. The potential role of AHQs in mediating

antimicrobial activity in static cultures has yet to be elucidated but may be linked to enhanced

QS-based regulation of antimicrobial factors. As such, further studies are needed to identify the

extent and mechanism of AHQ activity in static cultures.

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 static communities, which are likely to more closely reflect conditions

in the host. The current study demonstrates that static growth allows for distinct iron regulatory

pathways in *P. aeruginosa*, and highlights to need to further investigate iron regulation in static

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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