Sessile growth reveals novel paradigms of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* iron-regulated

antimicrobial activity against *Staphylococcus aureus*

Subject Area: Microbiology and Infectious Disease

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ABSTRACT

Pseudomonas aeruginosa and *Staphylococcus aureus* are opportunistic pathogens that

cause chronic, polymicrobial infections. Each pathogen possesses a complex regulatory

network that modulates iron acquisition and virulence. However, our current knowledge of these

networks is largely based on studies with shaking cultures, which are not likely representative of

microbial communities *in vivo*. Here, we provide proteomic, metabolic, and genetic evidence

that iron regulation is altered in sessile *P. aeruginosa* cultures. We further demonstrate that iron-

regulated interactions between *P. aeruginosa* and *S. aureus* are mediated by distinct factors in

shaking versus sessile bacterial cultures. Moreover, we identified type 6 secretion as a target of

iron regulation in *P. aeruginosa* in static but not shaking conditions, and co-culture studies

suggest this system may contribute to antimicrobial activity against *S. aureus* in static

conditions. These results yield new bacterial iron regulation paradigms and highlight the need

for re-defining iron homeostasis in sessile microbial communities.

INTRODUCTION

Antimicrobial-resistant pathogens represent a substantial health risk, raising concerns of

a return to a "pre-antibiotic era". The Gram-negative opportunistic pathogen *Pseudomonas*

aeruginosa alone is responsible for over 10% of all hospital-acquired infections and is a leading

cause of morbidity among nosocomial pathogens (1-6). *P. aeruginosa* also establishes chronic

infections in surgical wounds, diabetic foot ulcers, and the lungs of individuals with cystic fibrosis

(CF) and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD). Chronic infections in these

populations are almost always polymicrobial in nature, and *P. aeruginosa* is often co-isolated

with the Gram-positive pathogen *Staphylococcus aureus* (7, 8), which also exhibits significant

antimicrobial resistance. Chronic co-infections with *S. aureus* and *P. aeruginosa* result in slower

healing and worse prognoses due in part to antagonistic interactions between these two

organisms (9-15). *S. aureus* is also the predominant pathogen in the lungs of young CF

patients, but is eventually displaced by *P. aeruginosa* resulting in prolonged lung tissue

inflammation and diminished lung function (16, 17). Interactions between these two species are

thought to be driven by competition for limited resources in the host environment, which alters

bacterial metabolic networks and virulence factor expression (11, 18, 19). However, despite the

clear significance of polymicrobial interactions in infectious disease, the regulatory pathways

that control these interactions remain largely undefined.

P. aeruginosa secretes multiple toxins and bio-active metabolites, which cause damage

to host tissue and exhibit antimicrobial activity (AMA) against competing microorganisms.

Amongst these is a collection of small secreted metabolites collectively referred to as 2-alkyl-

4(1*H*)-quinolones (AQs), which mediate a range of toxic activities against *S. aureus* and are

thought to drive interactions between these two species during infection (20-23). 2-alkyl-4-

quinolone N-oxides (AQNOs) are potent cytochrome inhibitors that obstruct respiratory

metabolism in *S. aureus* (24-26). 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 *S. aureus* growth

(27-30)*.* 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 (31)*.* Past

studies indicate AQ synthesis and anthranilate metabolism are subject to extensive regulation

by nutrient availability (21, 32, 33). However, the impact on these regulatory processes on

interactions of *P. aeruginosa* with other microorganisms remains unclear.

Iron is a required metallo-nutrient for most living organisms and as such has a significant

impact on the establishment and progression of *P. aeruginosa* and *S. aureus* infections (34, 35)

During infection, the host sequesters iron from invading pathogens through a process referred

to as nutritional immunity (36-38). In response to iron starvation, *P. aeruginosa* and *S. aureus*

express several virulence factors that cause host cell damage, presumably releasing iron and

other nutrients from host cells (33, 39-42). Iron starvation also induces the expression of

multiple systems that mediate high affinity uptake of iron and heme (43, 44). In *P. aeruginosa*,

iron starvation further induces expression of the PrrF small regulatory RNAs (sRNAs), which

post-transcriptionally reduce expression of non-essential iron-dependent metabolic enzymes,

including the anthranilate degradation enzyme complexes AntABC and CatBCA (33). As a result

of this regulation, the PrrF sRNAs spare anthranilate for AQ production and are therefore

required for optimal AQ production in iron-depleted conditions (32, 35).

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

recently discovered that iron starvation enhances AQ-dependent AMA against *S. aureus* on

agar plates as well as in a transwell co-culture system (21, 22). Surprisingly, the *prrF* locus was

not required for AMA in these assays. Several potential mechanisms were considered that could

explain this finding, including the possibility that co-culture with *S. aureus* may restore AQ

production through a PrrF-independent pathway. In support of this hypothesis, we found that co-

culture of the Δ*prrF* mutant with *S. aureus* in shaking liquid cultures restored PQS production to

wild type levels (21). However, technical issues prevented us from accurately quantifying AQs in

the agar plate and transwell co-culture assays, precluding a more thorough examination of the

factors required for iron-regulated AMA.

In the current study, we sought to develop a co-culture assay that would allow us to

examine the impact of PrrF and iron on gene expression, AQ production, and AMA under a

variety of growth conditions. Analysis of metabolite levels, gene expression, and viability

demonstrated that culture perturbation causes phenotypic changes in the *P. aeruginosa* Δ*prrF*

mutant during co-culture with *S. aureus*. Proteomics further demonstrated that culture

perturbation alters the activity of some iron homeostasis pathways in *P. aeruginosa*, including

PrrF-regulated expression of anthranilate metabolism proteins. Analysis of microaerobic co-

cultures indicated that changes in the Δ*prrF* mutant phenotypes during sessile culture were not

solely due to decreased oxygen tensions. These studies indicate that sessile bacterial

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

availability, likely affecting the production of key virulence determinants and polymicrobial

interactions.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains and growth conditions. Bacterial strains used in this study are listed

in Supplementary Table 1. 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 (33). 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. Monocultures 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 14 mL 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.

Colony forming unit determination. 400uL of *P. aeruginosa* and *S. aureus* mono- and

co-cultures were harvested at 15000rcf for 5 minutes. Cell pellets were resuspended in 400uL of

0.1% Triton-X in phosphate-buffered saline and vortexed rigorously. From these resuspensions,

serial dilutions were prepared in 0.1% Triton-X in PBS. 10uL 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 10uL 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.

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

quantitation was carried out as previously reported (45). Briefly, 300uL 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 w/ 0.1% acetic acid. The organic phase

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

300uL of 0.1% formic acid suspended in1:1:1 (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 performed on a Dionex Ultimate

3000 TSQ tandem quadrupole mass spectrometer in positive ion mode**.**

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

conducted on three biological replicates of the PAO1 reference strain and isogenic Δ*prrF* 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 (35) 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, and *P. aeruginosa*

expression data was normalized to *oprF* expression in aerobic conditions, or *omlA* in

microaerobic and anaerobic conditions.

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

analysis as described previously (46). 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 (47, 48). 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

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

error tolerance of 10 ppm (50, 51). 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 (52). 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 (49), KEGG database (53), *Pseudomonas* metabolome database (54), and

the STRING database (55).

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≤0.05. Protein expressions that

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

significant.

RESULTS

PrrF is required for AMA against *S. aureus* in shaking co-cultures. Previous co-

culture studies performed in our lab examined the role of *P. aeruginosa* AMA against *S. aureus*

in Chelex-treated and dialyzed tryptic soy broth (DTSB) supplemented with or without 100 μM

$FeCl_3$ (21, 22). These previous assays were performed using either agar plate or liquid transwell

co-culture systems. For agar co-cultures, *P. aeruginosa* strains were spotted onto confluent

lawns of *S. aureus* on agar plates; for liquid transwell co-cultures, *P. aeruginosa* and *S. aureus*

strains were co-incubated in transwell microtiter plates, with each species separated by a 0.2μm

permeable transwell membrane (21). In each of these assays, *P. aeruginosa* demonstrated iron-

regulated AMA against *S. aureus* that was dependent upon the *pqsA* gene, confirming the

expected requirement for AQs. However, the *prrF* locus was not required for AMA in either of

these assays (21). While analysis of shaking cultures showed that co-culture with *S. aureus*

restored PQS production to the Δ*prrF* mutant (21), attempts to quantify AQs and analyze gene

expression in the transwell plates and agar co-cultures were unsuccessful, preventing a more

mechanistic analysis of how iron and PrrF affected AMA under these specific conditions.

We therefore grew mono- and co-cultures of *P. aeruginosa* strain PAO1 and *S. aureus*

strain USA300 in a larger volume (1.5 mL) of DTSB, supplemented with or without 100μM

$FeCl_3$, in a shaking incubator at 250 rpm. Viability of *P. aeruginosa* and *S. aureus* was then

quantified by enumerating colony forming units on selective Pseudomonas isolation agar (PIA)

and Baird Parker agar media, respectively. In agreement with earlier studies showing that AQs

mediate AMA against *S. aureus*, USA300 viability was reduced approximately 50,000-fold

during low iron co-culture with PAO1 but not during co-culture with the Δ*pqsA* mutant (**Fig. 1A**).

Also in agreement with our earlier work, iron limitation significantly enhanced AMA of PAO1

against USA300 (**Fig. 1A**). Surprisingly, the Δ*prrF* mutant was defective for AMA relative to the

isogenic parent strain PAO1 (**Fig. 1A**), a result that contrasted with our previously reported agar

plate and transwell co-culture data (21). Viability of *P. aeruginosa* was not affected by iron

supplementation or deletion of either *pqsA* or *prrF* (**Fig. 1A**), demonstrating that increases in *S.*

aureus viability were not due to decreased viability of the *P. aeruginosa* Δ*pqsA* or Δ*prrF*

mutants.

Co-culture with *S. aureus* does not uniformly restore AQ production to the Δ*prrF*

mutant. Previous studies in our lab demonstrated that production of the AQ congener, PQS,

could be restored to the Δ*prrF* mutant if grown in co-culture with the M2 methicillin-resistant

strain of *S. aureus* (21)*.* The mechanism of this restoration was unknown, but it seemingly

explained why the Δ*prrF* mutant retained AMA in the transwell co-culture assay. However, PQS

itself was found to not be required for AMA in our earlier studies (21), and it was unknown

whether other AQs were similarly restored to the Δ*prrF* mutant during co-culture. We tested this

by quantifying various AQ congeners from mono- and co-cultures using liquid chromatography

coupled with tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS). In agreement with our previous studies,

LC-MS/MS analysis of Δ*prrF* culture extracts demonstrated increased levels of PQS, containing

either a C7 or C9 alkyl chain, in the Δ*prrF* mutant during co-culture with *S. aureus* strain M2

compared to mono-culture of the Δ*prrF* mutant (**Table S3**)*.* However, no significant increase

upon co-culture was observed for any of the other AQs we quantified from the Δ*prrF* mutant co-

culture extracts (**Table S3**). In agreement with our previous findings, the Δ*pqsH* mutant, which

specifically lacks production of PQS, was not defective for AMA against *S. aureus* (**Fig. S1).**

These results indicate that restoration of PQS production by co-culture with *S. aureus* is unlikely

to influence AMA. Moreover, co-cultures of the Δ*prrF* mutant with *S. aureus* strain USA300

resulted in no significant increase in the concentrations of any AQs, including PQS (**Table S3).**

Combined with the data in **Fig. 1A**, these data disprove our previous conclusion that co-culture

with *S. aureus* promotes AQ production and AMA of the *P. aeruginosa* Δ*prrF* mutant.

PrrF is not required for AMA against *S. aureus* in sessile cultures. We next

wondered if different results for the Δ*prrF* mutant obtained in the current (**Fig. 1A**) and previous

studies (21) were due to differences in culture perturbation during incubation. Specifically,

cultures using the agar and transwell systems were grown in static conditions, whereas the

cultures for the studies described above were grown in shaking conditions. We hypothesized

that culture agitation altered the impact of PrrF on AQ-mediated AMA. To test this, we grew

mono-cultures and co-cultures of *P. aeruginosa* and *S. aureus* in DTSB supplemented with or

without $FeCl_3$ under static conditions. Initially, these studies were performed with 15mL

polystyrene culture tubes, but this eliminated AMA for all *P. aeruginosa* strains (**Fig. S2**). This

was presumably due to *S. aureus*, which is non-motile, settling at the bottom of the tubes and

distal from the motile *P. aeruginosa* strains growing near the air-liquid interface. In order to

facilitate interactions between *S. aureus* and *P. aeruginosa,* static co-cultures were instead

prepared in six-well polystyrene cell culture plates, allowing for a shallower liquid depth and

larger air-liquid interface, covered in breathe-easy wrap. While AMA was overall less robust in

static conditions, we observed iron-regulated AMA against *S. aureus* by the wild-type PAO1

strain, as well as a complete loss of AMA in the Δ*pqsA* mutant (**Fig. 1B**). In contrast to the

shaking assay, however, viability of *S. aureus* grown with the Δ*prrF* mutant in low iron conditions

was not significantly different than when grown with the wild-type PAO1 strain (**Fig. 1B**),

suggesting that PrrF-mediated AMA is altered during sessile growth. Importantly, changes in *S.*

aureus CFU in this static assay were comparable to *S. aureus* culture densities previously

obtained with transwell co-cultures (21). Thus, our data indicate that culture perturbation alters

the factors that regulate *P. aeruginosa* AMA against *S. aureus* during co-culture.

AHQ concentrations are increased in static growth conditions. We next determined

if PrrF was required for optimal AQ production during static growth. To test this, we used a

recently validated LC-MS/MS method (45) to measure levels of various AQ species in shaking

and sessile cultures of wild-type *P. aeruginosa* and the Δ*prrF* mutant. As previously observed

(21, 32), PrrF was required for optimal production of the C7 and C9 congeners of PQS, AQNO,

and AHQ in shaking conditions (**Fig. 2A,B,C, white bars**). Surprisingly, PrrF was also required

for optimal production of each of these AQs in static growth conditions (**Fig. 2A,B,C, gray**

bars). However, levels of both the C7 and C9 congeners of PQS and AQNO were substantially

decreased in static conditions relative to shaking conditions, and were in fact similar or lower

than concentrations produced by the Δ*prrF* mutant in shaking cultures (**Fig. 2A,B, white versus**

gray bars). This is likely due to the previously reported oxygen requirement for activity of the

PqsH and PqsL enzymes. Moreover, these data suggest that the relative impact of these AQ

congeners on AMA is lessened in sessile cultures. This idea is supported by data observed in

static co-cultures of *S. aureus* and a *P. aeruginosa* Δ*pqsL* mutant, which demonstrate that the

Δ*pqsL* still exhibits AMA in static conditions but is devoid of AMA in shaking conditions (**Fig.**

S3B). Notably, levels of HHQ and NHQ were significantly increased in static cultures, with

concentrations in the Δ*prrF* cultures equivalent or higher than that of the shaking wild type

culture (**Fig. 2C, white versus gray bars**). Thus, while the Δ*prrF* mutant still exhibits an overall

defect in AQ production during static growth, it may produce sufficient levels of AHQs to

mediate AMA under these conditions.

AMA requirement for PrrF in shaking cultures is not impacted by oxygen

availability. Previous reports have demonstrated that static growth can have dramatic impact

on 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). In agreement with this, LC-MS/MS analysis of static and

shaking cultures revealed that oxygen-dependent PQS and AQNO molecules were produced at

significantly lower concentrations in sessile cultures than in shaking (**Fig. 2A,B, white bars**

versus gray bars). We therefore hypothesized that oxygen limitation may be responsible for

changes in the requirement for PrrF in *P. aeruginosa* AMA in sessile cultures. We tested this by

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

DTSB media, and incubating these co-cultures with shaking in either microaerobic or aerobic

conditions for 18 hours (see **Materials and Methods**). This model system allowed us to directly

examine the impact of oxygen, while otherwise preserving additional variables such as culture

perturbation. Surprisingly, we observed that PrrF sRNAs were still necessary for AMA against *S.*

aureus in microaerobic conditions, similar to aerobic conditions (**Fig. 3A,B**), indicating that

oxygen availability alone does not alter the impact of PrrF on AMA.

We next measured AQ concentrations in microaerobic cultures to determine whether

oxygen limitation is responsible for the changes in AQ concentrations observed in sessile

cultures. Similar to what we observed in static cultures, AQNO and PQS molecules were

significantly lower in microaerobic cultures than in aerobic cultures; AQNOs, in particular, were

present in concentrations lower than even those of static Δ*prrF* cultures (**Fig. 2B, hashed bars**).

In addition, there was no statistically significant difference between concentrations of HQNO,

NQNO, or C9-PQS produced by the wild type and Δ*prrF* strains in microaerobic cultures (**Fig.**

2A,B, hashed bars), indicating that PrrF is not necessary for their production in microaerobic

conditions. In contrast to static cultures, AHQ concentrations in microaerobic shaking cultures

were comparable to those observed in aerobic shaking cultures (**Fig. 2C, white versus hashed**

bars). Moreover, AHQ concentrations were significantly reduced by *prrF* deletion in

microaerobic shaking conditions (**Fig. 2C, hashed bars**). Thus, while oxygen availability has

marked impact on the concentrations of different AQs, oxygen limitation alone does not fully

account for changes in AQ production and AMA of the Δ*prrF* mutant during static growth.

Combined, these results also suggest that the large increase in AHQ levels, which is observed

in sessile cultures but not microaerobic shaking cultures, allows the Δ*prrF* mutant to retain AMA

during sessile growth.

Iron regulation of anthranilate catabolism genes is retained during static growth.

The above data demonstrate that the PrrF sRNAs promote production of AQs in both shaking

and sessile cultures. In shaking conditions, PrrF contributes to AQ production via repression of

anthranilate metabolism genes (32, 33). It is unclear, however, whether PrrF modulates AQ

production in static conditions via the same metabolic pathways. To test this, first we performed

targeted expression analysis of PrrF sRNAs and known PrrF-regulated genes in both static and

shaking cultures of wild type *P. aeruginosa* using quantitative real time PCR (qRT-PCR). PrrF

expression was markedly lower in sessile cultures as compared to shaking cultures, but it was

still significantly repressed by iron supplementation **(Fig. 3A).** We next examined levels of the

antA mRNA, encoding for a component of the anthranilate dioxygenase that degrades

anthranilate, as well as *antR*, encoding a transcriptional activator of *antABC* that is directly

repressed by PrrF (32). We observed iron-activated expression of both *antA* and *antR* when

PAO1 was grown in either shaking or static conditions (**Fig. 3B-C**). As previously observed (32,

33), levels of *antA* and *antR* were significantly increased in the Δ*prrF* mutant compared to wild

type PAO1 when grown in low iron shaking conditions, resulting in loss of iron regulation of

antR. Interestingly, while expression of both *antR* and *antA* was derepressed in the Δ*prrF*

mutant grown under static conditions, iron still activated each of these genes in sessile cultures

of the Δ*prrF* mutant **(Fig. 3B-C)**. These results indicate that additional factors contribute to iron-

regulated expression of the anthranilate degradation pathway under static conditions.

Proteomic analysis reveals PrrF-independent iron regulation of anthranilate

metabolic proteins in static conditions. The studies above indicate that iron regulates AMA in

a PrrF-independent manner under static growth conditions. However, our current knowledge of

P. aeruginosa iron regulation is largely restricted to shaking cultures. To better understand

changes in PrrF and iron regulation in sessile cultures *of P. aeruginosa*, we applied a label-free,

LC-MS/MS-based proteomics methodology recently described by our laboratories (46). Using

this unbiased approach, we determined the proteomes of static and shaking cultures of PAO1

and the isogenic Δ*prrF* mutant grown in DTSB cultures 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.

Iron regulation under shaking conditions was robust, with over 178 proteins significantly

repressed by iron and 191 proteins induced by iron (**Supplementary Dataset 1**). As previously

observed (40, 44, 59-63), iron supplementation significantly reduced proteins for the

siderophore (pyoverdine and pyochelin) and heme uptake systems, as well as several iron-

regulated virulence factors, during shaking growth (**Fig. 5A**). Well-known PrrF-repressed

proteins involved in the tricarboxylic acid (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. 5B**) (33, 64). We also observed PrrF-

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

genes involved in Fe-Sulfur cluster biogenesis (IscS, IscU) and amino acid metabolism (IlvD)

(**Fig. 5B**) (46). Contrary to previous real-time PCR and microarray analyses showing iron

induction of the *antABC* mRNAs (46), neither iron supplementation nor *prrF* deletion significantly

affected levels of the AntABC proteins for anthranilate degradation under shaking conditions

(**Fig. 5B**). Overall these studies replicated many of the global iron regulatory pathways observed

in previous studies.

We next determined whether proteins that were regulated by iron and PrrF under

shaking conditions were similarly regulated during sessile growth. Iron repression of

siderophore and heme uptake proteins was largely retained during static growth, indicating that

these iron regulatory pathways are not altered under these conditions (**Fig. 5A**). 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. 5B**). We also noted robust iron induction of

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

independent manner (**Fig. 5B**)**,** in agreement with trends we observed in our qRT-PCR analysis

of *antR* and *antA* **(Fig. 3B-C)**. Combined, these data indicate that several iron regulatory

pathways are altered in static conditions.

Static growth reveals novel iron regulated proteins in *P. aeruginosa*. To determine

how sessile growth might alter global regulatory effects of iron, we mined our proteomics

dataset for proteins whose levels were altered by iron depletion in either static or shaking

conditions, but not both, using a fold change ≥ 2, and an FDR adjusted *p* value ≤ 0.05 as our

cut-off. 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 specifically in static conditions (**Supplementary Table S4 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 S4 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. 5B**.

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 second type 6 secretion

system (T6SS) locus (HSI-II T6SS) **(Fig 6A)**. 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. 6B**). 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 system is known to mediate

cell-to-cell interactions that might not be possible in shaking cultures. No complementarity

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

expression of these proteins is indirectly regulated by PrrF.

T6SS may play a role in AMA during static growth conditions. We next

hypothesized that proteins that were induced by iron starvation in static conditions but not

shaking conditions may contribute to iron-regulated AMA during static growth. We therefore

tested the roles of phenazines, pyochelin, and T6SS on *P. aeruginosa* AMA in static conditions

using static agar co-cultures of *S. aureus* strain USA300. *S. aureus* strain USA300 was

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

strains or their respective mutant strains were spotted onto the monolayers. A mutant in the

PA14 *P. aeruginosa* background, which is deleted for both operons encoding the core

phenazine biosynthesis proteins (Δ*phz*), demonstrated wild type levels of AMA against *S.*

aureus (**Fig. S4**). Likewise, a PAO1 deletion mutant defective for pyochelin siderophore

synthesis (Δ*pchEF*) demonstrated wild type levels of AMA. These data suggest that neither

phenazines nor pyochelin alone account for altered AMA in static conditions. Interestingly, a

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

gene *pvdA* was attenuated for AMA in these conditions (**Fig. S4**). Single deletion of the *pvdA*

gene did not eliminate AMA, however, suggesting that the composite effect of these two

siderophore is critical to AMA in static conditions.

Notably, a transposon mutant in *clpV2*, which encodes a key protein in the HSI-II T6SS,

showed reduced AMA against *S. aureus* when compared to PAO1 (**Fig. S4**). However, it was

difficult to interpret the results obtained with the transposon mutants, as the parental mPAO1

strain exhibited very low baseline AMA (**Fig. S4**). To more reliably measure AMA by the HSI-II

T6SS mutants, we co-incubated wild type mPAO1 or the *clpV2* mutants in shaking and static

liquid co-cultures with *S. aureus.* While mPAO1 exhibited weak yet statistically significant AMA

against *S. aureus* in these conditions, one of the *clpV2* mutants exhibited no statistically

significant AMA against *S. aureus* (**Fig. 7B and Fig. S5A**). The same *clpV2* mutant showed no

defect in AMA during shaking growth (**Fig. 7A**). These results suggest a novel role for T6SS in

P. aeruginosa AMA that is specific to sessile growth conditions, where cell-to-cell contact is

more likely to occur.

DISCUSSION

428   The PrrF sRNAs regulate numerous biological functions in *P. aeruginosa* in response to

iron starvation and are thus critical for virulence (35). A Δ*prrF* mutant was also previously shown

to produce diminished quantities of AQs (21, 32), which are necessary for *P. aeruginosa* AMA

against *S. aureus* (20-22). Strikingly, previous reports indicated that the Δ*prrF* mutant still

exhibits AMA against *S. aureus* in static co-cultures*,* suggesting that PrrF is not necessary for

AMA (21). However, the current study shows that PrrF is required for AMA in shaking co-

cultures, while being dispensable for AMA in sessile cultures. We further showed that loss of the

Δ*prrF* mutant AMA phenotype during static conditions was not due to decreased oxygen, as the

Δ*prrF* mutant behaved similarly in microaerobic and aerobic shaking cultures. Moreover,

proteomics showed that iron and PrrF regulatory pathways are altered in static versus shaking

conditions, and revealed T6SS as a novel iron and PrrF responsive system in static conditions.

These results demonstrate that culture agitation has substantial impacts on *P. aeruginosa*

global iron homeostasis, which may further impact polymicrobial interactions and virulence

factor expression.

Previous reports showed that concentrations of PQS molecules were enhanced when *P.*

aeruginosa is grown in the presence of *S. aureus*-derived N-acetylglucosamine (GlcNAc) (65).

Our lab showed that the Δ*prrF* mutant exhibits a similar increases in PQS concentrations when

co-cultured with the *S. aureus* strain, M2 (21), which we hypothesized had occurred via a similar

mechanism. Importantly, analyses of a Δ*pqsH* mutant in the PA14 strain background by our lab

and others showed that PQS is not required for AMA against *S. aureus*, either in static or biofilm

growth (22, 23), and our current analysis shows that a PAO1 transposon mutant of *pqsH*

similarly retains AMA in shaking and static conditions (**Fig. S1**). In the current report, we further

examined whether PQS and other AQ metabolites were restored in the *P. aeruginosa* Δ*prrF*

strain grown in the presence of *S. aureus*. Our results showed that *S. aureus* strain M2, but not

USA300, restored PQS production to the Δ*prrF* mutant, and that neither strain of *S. aureus*

restored levels of other AQs to the Δ*prrF* mutant (**Supplementary Table S3)**. Moreover, we

observed no increase in AQ levels in the wild type PAO1 strain upon co-culture with either strain

of *S. aureus* (**Supplementary Table S3)**. Combined, these results demonstrate that strain

selection can alter the effects of co-culture on *P. aeruginosa* AQ production, and further

demonstrate the importance of assessing quantities all AQs to define the mechanisms

underlying polymicrobial interactions.

Since static growth is known to reduce oxygen availability, we next investigated the role

of oxygen limitation in altering PrrF's effects on AQ production and AMA. In doing so, we

observed that levels of the oxygen-dependent AQNO and PQS molecules (66, 67) were

significantly reduced in both static and microaerobic shaking conditions as compared to aerobic

shaking conditions. Strikingly, the quorum signaling AHQ molecules were substantially

increased in both the wild type and Δ*prrF* mutant grown in static conditions, but not in

microaerobic shaking conditions. Thus, despite a significant decrease in AHQs in the static

Δ*prrF* mutant versus wild type cultures, the levels of AHQs in the static Δ*prrF* cultures remained

relatively high in comparison to the aerobic or microaerobic shaking Δ*prrF* cultures (**Fig. 2**).

These results corresponded to the Δ*prrF* mutant retaining AMA in static conditions, while

showing a defect in AMA in aerobic and microaerobic conditions (**Fig. 3**). These results suggest

that increased AHQ production during static growth diminishes the impact of PrrF on AMA.

Moreover, these results demonstrate that reduced oxygenation is not solely responsible for the

altered phenotype of the Δ*prrF* mutant in static conditions.

In light of the distinct impacts of sessile growth on *P. aeruginosa* iron regulation, which

are not mediated by oxygen limitation alone, this study establishes the need for additional

research of iron regulatory mechanisms under sessile growth conditions. Indeed, a vast majority

of iron regulation studies in *P. aeruginosa* have been conducted in planktonic cultures grown

under shaking conditions, which bear little resemblance to the conditions observed during *P.*

aeruginosa infections. Whereas aerobic shaking cultures are exposed to constant aeration and

perturbation, *P. aeruginosa* infections are typically dynamic, and feature planktonic as well as

sessile communities of *P. aeruginosa*, particularly during chronic infections*.* Contact-dependent

interactions are likely highly variable under these conditions, as is quorum signaling activity.

Furthermore, sessile cultures are capable of excreting a viscous matrix of extracellular DNA and

exopolysaccharides during infection that form multicellular structures, known as biofilms (68).

The formation of biofilms allows for steep concentration gradients of critical micronutrients,

resulting in a high degree of physiological heterogeneity and variation in bacterial gene

expression (58, 69-73). Our results suggest that the complex environmental cues that occur

under sessile growth can influence iron regulatory networks, thus influencing the production of

different virulence factors and metabolic pathways.

It is important to note that while *P. aeruginosa* has been shown to enhance production of

virulence factors in response to iron starvation in shaking cultures, iron-regulation has not been

well characterized during static growth. In this report we provide initial characterizations of these

changes, revealing significant shifts in iron regulation of various virulence and AMA-associated

proteins, including those for pyochelin and phenazine biosynthesis, as well as T6SS (**Fig. 6**).

Contrary to previous studies, in which iron starvation diminished phenazine biosynthesis gene

expression and phenazine production (38), we observed that iron limitation enhanced

expression of phenazine biosynthesis genes in our sessile cultures. It is unclear why iron

regulation of phenazines is altered in these different growth conditions, although it may be

related to the dynamic role of phenazines during cellular growth. For instance, it has been

shown that phenazines can induce auto-poisoning and extracellular DNA release in aerobic and

anaerobic cultures, which is further enhanced by nutrient depletion (74). 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

(75, 76). This may be especially pertinent in static conditions, where iron requirements for

biofilm formation are shown to be enhanced (77). Phenazines are also a contributing factor to *P.*

aeruginosa virulence during infection (78, 79), and induction of these biosynthetic pathways in

iron-depleted conditions may be part of an adaptive virulence response to low iron static

conditions. In support of this idea, we see that expression of other virulence-associated genes,

such as pyochelin synthesis genes, are more strongly upregulated in static as compared to

shaking conditions. Iron-bound pyochelin, in conjunction with the phenazine, pyocyanin, has

been shown to produce reactive oxygen species that can damage surrounding cells and tissue

during infection (80-83). In this case, phenazine and pyochelin production in sessile growth may

contribute to the extracellular release of iron by host cells and co-colonizing pathogens during

infection.

Expression of T6SS proteins were also increased by iron depletion in sessile cultures,

particularly proteins encoded by the HSI-II gene locus. T6SS in *P. aeruginosa* contributes to

virulence in several models of infection (84, 85), and facilitates inter-bacterial interactions in *P.*

aeruginosa and other bacterial species (86, 87). The cell-to-cell interactions mediated by T6SS

are contact dependent (86) and likely disrupted in shaking cultures. In turn, we hypothesized

that heightened iron regulation of HSI-II T6SS may correspond to increased contribution of

these systems to virulence and interbacterial interactions. Our analysis of a *clpV2* transposon

mutant suggest that HSI-II T6SS contributes to AMA in sessile cultures but not in perturbed

cultures (**Fig. 7**). Interestingly, an earlier study showed that T6SS is induced by the AQ-

dependent regulator, PqsR (84), thus it is possible that T6SS provides a novel link between AQs

and iron-regulated AMA during sessile cultures. Importantly, we note that interpretation of these

results was complicated by weak AMA of the parental mPAO1 strain, thus further analyses are

needed to carefully define the role of T6SS in iron-regulated interactions between *P. aeruginosa*

and *S. aureus*.

Based on our co-culture studies, we were interested in the possible effects of static

culture on PrrF-regulated expression of genes and proteins for anthranilate catabolism. PrrF

sRNAs were previously shown to promote the production of PQS and other AQs through

repression of anthranilate catabolism pathways in shaking cultures (32, 35). Surprisingly, our

proteomics data did not reveal PrrF regulation of anthranilate metabolism proteins under the

shaking conditions used in these studies, even though the mRNAs encoding these proteins

were clearly regulated by iron and PrrF. Interestingly, we observed PrrF-independent iron

regulation of both the anthranilate degradation mRNAs and proteins in sessile cultures.

Nonetheless, the PrrF sRNAs were still required for optimal AQ production in most conditions

that we tested, indicating a key role for these RNAs in modulating AQ metabolism. In contrast, a

recent study in another strain of *P. aeruginosa* showed that PrrF is not required for AQ

production in tobramycin-induced biofilms (88), although it is unclear whether this is due to a

strain difference, or if PrrF simply does not impact AQ metabolism during biofilm growth.

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, 89, 90). Iron availability plays a critical role

in the ability of *P. aeruginosa* to form and maintain biofilms during infection, and virulence

factors such as siderophores, phenazines, and antimicrobial exoproducts are thought to

contribute to iron homeostasis in these infections. *P. aeruginosa* mediates tight regulation of

these virulence factors in response to iron availability, although these regulatory networks have

not been fully characterized in sessile communities or biofilms. While previous work by our lab

and others have helped characterize some of these regulatory mechanisms in shaking cultures,

the results described herein highlight the need for further study of these iron regulatory

mechanisms in conditions that more closely reflect conditions in the host. Studies defining iron

regulation in biofilms and other complex communities are likely to reveal many more striking

physiological adaptations that are critical for chronic *P. aeruginosa* infections.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was funded in part by the National Institutes of Health (NIH) grants R01 AI123320 (to

AGO-S) and T32 GM066706 (to LKB), and the University of Maryland, School of Pharmacy

Mass Spectrometry Center (SOP1841-IQB2014). We thank members of the Oglesby-Sherrouse

laboratory for editing of the manuscript, and Dr. Angela Wilks for thoughtful discussions and

feedback as the study progressed.

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  FIGURES AND FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. PrrF-mediated AMA is altered in shaking conditions. *P. aeruginosa* and *S. aureus*

were co-inoculated in dialyzed trypticase soy broth (DTSB) media supplemented with (high iron)

or without (low iron) 100µM $FeCl_3$. 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, colony forming units (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: *$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.005$;

***$p \leq 0.0005$; ****$p \leq 0.00005$.

Figure 2. 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 AQ core

structures 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 S.D.) 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 3. *P. aeruginosa* AMA 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 dialyzed trypticase soy broth (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, colony forming units (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: *$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.005$.

Figure 4. PrrF expression and regulation of anthranilate catabolism genes in shaking and

static conditions. Wild type PAO1 and Δ*prrF* mutant strains were incubated in 1.5mL dialyzed

trypticase soy broth (DTSB) supplemented with either low iron (white bars) or high iron (gray

bars) in 14mL round bottom polystyrene culture tubes. Cultures were incubated for 18hr at 37˚C

in either shaking aerobic conditions or static conditions prior to RNA extraction (**Methods and**

Materials). Levels of the (A) *prrF*, (B) *antR*, and (C) *antA* RNAs were measured using qRT-

PCR. Bars in each graph indicate the average value of 5 independent experiments (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. 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 $\Delta prrF$ mutant

versus wild type PAO1 grown in low iron conditions. Wild type PAO1 and $\Delta prrF$ 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 $\log_2$ fold change) 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 6. 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 $\log_2$ fold change) 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 (55). 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 type 6 secretion (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.

Figure 7. T6SS potentially impacts *P. aeruginosa* AMA. *P. aeruginosa* and *S. aureus* were

co-inoculated in dialyzed trypticase soy broth (DTSB) media supplemented with (high iron) or

without (low iron) 100µM $FeCl_3$. Co-cultures were incubated in 6 well polystyrene cell culture

plates in static conditions for 18 hours. After incubation, colony forming units (CFUs) of *S.*

aureus (A) and *P. aeruginosa* (B) 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 black 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 *$p \leq 0.05$.