| 1 | Availability of Zinc Impacts Interactions Between Streptococcus |
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| 2 | sanguinis and Pseudomonas aeruginosa in Co-culture |
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23 ABSTRACT

24 Airway infections associated with cystic fibrosis (CF) are polymicrobial. We reported 25 previously that clinical isolates of *P. aeruginosa* promote the growth of a variety of 26 streptococcal species. To explore the mechanistic basis of this interaction, we performed a 27 genetic screen to identify mutants of Streptococcus sanginuis SK36 whose growth was no 28 longer enhanced by *P. aeruginosa* PAO1. Mutations in zinc uptake systems of *S. sanginuis* 29 SK36 reduced growth of these strains by 1-3 log compared to wild-type S. sanginuis SK36 30 when grown in coculture with *P. aeruginosa* PA01, while exogenous zinc (0.1-10 µm) rescued 31 the coculture defect of zinc uptake mutants of S. sanginuis SK36. Zinc uptake mutants of S. 32 sanginuis SK36 had no obvious growth defect in monoculture. Consistent with a competition 33 for zinc driving coculture dynamics, S. sanginuis SK36 grown in coculture with P. aeruginosa 34 showed increased expression of zinc uptake genes compared to S. sanginuis grown alone. 35 Strains of *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 defective in zinc transport also supported more robust growth 36 by S. sanginuis compared to coculture with wild-type P. aeruginosa PAO1. An analysis of 118 37 CF sputum samples revealed that total zinc levels varied from ~5-145 µM. At relatively low 38 zinc levels, *Pseudomonas* and *Streptococcus* were found in approximately equal abundance; 39 at higher zinc levels, we observed an increasing relative abundance of Pseudomonas and 40 decline of Streptococcus, perhaps as a result of increasing zinc toxicity. Together, our data 41 indicate that the relative abundance of these microbes in the CF airway may be impacted by 42 zinc levels.

IMPORTANCE. Polymicrobial infections in CF likely impact patient health, but the mechanism(s) underlying such interactions are poorly understood. Here we show that interactions between *Pseudomonas* and *Streptococcus* are modulated by zinc availability using an *in vitro* model system, and clinical data are consistent with this model. Together with previous studies, our work supports a role for metal homeostasis as a key factor driving microbial interactions.

49 INTRODUCTION

50 Cystic fibrosis (CF) is a monogenic autosomal recessive disorder caused by mutations in the 51 cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR) gene (1). It is estimated that 52 ~70,000 individuals in the world are affected by CF and the most common mutation, caused 53 by a deletion of phenylalanine at the 508th amino acid within the CFTR protein (Δ F508), is 54 found in approximately 70% of this population (2, 3). CFTR dysfunction affects several body 55 systems, and progressive lung disease due to chronic and recurrent microbial infections is 56 the leading cause of morbidity and mortality in individuals with CF (4, 5). It has been shown 57 that CF airway infections are polymicrobial (6, 7), and the composition and interspecies 58 interactions within the polymicrobial communities can have profound and diverse 59 consequences, including on bacterial growth (8-10), as well as disease progression and 60 therapeutic outcomes (6, 11).

An example of such microbial interactions includes the CF-associated streptococcal species, 61 62 the presence of which may influence the growth and/or virulence of other CF pathogens, 63 including the important pathogen Pseudomonas aeruginosa (12, 13). In turn, P. aeruginosa 64 can impact the growth and/or persistence of streptococci (8-10, 14), with the net impact of 65 these interactions resulting in exacerbation (4, 15-17) or less server loss of lung function (11, 66 16, 18-21). Therefore, understanding how these pathogens interact with each other and their 67 multicellular host to impact disease progression, as well as how these interactions are 68 modified by the CF airway environment, is of high significance.

Zinc is an essential micronutrient for all organisms and serves as a structural or catalytic cofactor in 5–6% of proteins in bacterial proteome (22-24). However, high concentrations of zinc are toxic, possibly due to competition with other relevant metal ions (24, 25), inhibition of key enzymes and essential metabolic reactions in the cell (26-28) and inducing membrane stress (29). For most pathogens, there is intense competition for zinc in the face of the host's defense mechanisms, called nutritional immunity (30), and conversely elevating zinc level is

also a strategy used by macrophages to kill pathogens encapsulated in their phagosomes(31, 32).

77 To maintain zinc homeostasis, bacterial species have evolved multiple systems to import and 78 export zinc in environments of zinc limitation or excess, respectively (33, 34). In P. 79 aeruginosa, the two best-studied zinc acquisition systems are the high-affinity ZnuABC 80 system (35-37) and the pseudopaline system (38, 39). ZnuABC is a member of the 81 ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporters, consisting of a zinc-specific binding periplasmic 82 protein (ZnuA), an inner membrane permease (ZnuB), and an ATPase (ZnuC) (35, 37, 40). 83 Loss of ZnuA in P. aeruginosa PAO1 results in an ~60% reduction in cellular zinc 84 accumulation (35). The pseudopaline system is primarily involved in zinc uptake in zinc poor 85 environments and zinc transport into the cell is achieved via the action of a four-gene operon 86 (cntOLMI, also termed zrmABCD) (38, 39). This operon includes the genes for a 87 TonB-dependent outer membrane pseudopaline receptor (CntO), two biosynthetic enzymes 88 (CntL and CntM) responsible for synthesizing pseudopaline and an inner membrane 89 transporter (Cntl) involved in pseudopaline secretion (36, 38, 39). Both the ZnuABC system 90 and the pseudopaline operon are negatively regulated by zinc level through the Fur-like zinc 91 uptake regulator Zur (35, 37, 39), which can sense and respond to femtomolar changes of 92 cytosolic zinc concentrations (41). When zinc is bound, Zur represses transcription of the zinc 93 uptake systems and loss of Zur results in higher cytoplasmic zinc in *P. aeruginosa* (36, 37).

Similarly, several zinc transporters have been identified to contribute to zinc homeostasis and virulence in pathogenic streptococci (42, 43). In most streptococci, zinc acquisition involves a high-affinity zinc-ABC transporter, which is comprised of an integral membrane component (AdcB), an ATPase (AdcC) and one or several zinc-binding proteins (AdcA, AdcAII, Lbp, or Lmb) (42, 44-46). The streptococcal AdcR repressor, a MarR family regulator, is involved in regulation of this transporter (47).

100 Recent studies have suggested that total zinc levels are much higher in sputum from CF 101 patients compared with healthy controls (48), but zinc availability is limited in the lung 102 mucosa, leading to zinc starvation for *P. aeruginosa* during CF lung infection (49). Moreover, 103 the host also employs zinc starvation or intoxication to retard streptococcal growth during 104 colonization and infection (42, 43, 50). Nevertheless, the potential significance of zinc in the 105 interplay between *P. aeruginosa* and *Streptococcus*, especially in the context of a 106 polymicrobial infection in the CF airway, remains to be explored.

107 We recently showed that P. aeruginosa can enhance the growth of multiple oral 108 Streptococcus spp. in coculture conditions (8, 10), but the molecular mechanism underlying 109 such interactions is still poorly understood. In the present work, we used a comprehensive 110 Streptococcus sanguinis SK36 mutant library to determine the genetic requirements for S. 111 sanguinis SK36 to benefit from interaction with P. aeruginosa. Our results show that efficient 112 zinc acquisition in S. sanguinis SK36 plays a critical role in P. aeruginosa-induced growth 113 enhancement. We observed increased transcription of zinc uptake genes in S. sanguinis 114 SK36 and demonstrate that P. aeruginosa and S. sanguinis SK36 are competing for zinc 115 during co-cultivation. Furthermore, by coupling analysis of microbial communities and zinc 116 content within CF sputum samples, we discovered a relationship between the relative 117 abundance of Streptococcus and Pseudomonas with the concentrations of total zinc in CF 118 sputum. These results suggest that zinc availability may play а role in 119 Pseudomonas-Streptococcus interactions in vivo, and furthermore, changes in zinc levels 120 may also be related to the development of the respiratory microflora in patients with CF.

121

122 **RESULTS**

P. aeruginosa and its conditioned medium stimulate *S. sanguinis* growth on both
 plastic and CF-derived airway cells. We have previously shown that *P. aeruginosa* can

125 enhance S. sanguinis SK36 growth either as planktonic or biofilm cells in coculture compared 126 to that of S. sanguinis SK36 monoculture, while the P. aeruginosa population was not 127 significantly impacted by the presence of S. sanguinis (8, 10), a finding confirmed here Fig. 128 S1A. Furthermore, an assay monitoring biofilm formation over time shows that the higher 129 viable count of S. sanguinis SK36 in coculture with P. aeruginosa is due to enhanced growth 130 of S. sanguinis SK36 after a modest reduction in viability (Fig. 1A). Interestingly, S. sanguinis 131 SK36 did show enhanced growth at later time points in monoculture, indicating that P. 132 aeruginosa may stimulate transition out of lag phase as one possible mechanism of the 133 observed increased viable count of S. sanguinis SK36 observed in the coculture assay 134 The viable counts of *P. aeruginosa* were similar in monoculture and coculture at all system. 135 timepoints (Fig. 1B).

136 In an attempt to understand the basis of this observed growth enhancement of S. sanguinis 137 SK36, we tested whether a cell free supernatant of *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 could stimulate the 138 growth of S. sanguinis SK36. We found that P. aeruginosa cell-free supernatant was indeed 139 capable of promoting S. sanguinis biofilm growth on plastic (Fig. 1C). We noted a significant 140 increase in the number of S. sanguinis cells grown in the presence of a 1/2 or 1/4 dilution of the 141 original P. aeruginosa PAO1 supernatant (Fig. S1B), with a dose-dependent decrease in 142 growth enhancement with increasing dilution of the supernatant. Undiluted P. aeruginosa 143 PAO1 supernatant showed a less robust effect on S. sanguinis SK36 growth than the 1/2 or 144 1/4 dilution, perhaps due to the known antimicrobial factors in *P. aeruginosa* supernatant, 145 including siderophores, phenazines, cyanide and elastase (51-53). Taken together, these 146 data suggest that one or more secreted factors in the *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 supernatant can 147 enhance growth of S. sanguinis SK36.

To determine whether the interactions between *Streptococcus* and *P. aeruginosa* also occur when these microbes are grown in the presence of airway cells derived from patients with CF, we extended our observation to CF-derived bronchial epithelial cells homozygous for the 151 Δ F508 allele of CFTR (referred to as "CFBE monolayers" hereafter) (54). We evaluated S. 152 sanguinis SK36 growth on CFBE monolayers in the absence or presence of P. aeruginosa 153 cells or supernatants. As a control, S. sanguinis growth on tissue culture plates without host 154 cells was also included (Fig. 1D, left-most column, plastic). Interestingly, S. sanguinis growth 155 enhancement was observed with monocultures biofilms on host cells, and P. aeruginosa cells 156 and supernatants further enhanced the growth of S. sanguinis SK36 (Fig. 1D). Collectively, 157 our results demonstrate that the ability of *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 cells and supernatant to 158 promote the growth of *S. sanguinis* SK36 under a variety of conditions.

159 Identification of S. sanguinis mutants defective in growth enhancement mediated by P.

160 aeruginosa. To identify S. sanguinis genes that are potentially required for the increase in S. 161 sanguinis SK36 growth in the P. aeruginosa PAO1-S. sanguinis SK36 coculture, we 162 performed a genome-wide screen of an available comprehensive S. sanguinis SK36 mutant 163 library (55), which covers ~90% of the predicted 2270 protein coding genes in the S. 164 sanguinis SK36 genome. In this screen we sought to identify mutants with reduced 165 enhancement phenotypes in the presence of *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 (Fig. 2A). Of 2048 mutants 166 screened, a total of 80 mutants showed a measurable and repeatable reduction in the 167 enhancement of S. sanguinis growth (Table S1).

168 Among those 80 candidates, mutations were found in genes belonging to a wide variety of 169 functional classes (Fig. 2B), including: (i) carbohydrate transport and metabolism (SSA_0222, 170 SSA 0773, SSA 1261, SSA 1521, SSA 1749, etc.), (ii) amino acid transport and 171 metabolism (SSA 0564, SSA 1043, SSA 1044, SSA 1341-1343, etc.), (iii) cell division and 172 cell envelope biogenesis (SSA_0015, SSA_0655, etc.), (iv) coenzyme metabolism 173 (SSA_1201, SSA_1202, SSA_1536, etc.), (v) DNA replication (SSA_1626), (vi) nucleotide 174 transport and metabolism (SSA_0568, SSA_1163, etc.), and (vii) translation, ribosomal 175 structure and protein biosynthesis (SSA_0820, SSA_1272, SSA_1611, SSA_1613, 176 SSA_1895, SSA_1896, SSA_2033, SSA_2058, etc.).

We also found genes involved in metal ion (zinc, iron and manganese) transport and metabolism (SSA_0136, SSA_0137, SSA_0260, SSA_0261, SSA_1955, SSA_1956, SSA_2365-2367, etc.; Table S1 and Fig. 2B,C), which are involved in many crucial biological processes and are essential for bacterial survival in the environment or in the infected host (28). In particular, zinc has recently been shown to be essential for pathogenic streptococci in their growth, morphology and virulence during infection (42, 43).

183 Zinc is required for the promotion of S. sanguinis growth by P. aeruginosa. To further 184 probe the basis for the enhanced S. sanguinis growth mediated by P. aeruginosa, we focused 185 on the role of zinc importers identified in our screen (SSA 0136, SSA 0137, SSA 0260 and 186 SSA 0261; Fig. 2C). In S. sanguinis SK36, the SSA 0136 and SSA 0137 genes encode 187 components of an Adc zinc ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporter, which is involved in zinc 188 uptake in several pathogenic streptococci. The SSA_0136 and SSA_0137 genes are called 189 adcC and adcB, respectively (42, 45). The SSA_0260 gene, also termed SsaB (S. sanguinis 190 adhesin B) (56), is an Lral family lipoprotein and serves as the substrate-binding protein for a 191 Mn/Zn ABC import system (57). The SSA 0261 gene, also named ssaC, is located upstream 192 of SSA_0260 and encodes a putative Mn/Zn ABC transporter permease (UniProt: A3CKL5). 193 The SSA_0260 and SSA_0261 genes are predicted to be co-transcribed.

194 To validate our screen results, the four zinc transporter mutants were further tested in the 195 coculture assay with P. aeruginosa PAO1. We found that the SSA_0136 and SSA _0137 196 mutants showed a \sim 2-log reduction in growth enhancement relative to that of the wild-type S. 197 sanguinis SK36, while the SSA 0260 and SSA 0261 mutants displayed a 1-log reduction 198 compared the wild-type S. sanguinis SK36 (Fig. 3A). In addition, the four mutants were also 199 tested in monoculture to determine their growth behavior; the results revealed that these 200 mutants grew like S. sanguinis WT (Fig. S2), suggesting that the growth enhancement 201 deficiency observed for these mutants was not due to a general growth defect.

202 To confirm that the observed growth promotion defect was indeed caused by inactivation of 203 the individual genes, we complemented each of the mutants with its corresponding gene 204 under the control of an IPTG-inducible promoter, as reported (58). As shown in Fig. 3B, the 205 complemented mutants showed growth enhancement phenotypes similar to that of wild-type 206 S. sanguinis SK36, indicating that the mutation in these genes is solely responsible for the 207 observed growth enhancement deficiency. Together, our data indicate that the functions of 208 these genes are required for S. sanguinis SK36 to show enhanced growth in coculture with P. 209 aeruginosa.

210 As zinc-ABC transporters are required for zinc acquisition (42), we reasoned that the defects 211 in growth enhancement of these mutants during coculture might be due to the lack of zinc 212 uptake. Consequently, the effect of supplementing additional zinc to the coculture medium 213 was tested. We first measured the zinc levels of the medium used in our coculture conditions 214 (MEM+L-Gln) and found the concentration of zinc is $0.024 \pm 0.007 \mu$ M. Supplementation of the 215 medium with 0.1 µM, 1 µM and 10 µM zinc chloride restored the growth enhancement 216 phenotype of each of the mutants to wild-type levels (Fig. 3A), and growth of the wild-type S. 217 sanguinis SK36 was slightly promoted upon addition of 0.1 µM and 1 µM zinc (Fig. 3A). There 218 was no significant difference in P. aeruginosa growth in monoculture or coculture in the 219 zinc-amended and unamended media (Fig. S3). These results indicate that zinc is required for 220 efficient growth enhancement of S. sanguinis during coculture with P. aeruginosa.

Notably, zinc added to 10 µM slightly inhibited the growth of wild-type *S. sanguinis* SK36 and
the SSA_0136 and SSA _0137 mutants, but not the SSA_0260 and SSA_0261 mutants (Fig.
3A), suggesting that high concentrations of zinc are toxic to *S. sanguinis*, that these zinc
transporters play an important role in zinc acquisition, and may have distinct affinities for zinc.

As mentioned above, *P. aeruginosa* can also promote *S. sanguinis* SK36 growth on airway cells (Fig. 1D). To further investigate the role of zinc in the *P. aeruginosa*-induced growth enhancement, we extended our observation to cocultures on CFBE monolayers. The 228 wild-type S. sanguinis SK36 strain and zinc transporter mutants were cocultured with P. 229 aeruginosa with 1 µM zinc chloride added to the medium. Similar to the observations in our 230 coculture model on plastic, the zinc transporter mutants exhibited reduced growth 231 enhancement, and supplementing the medium with 1 µM zinc rescued the growth 232 enhancement defect of these mutants (Fig. 3C). It is worth noting that there was no significant 233 difference in growth of the wild-type S. sanguinis SK36 and the zinc transporter mutants on 234 CFBE monolayers with or without addition of zinc (Fig. 3D). The growth of S. sanguinis was 235 enhanced when cultured with CFBE cells even in the absence of zinc (Fig. 1D), indicating that 236 CFBE monolayers produce factor(s) other than zinc that can enhance the growth of S. 237 sanguinis. Taken together, these data demonstrate that enhanced S. sanguinis growth 238 mediated by *P. aeruginosa* requires the zinc importers of *S. sanguinis* SK36.

239 Coculture with P. aeruginosa upregulates zinc transporter gene expression in S. 240 sanguinis. We next examined the expression patterns of zinc transporter genes in both S. 241 sanguinis and *P. aeruginosa* using gRT-PCR. As shown above in Fig. 1A, in the first 2 hours 242 of coculture with *P. aeruginosa* PAO1, *S. sanguinis* did not show a significant enhancement 243 in growth. The mixed cultures showed a significant trend toward enhanced S. sanguinis 244 growth and exhibited a robust increase in growth at 6 h. We saw no differences between the 245 pure and the mixed cultures when we examined the growth kinetics of P. aeruginosa PAO1 246 over the course of 24 h. As a consequence, gRT-PCR studies were performed on samples of 247 2 h and 6 h for both monocultures and cocultures.

At 2 h, S. sanguinis zinc transporter genes SSA_0136 and SSA_0137 were upregulated 2.2and 2.3-fold in coculture compared to S. sanguinis monoculture (Fig. 4A), respectively, while the expression of SSA_0260 and SSA_0261 genes were not significantly changed at this time point (Fig. 4A). At 6 h, S. sanguinis expression of all of the four zinc transporter genes was upregulated (4.4-fold for SSA_0136; 4.7-fold for SSA_0137; 8.2-fold for SSA_0260; 4.3-fold for SSA_0261) when co-cultured with *P. aeruginosa* (Fig. 4A). In contrast, the addition of 254 exogenous zinc (1 µM) to the coculture medium reduced the expression of S. sanguinis zinc 255 transporter genes to the same level as monocultures with zinc supplementation (Fig. 4B). The 256 expression of P. aeruginosa PAO1 zinc uptake and regulator genes (zur, znuA, cntl, cntO) 257 was minimally impacted by the presence of S. sanguinis compared to P. aeruginosa PAO1 258 alone at either 2 h or 6 h (Fig. S4), although the zinc transporters of *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 were 259 significantly upregulated in monoculture and coculture at 6 h compared to 2 h (Fig. S4). 260 Notably, the robust increase in zinc transporter gene expression by S. sanguinis at 6 h 261 corresponds to the induction of *P. aeruginosa* uptake systems at this same time point. Taken 262 together, our studies are consistent with a model that S. sanguinis zinc transporter genes are 263 induced by zinc deficiency when S. sanguinis is grown in coculture with P. aeruginosa, 264 presumably due to zinc competition between these organisms.

Mutations in zinc-related genes of *P. aeruginosa* promote growth of *S. sanguinis* in coculture. Our data suggest that in coculture, *P. aeruginosa* and *Streptococcus* compete for zinc. As shown above, *S. sanguinis* SK36 mutants defective in zinc uptake show less robust viability when grown in coculture with *P. aeruginosa*. Thus, we would predict that mutations in zinc uptake in *P. aeruginosa* would result in *S. sanguinis* SK36 more effectively competing for zinc, likely reflected by an increase in viable counts of *S. sanguinis*.

271 We first assessed the impact of mutating zinc transport systems of *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 by

testing strains with mutations in the *cntl*, *znuA* and *cntl*-O genes (Fig. 5A-C). In all cases,

273 coculture with the *P. aeruginosa* zinc transport mutants resulted in a modest enhancement

274 (~2-3-fold) of growth of S. sanguinis SK36 compared to coculture with the wild-type P.

aeruginosa PAO1. One confounding factor in the interpretation of these results is that all of the

276 *P. aeruginosa* zinc transport mutants show a small but consistent ~50% reduction in growth in

277 coculture, which may be due to the lack of effective zinc transport or other anticipated defects,

as reported (35, 37).

279 In *P. aeruginosa*, the expression of zinc importer genes is controlled by the Zur protein, a zinc 280 responsive repressor (36), and loss of Zur results in a higher intracellular zinc concentration 281 in *P. aeruginosa* (37). We generated a *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 Δzur mutant and cocultured this 282 mutant with S. sanguinis SK36 with or without zinc addition. Coculture of the wild-type P. 283 aeruginosa PAO1 with S. sanguinis served as the control. In the absence of added zinc, there 284 was no difference in the growth of S. sanguinis SK36 in the presence of the wild-type versus 285 *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 Δzur mutant (Fig. 5D-E). As described above, in mixed cultures of S. 286 sanguinis and wild-type P. aeruginosa PAO1, we found excessive zinc concentration (10 μ M) 287 led to a 9-fold decline in S. sanguinis growth compared to cells grown without zinc 288 supplementation (Fig. 3A and Fig. 5D). In contrast, mixed cultures of S. sanguinis and P. 289 aeruginosa PAO1 Azur mutant in the presence of 10 µM zinc resulted in a 3.5-fold increase 290 in S. sanguinis growth compared to that observed for coculture with WT P. aeruginosa PAO1 291 (Fig. 5D). Given the protective action of the zinc hyper-accumulating *P. aeruginosa* 292 PAO1 Δzur mutant towards S. sanguinis SK36, these results further support the idea that P. 293 aeruginosa and S. sanguinis compete for zinc when grown in coculture.

The relationship between sputum zinc concentration and the relative abundance of Streptococcus and Pseudomonas. In previous studies we had collected sputum samples from patients with CF and assessed the relative abundance of *Streptococcus* and *Pseudomonas* in these samples (59). These same samples were analyzed by ICP-MS, as reported (59, 60), to determine the concentration of zinc in the sputum. We observed that the concentration of zinc in these samples ranged from 4.8-145 μ M with a median of 36.4 μ M (n = 118 sputum samples; Fig. S5).

We examined the relationship between zinc concentration and the relative abundance
 of *Streptococcus* and *Pseudomonas* in these samples and observed that Streptococcus
 dominated the sputum samples when the zinc concentration was low (Fig. 6, orange dots), but

| 304 | that the relative abundance of <i>Pseudomonas</i> was higher in samples with high zinc levels (Fig. |
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| 305 | 6, blue dots). Although measures like Pearson or Spearman correlation have been used to |
| 306 | quantify this type of relationship and attach statistical significance, the compositional nature of |
| 307 | bacterial community abundance suggests that these statistical approaches are inappropriate |
| 308 | (61, 62). Therefore, we interpret in vivo associations observed between Streptococcus |
| 309 | abundance, Pseudomonas abundance and zinc concentration as broadly consistent with |
| 310 | the hypothesis that they are related without attaching a specific measure of statistical |
| 311 | significance. |
| 312 | |
| 313 | Physiologically relevant levels of zinc impact the competition between Streptococcus |
| 314 | and Pseudomonas. Given the observations described above, we decided to assess how |
| 315 | varying zinc concentrations might impact the competition between various Streptococcus |
| 316 | species found in the CF airway and <i>P. aeruginosa</i> (Fig. 7). For clinical isolates of <i>S.</i> |
| 317 | intermedius (two isolates), S. constellatus, S. parasanguinis and S. salivarius, all of which |
| 318 | have been found in the CF airway (11), increasing zinc across a range of concentrations |
| 319 | measured in sputum resulted in progressively lower viability of many of these streptococci |
| 320 | when grown in monoculture (Fig. 7A) or in coculture with <i>P. aeruginosa</i> (Fig. 7B). Thus, many |
| 321 | of these strains appear to be sensitive to clinically-relevant concentrations of zinc. |
| 322 | Interestingly, two isolates (S. anginosus and S. oralis) showed robust growth even at the |
| 323 | highest level of zinc tested, indicating that these strains have increased tolerance to zinc for |
| 324 | reasons we do not understand. Interestingly, the data in Figure 6 show that some patients |
| 325 | with high levels of zinc in their sputum also have high relative abundance of Streptococcus; |
| 326 | perhaps these patients harbor zinc-resistant streptococci. |
| | |

327

328 **DISCUSSION**

329 In this study, we characterized the interaction between P. aeruginosa and S. sanguinis SK36 330 in a dual species coculture model system. We demonstrated that zinc uptake by S. sanguinis 331 SK36 was necessary for the *P. aeruginosa*-mediated promotion of *S. sanguinis* SK36 growth, 332 and that P. aeruginosa competed with S. sanguinis SK36 for zinc during cocultivation. 333 Additionally, we described a new association between zinc levels and the abundance of 334 Pseudomonas and Streptococcus in CF sputum, thus highlighting the potential role of zinc in the interaction between these CF pathogens, as well as a potential role for this metal in 335 336 shaping microbiome dynamics in the context of polymicrobial CF airway infections.

337 We report that co-cultivation with *P. aeruginosa* results in enhanced growth of *S. sanguinis* 338 SK36 on either plastic or CF-derived airway cells, while *P. aeruginosa* growth is relatively 339 unaffected during coculture. These data are consistent with previous reports from our group 340 and others that coculture of streptococci with P. aeruginosa promotes the growth of 341 streptococci, but with no obvious benefit to P. aeruginosa growth (8-10). Interestingly, in a 342 study examining the interactions between P. aeruginosa and oral streptococci, including S. 343 sanguinis (12, 63), P. aeruginosa growth was inhibited when streptococci were grown as a 344 pioneer colonizer; streptococci can produce hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) to react with excess 345 nitrite in the medium to generate reactive nitrogenous intermediates (RNI) for the inhibition of 346 P. aeruginosa growth (12, 13, 63). We note that P. aeruginosa was inoculated in combination 347 with S. sanguinis in our study under conditions that differ from these previous reports, and we 348 did not observe streptococcus-mediated inhibition of P. aeruginosa. These observations 349 suggest that the relationships between *P. aeruginosa* and streptococci are complex and likely 350 are influenced by metabolic/environmental factors and colonization sequence. Understanding 351 how various in vitro models reflect dynamic in vivo environments will contribute to efficiently 352 synthesizing and better understanding the data obtained from various laboratories.

353 By screening a genome-wide non-essential gene mutant library of S. sanguinis SK36, we 354 discovered 80 mutants with attenuation in P. aeruginosa-mediated growth enhancement 355 (summarized in Table S1). The large number of genes (3.5% of the S. sanguinis SK36 356 genome) found to be involved in this interspecies interaction and the variety of functions 357 performed by these gene products provide new insights into the mechanism(s) of interaction 358 between these two pathogens. Among the candidate genes we identified in our screen, we 359 focused on a set of genes involved in the import of zinc. We demonstrate that the ability to 360 obtain zinc as one factor contributing to the P. aeruginosa-induced enhancement of S. 361 sanguinis SK36 growth, both in the presence and absence of human airway cells. Future 362 studies will focus on the other genes identified in our screen.

363 Our observations here raise the question of whether zinc is a factor that drives growth 364 enhancement of streptococci in the presence of P. aeruginosa, or whether efficient uptake of 365 zinc is required to allow the growth-promoting factors produced by *P. aeruginosa* to exert their 366 effect. We favor the latter model, in large part because we show that adding additional zinc to 367 monocultures of S. sanguinis SK36 or other streptococci has, at best, a very modest effect on 368 growth of the streptococci. That is, it does not appear that the streptococci are obtaining zinc 369 from P. aeruginosa to enhance streptococcal growth. Instead, we observed that zinc 370 starvation might be triggered by competition for this metal between *P. aeruginosa* and *S.* 371 sanguinis SK36. Indeed, the elevated expression of the zinc transporters of wild-type S. 372 sanguinis SK36 in mixed cultures, and the lack of such induction with zinc supplementation in 373 the coculture medium, indicates that S. sanguinis SK36 becomes zinc-starved during its 374 interaction with *P. aeruginosa*. In contrast, there was no significant change in the expression 375 of *P. aeruginosa* zinc transporters under coculture conditions, indicating that *P. aeruginosa* is 376 not lacking for this metal under these conditions; thus it is unlikely that S. sanguinis is "stealing" 377 the zinc in the culture from *P. aeruginosa*. Taken together, we argue that zinc provided by *P.* 378 aeruginosa is not a key factor enhancing streptococcal growth in coculture.

379 An intriguing observation here is the relationship between the sputum zinc levels and the 380 relative fraction of *Pseudomonas* and *Streptococcus* in the CF sputum. In the human body, 381 the zinc concentration varies among different tissues and total zinc concentration in induced 382 sputum from control patients is around 1 µM (50 µg/l) (42, 64), although higher levels of total 383 sputum zinc have been reported in patients with CF (48), a finding consistent with our sputum 384 measurements here. Furthermore, the zinc-sequestering protein calprotectin is present in 385 CF sputum in high concentrations (65, 66), potentially resulting in limited bioavailability of zinc 386 for CF pathogens like *P. aeruginosa* (49). Thus, at present it is difficult to conclude how much 387 of the increased zinc measured in CF sputum is actually available to the microbes; knowing 388 the answer to this question is key to understanding disease progression. For example, based 389 on in vitro studies, efficient zinc uptake is critical for P. aeruginosa to express several 390 virulence traits associated with lung colonization, including swarming, swimming motility and 391 the ability to form biofilms (49). It has been shown that high concentrations of total zinc are 392 correlated with airway inflammation (48), indicating that perhaps P. aeruginosa can access 393 some of the large pool of zinc in some circumstances. Furthermore, sputum zinc levels were 394 found to decrease following antibiotic treatment of CF exacerbation (48, 49), again 395 suggestive that loss of access to zinc reduces virulence. Interestingly, we found a possible 396 relationship between the concentrations of zinc and relative abundance of Pseudomonas and 397 Streptococcus, however, because of the relative abundance data available for this analysis, 398 determining a statistical correlation is difficult. Nevertheless, we do note that at higher zinc 399 measured concentrations, the relative abundance of *Streptococcus* appears to be lower than at low concentrations of this metal, which may be related to the toxicity observed when 400 401 Streptococcus is grown in high levels of zinc, resulting in impaired growth or death (67). 402 These data do suggest that increased total zinc may be associated with increased bioavailable zinc. A more detailed analysis of the physiology of zinc metabolism in CF sputum 403 404 and measurements of the bioavailability of this metal will be required to definitely address the 405 questions raised here, and these questions should be addressed in future studies.

406 MATERIALS AND METHODS

407 Bacterial strains, plasmids and culture conditions. Bacterial strains and plasmids used in 408 this study are listed in Table S2. S. sanguinis SK36 and other clinical streptococcal isolates 409 were grown statically in Bacto[™] Todd-Hewitt (TH) broth supplemented with 0.5% (w/v) yeast 410 extract (THY), or on Trypticase[™] soy agar plates supplemented with 5% (v/v) defibrinated 411 sheep blood (blood agar) at 37°C with 5% CO₂. P. aeruginosa and Escherichia coli strains 412 were grown in lysogeny broth (LB) medium (68) with shaking or on LB agar at 37°C unless 413 otherwise noted. As indicated, the following antibiotics and concentrations were used: 500 µg/ml kanamycin and 200 µg/ml spectinomycin for S. sanguinis; 50 µg/ml gentamycin and 414 150 µg/ml carbenicillin for *P. aeruginosa*; 10 µg/ml gentamicin, 50 µg/ml carbenicillin and 100 415 416 µg/ml spectinomycin for E. coli. For IPTG-inducible plasmids, IPTG was added to cultures to 417 a 100 µM final concentration.

418 Coculture assays. Coculture assays were performed as previously described with minor 419 modifications (8). Briefly, overnight cultures of *P. aeruginosa* and *Streptococcus* spp. were 420 centrifuged at $13,000 \times g$ for 3 min, washed twice with phosphate buffered saline (PBS), and 421 resuspended in minimal essential medium (MEM) supplemented with 2 mM L-glutamine 422 (MEM+L-GIn). For coculture samples, *P. aeruginosa* inoculum was prepared to an OD₆₀₀ of 423 0.05 and Streptococcus spp. inoculum was prepared to an OD₆₀₀ of 0.001 in MEM+L-GIn. For 424 monoculture controls, the inocula for *P. aeruginosa* or *Streptococcus* spp. were prepared to 425 the same OD_{600} as for the coculture samples. Three wells of a 96-well deep well plate were 426 inoculated per monoculture and coculture condition with 400 µl per well. Culture plates were 427 then incubated statically at 37°C with 5% CO₂ for 2 h, at which point the unattached 428 planktonic cells were removed by aspiration and 400 µl of fresh MEM+L-Gln was once again 429 added to each well. The cultures were then incubated for an additional 20 h, and both 430 planktonic and biofilm cells were harvested together using a 96 pin replicator. Bacterial 431 growth was determined by 10-fold serial dilutions in PBS and plated in 3 µl aliquots on

432 *Pseudomonas* isolation agar (PIA) or blood agar supplemented with 10 µg/ml neomycin and
433 10 µg/ml polymixin B (SBA) for *P. aeruginosa* and *Streptococcus* spp. selective growth,
434 respectively. After overnight incubation, bacterial colonies were counted and the colony
435 forming units (CFU) per ml of culture were determined.

436 Genetic screen of the SK36 library for mutants defective in growth enhancement. To 437 investigate S. sanguinis SK36 genes involved in P. aeruginosa-mediated enhancement of 438 growth, the S. sanguinis SK36 non-essential gene mutant library (55) was screened for 439 growth enhancement defects as previously described for P. aeruginosa with some 440 modifications (8). Briefly, a 96 pin replicator was used to transfer inocula from the frozen 441 library to a 96-well plate containing 150 ml of THY broth per well. The plate was then 442 incubated statically for 24 h at 37°C with 5% CO₂. The P. aeruginosa PAO1 culture was grown overnight in LB broth, adjusted to an OD₆₀₀ of 0.05 in MEM+L-Gln as described above, 443 444 and 400 µl of this adjusted inoculum suspension was added to each well of a 96-well deep 445 well plate. The 96 pin replicator was then used to transfer 2-3 µl of the 24 h culture from the 446 mutant library plate into the 96-well deep well plate containing P. aeruginosa PAO1. 447 Unattached bacteria were removed after 2 h, and 400 µl of fresh MEM+L-GIn was added to 448 each well and the plates were grown for an additional 20 h at 37°C with 5% CO₂. The 96 pin 449 replicator was again used to disrupt the biofilms into the planktonic fraction, and large petri 450 dish plates containing either PIA or SBA media were spot inoculated with each culture and 451 grown as described above. Candidates that showed low or undetectable growth based on 452 differences compared to the wild-type S. sanguinis SK36 (which formed small lawns when 453 inoculated onto an agar plate by the 96 pin replicator) were stored at -80°C in 30% glycerol in 454 a sterile 96-well plate. To confirm the phenotype, a second and third round of mutant 455 screening was performed as described above.

456 **Kinetic growth assay.** The relative ability of *S. sanguinis* SK36 and *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 to 457 grow in the coculture model system was determined by kinetic growth assays. Briefly, *S.* 458 sanguinis SK36 was grown in coculture with *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 as described above in a 459 96-well deep well plate. The cultures were grown at 37° C with 5% CO₂ for 24 h, and were 460 assessed for viable cell counts (CFU/ml) at seven time points: 0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, and 24 h. The 461 0 h time point corresponds to the initial inoculum. Cells were collected at the 2 h time point 462 prior to the 2 h medium replacement. At each time point, a combination of the planktonic and 463 biofilm cells from triplicate wells were serially diluted and plated on PIA and SBA agar media, 464 and CFU counts determined after overnight incubation as described above.

P. aeruginosa supernatant assays. To prepare P. aeruginosa conditioned medium, 465 466 bacteria were grown in 0.5 ml per well of MEM+L-Gln in 24-well plates with media changes as 467 described above. At the 22 h time point, the planktonic fractions were collected, centrifuged and supernatants were filter-sterilized through a 0.22 µm syringe filter. The effect of the 468 469 sterile *P. aeruginosa* supernatants on the growth of *S. sanguinis* was tested on both plastic 470 and CFBE monolayers. For experiments on plastic, supernatant with different levels of 471 dilution in fresh MEM+L-Gln was added to *S. sanguinis* monocultures when the medium was 472 replaced at the 2 h time point. For assays on CF airway cells, a 1/2 dilution of P. aeruginosa 473 supernatant in MEM+L-Gln was supplemented with 0.4% L-arginine and gently added to 474 each well of CF airway cells that had been cocultured with S. sanguinis for 1 h or 5.5 h when 475 the medium was exchanged. S. sanguinis growth was evaluated after 22 h of incubation at 476 37° C with 5% CO₂ as described above.

477 **Tissue culture cells and coculture on CFBE monolayers.** The cystic fibrosis bronchial 478 epithelial (CFBE) monolayers used in the coculture model (54, 69) are immortalized cells that 479 overexpress Δ F508-cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (10, 70). CFBE 480 monolayers were grown as previously described (10, 69). In brief, the CFBE monolayers 481 were seeded at a concentration of 100,000 cells/well in a 24-well tissue culture plate and fed 482 every other day with MEM supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, 2 mM L-glutamine, 50 483 U/ml penicillin, 50 µg/ml streptomycin, 2 µg/ml puromycin and 5 µg/ml Plasmocin. Cells were 484 grown at 37°C with 5% CO₂ for 5-7 days to form a confluent monolayer and tight junctions 485 before inoculation with bacteria. For coculture assays with mono- and dual-bacterial species, 486 liquid cultures of *P. aeruginosa* and *Streptococcus* spp. were prepared as described above 487 and 500 µl of bacterial inocula were gently added to triplicate wells of CFBE monolayers that 488 had been washed twice with MEM. The cocultures were incubated at 37°C with 5% CO₂ for 1 489 h, at which point unattached bacteria were removed by aspiration, 500 µl of MEM+L-Gln+0.4% 490 L-arginine was added to each well and incubated for an additional 4.5 h. At this point, 491 planktonic cells were removed by aspiration, and 500 µl of fresh MEM+L-GIn+0.4% 492 L-arginine was once again added into each well. The established coculture was incubated for 493 an additional 16.5 h. At 22 h post-inoculation, both planktonic and biofilm-grown bacteria 494 were collected together by scraping with a pipette tip, and bacteria were serially diluted and 495 plated on PIA and SBA plates, as described above, to identify P. aeruginosa and 496 Streptococcus spp., respectively. Following overnight incubation, the resulting colonies were 497 counted and the CFU/ml of the culture was determined.

498 Zinc supplementation. For zinc supplementation assays, wild-type Streptococcus SK36 and 499 individual mutants with growth enhancement defects, wild-type P. aeruginosa PAO1 and P. 500 aeruginosa PAO1 zinc homeostasis associated mutants were grown as described above for 501 monoculture and coculture assays. After 2 h, unattached bacteria were removed by 502 aspiration, MEM+L-GIn with or without additional zinc (at the indicated concentrations diluted 503 from 1 mM zinc chloride stock solution in MEM+L-Gln) was added to each well and cocultures 504 were then treated as described above. Nutritional complementation on CF airway cells were 505 performed as described for biofilms on plastic, except that MEM+L-GIn supplemented with 506 0.4% arginine (to enhance biofilm formation) with or without additional zinc chloride at the 507 indicated concentration was used for medium exchange when indicated.

508 Construction of mutants and complementation. In-frame deletions of P. aeruginosa 509 genes were constructed by allelic exchange employing the sucrose counter-selection system 510 with the gene replacement vector pEX18Ap (71). Mutant strains were confirmed by PCR 511 analysis of genomic DNA. S. sanguinis mutants were derived from a defined mutant library 512 described previously (55). For complementation of each targeted S. sanguinis gene, a suicide 513 vector pJFP126 was used to allow for the insertion of complementing genes into an ectopic 514 chromosomal site (SSA 0169) via homologous recombination and expression of each gene 515 is under the control of an IPTG inducible promoter hyper-spank (8, 58). Transformation was 516 performed essentially as described previously (72) with the competence stimulating peptide 517 (CSP sequence: DLRGVPNPWGWIFGR) custom-synthesized by GenScript Inc. (Piscataway, 518 NJ). Primers used for PCR amplification of selected genes are listed in Table S3.

519 **Expression studies.** For qRT-PCR studies, the overnight culture used as inoculum was 520 prepared as described above from which three replicates cocultures of *P. aeruginosa* and *S.* 521 sanguinis, or the S. sanguinis monoculture, were prepared in 100 ml of warm MEM+L-GIn in 522 a 250 ml flask. The inoculum of *P. aeruginosa* and *S. sanguinis* was prepared and brought to 523 an OD_{600} of 0.05 and 0.02, respectively, as described above. Cultures were incubated at 524 37°C with 5% CO₂. After 2 h and 6 h of incubation, samples were pelleted, and bacterial cells 525 were mechanically lysed with 10 cycles of 30 s bead beating, 30 s on ice with a 1:1 mixture of 526 0.1 mm and 0.5 mm glass beads. Total RNA was isolated using TRIzol and the Direct-zol™ 527 RNA MiniPrep Kit with two times of in-column DNase I treatment according to the 528 manufacturer's instructions (Zymo Research, R2053). RNA purity and concentration were 529 determined using a NanoDrop 2000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific). For each sample, 530 1 µg of RNA was converted to cDNA using the SuperScript[™] III First-Strand Synthesis 531 System for RT-PCR (Invitrogen) and then diluted 1:50. gRT-PCR were carried out in triplicate 532 in a StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems) using iTag Universal SYBR 533 Green Supermix (Bio-Rad). The qRT-PCR primers are listed in Table S3. Relative gene expression was calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method with DNA gyrase subunit gene gyrA as a 534

535 normalization control for *S. sanguinis* (73, 74) and *PA2875* as the reference gene for *P.* 536 aeruginosa (75).

537 **Measurement of zinc in sputum samples.** Sputum samples for zinc analysis were stored at 538 -80°C until processed. Sputum zinc was quantified by inductively coupled plasma-mass 539 spectrometry (ICP-MS) following nitric acid digestion of organic material according to the 540 method of Heck et al. and is expressed as micromolar zinc (60).

541 **Statistical Analysis.** Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism 7 program 542 and results were expressed as the mean values \pm standard deviations. Unless otherwise 543 noted, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test 544 or Student's *t*-test analysis was performed to determine statistical significance of the data. *, 545 P < 0.05; **, P < 0.01. See figure legends or text for other specific statistical tests used.

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775 FIGURE LEGENDS

776 Figure 1. *P. aeruginosa* can stimulate the growth of *S. sanguinis* when grown in

777 **co-cultures**. (A and B) Growth kinetics of S. sanguinis SK36 (labeled SK36) and P.

aeruginosa PAO1 (labeled PAO1) in a 96-well deep well plate either in coculture or as a

monoculture. (C-D) *P. aeruginosa* cells or a 1:2 dilution of *P. aeruginosa* supernatant (super)

enhances S. sanguinis growth in coculture on a plastic substratum (C) or CFBE monolayers

781 (D). Error bars indicate standard deviation of the means from a representative triplicate assay.

782 (**, *P* < 0.01, Student's *t*-test).

783 Figure 2. Identification of *S. sanguinis* SK36 mutants that exhibits reduced growth

enhancement mediated by *P. aeruginosa*. (A) Schematic diagram of the genome-wide
screen of *S. sanguinis* SK36 mutant library. (B) Functional classification of screen hits using
KEGG Orthology (KO) database shown here as the number of candidate mutants identified in
each of the indicated pathways. (C) Genes required for zinc uptake identified in the screen and
corresponding functions (https://www.genome.jp/dbget-bin/get_linkdb?-t+genes+gn:T00473).

789 Figure 3. Zinc is required for the *P. aeruginosa*-induced enhancement of *S. sanguinis*

790 growth. (A) Growth of wild-type S. sanguinis and zinc transporter mutants with P. aeruginosa 791 (expressed as CFU/mI) in media with or without addition of zinc at the indicated concentration. 792 Statistical significance was assessed by one-way ANOVA with a Turkey's multiple comparison, 793 and different letters indicates statistically significant differences (P < 0.05). Identical letters 794 indicate no significant difference. In this and all subsequent panels, the SSA designation 795 indicates the wild-type gene, while the Ssx designation indicates a mutation in that gene, using 796 the convention reported in the original description of these mutant strains (55). (B) 797 Complementation assays with the zinc transporter mutant strains. Significant differences in growth compared to the uncomplemented vector control are indicated (*, P < 0.05; **, P < 798 799 0.01, Student's t-test). (C) Growth of indicated S. sanguinis strains with P. aeruginosa on CF 800 airway cells in the presence or absence of 1 µM zinc. Statistical significance was determined

by one-way ANOVA with a Turkey's multiple comparison. Different letters indicates statistically significant differences (P < 0.05). Identical letters indicate no significant difference. (D) Growth of indicated *S. sanguinis* strains in monoculture on CF airway cells in the presence or absence of 1 μ M zinc. Data are representative of three experiments performed in triplicate, and none of the differences are significant.

806 Figure 4. S. sanguinis zinc transporter genes are upregulated in the presence of P. 807 aeruginosa. (A) Relative mRNA expression of S. sanguinis zinc transporter genes in 808 monoculture and coculture with P. aeruginosa at 2 h and 6 h. The relative mRNA expression 809 was measured using qRT-PCR, normalized to the expression of the gyrA control, and calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method setting the value of SK36 (2 h) as one. (B) Relative 810 811 expression of S. sanguinis zinc transporter genes at 6 h in monoculture and coculture with P. 812 aeruginosa with or without zinc (1 µM) supplementation. Error bars represent deviations of the 813 means. ANOVA with Turkey's multiple comparison test was used for statistical analysis (**, P 814 < 0.01).

815 Figure 5. Analysis of zinc transporter mutants. (A-C) Growth of S. sanguinis SK36 with P. 816 aeruginosa PAO1 wild type and indicated mutant strains in coculture. The strains tested carry 817 deletion mutations in the cntl (A), znuA (B) and cntl-O (C) genes of P. aeruginosa PAO1. (D-E) Growth of S. sanguinis SK36 (D) and P. aeruginosa wild-type and ∆zurA mutants (E) in 818 819 coculture assays in MEM (no added zinc) or with 10 µM of added zinc. ANOVA with Turkey's 820 multiple comparison test was used for statistical analysis (**, P < 0.01) in panel D. There were 821 no significant differences in panel E. SK36, S. sanguinis SK36 and PAO1, P. aeruginosa 822 PAO1.

823 Figure 6. The relationship between sputum zinc concentration and the relative

abundance of *Streptococcus* and *Pseudomonas*. The relative abundance of

825 Streptococcus (orange dots, left Y axis) and Pseudomonas (blue dots, right Y axis) in each

sputum sample (indicated as a fraction of 100%) is plotted versus the concentration of zinc in

the corresponding sample (expressed as μ M zinc on the X-axis). Total zinc was measured by ICP-MS analysis of nitrate acid-dissolved samples and normalized to the volume of the sample.

830 Figure 7. Impact of zinc level on viability of *Streptococcus* in monoculture and

831 coculture with *Pseudomonas*. Growth of the indicated streptococci (expressed as CFU/ml)

- 832 when grown in monoculture (A) or coculture with *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 (B) at the indicated
- 833 concentration of supplemented zinc chloride. The 0 addition has only the zinc present in the
- medium (0.024 \pm 0.007 μ M). The other zinc additions were based on the data shown in Fig. S5
- and indicate the lowest (4.7 μ M), median (36.4 μ M) and highest concentration (145 μ M) of zinc
- found in the 118 sputum samples analysed. Statistical significance was determined by
- 837 one-way ANOVA with a Turkey's multiple comparison. Different letters indicates statistically
- significant differences (P < 0.05). Identical letters indicate no significant difference.

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