Pseudomonas aeruginosa Can Inhibit Growth of Streptococcal Species 1 2 via Iron Sequestration 3 Jessie E. Scott<sup>1</sup>, Laura M. Filkins<sup>1,&</sup>, Joseph D. Schwartzman<sup>2</sup> and George A. O'Toole<sup>1,\*</sup> 4 5 6 7 <sup>1</sup>Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Geisel School of Medicine at Dartmouth, 8 Hanover, NH 03755 9 <sup>2</sup>Department of Pathology, Dartmouth-Hitchcock Medical Center, Lebanon, NH 03756 10 <sup>&</sup>Current address: University of Utah, Department of Pathology, Salt Lake City, 84108 11 12 13 14 \*To whom correspondence should be addressed: 15 Rm 202 Remsen Building 16 66 College Street 17 Geisel School of Medicine at Dartmouth 18 Hanover, NH 03755 19 Phone: (603) 650-1248 (office) 20 georgeo@Dartmouth.edu 21 22 Key words: Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Streptococcus, cystic fibrosis, biofilm, polymicrobial 23 Running title: P. aeruginosa-Streptococcus interactions

#### **Abstract**

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Cystic Fibrosis (CF) is a genetic disease that causes patients to accumulate thick. dehydrated mucus in the lung and develop chronic, polymicrobial infections due to reduced mucociliary clearance. These chronic polymicrobial infections and subsequent decline in lung function are significant factors in the morbidity and mortality of CF. Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Streptococcus spp. are among the most prevalent pathogens in the CF lung; the presence of *P. aeruginosa* correlates with lung function decline and the Streptococcus milleri group (SMG) is associated with exacerbations in CF patients. Here we characterize the interspecies interactions that occur between these two genera. We demonstrated that multiple P. aeruginosa laboratory strains and clinical CF isolates promote the growth of multiple SMG strains and oral Streptococci in an in vitro coculture system. We investigated the mechanism by which P. aeruginosa enhances growth of streptococci by screening for mutants of P. aeruginosa PA14 unable to enhance Streptococcus growth, and we identified the P. aeruginosa pgsL::TnM mutant, which failed to promote growth of S. constellatus and S. sanguinis. Characterization of the *P. aeruginosa*  $\Delta pqsL$  mutant revealed that this strain cannot promote Streptococcus growth. Our genetic data and growth studies support a model whereby the *P. aeruginosa* Δ*pqsL* mutant outcompetes *Streptococcus* sanguinis for limited iron. We propose a model whereby competition for iron represents one important means of interaction between *P. aeruginosa* and *Streptococcus* spp.

# **Importance**

Cystic fibrosis (CF) lung infections are increasingly recognized for their polymicrobial nature. These polymicrobial infections could alter the biology of the organisms involved in CF-related infections, leading to changes in growth or virulence and could affect patient health. In this study, we demonstrate interactions between *P. aeruginosa* and streptococci using a coculture model, and demonstrate that one interaction between these microbes is likely competition for iron. Thus, these data indicate that one CF pathogen may influence the growth of another. This study adds to our limited knowledge of polymicrobial interactions.

## Introduction

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Cystic fibrosis (CF) is a genetic disease caused by a defect in the cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (1), which leads to reduced mucociliary clearance in the lungs of these patients (2). Due to the reduced mucociliary clearance, bacteria colonize the lungs of patients with CF and establish chronic, polymicrobial infections that cause increased inflammation and respiratory function decline (2). Recent studies have demonstrated that the microbiota in the lungs form polymicrobial biofilms, and that mixed bacterial biofilm populations can affect antibiotic tolerance and bacterial virulence (3, 4). The Streptococcus milleri group (SMG), which is composed of three species (S. anginosus, S. constellatus, and S. intermedius) has been isolated from sputum samples of patients with CF. When these microbes are the numerically dominant species in the lung, these organisms correlate with exacerbation in patients with CF (5–8). In contrast, previous research from our laboratory (9) and a second group (10) demonstrated that increased relative abundance of Streptococcus spp. within the CF lung microbiome correlates with better lung function and clinical stability. Together these data indicate a possible complex relationship between Streptococcus spp. and the host, and Streptococcus spp. and the other microbes in the CF airway. Pseudomonas aeruginosa becomes the dominant microorganism in the lungs of ~45% of adults patients with CF (11), is cultured from >80% of these patients (12), and is the dominant microbe in the lung at end stage disease (13). Both P. aeruginosa and streptococci have been found to co-colonize CF patients (5–8, 14), but the polymicrobial interactions that occur between these organisms are not well studied. Previous studies

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investigating interactions between P. aeruginosa and Streptococcus spp. demonstrated that Streptococcus spp. can influence production of P. aeruginosa virulence factors such as rhamnolipids, elastase, and phenazines (15–19) and can suppress P. aeruginosa growth through hydrogen peroxide production (15) and subsequent reactive nitrogenous intermediates (20, 21). Conversely, P. aeruginosa was found to influence the growth (15, 17, 19, 22) and biofilm formation (22, 23) of *Streptococcus* spp. Work from our lab demonstrated that *P. aeruginosa* PA14 produces the surfactants βhydroxyalkanoyl-β-hydroxyalkanoic acids (HAAs) and monorhamnolipids which caused a 6-fold reduction in S. constellatus 7155 biofilm formation in coculture (22). The surfactant-induced biofilm suppression was relieved when P. aeruginosa and S. constellatus 7155 were cocultured in the presence of tobramycin, an antibiotic used for maintenance therapy by patients with CF. We determined that tobramycin suppressed P. aeruginosa production of HAAs and monorhamnolipids, and that in the presence of tobramycin, P. aeruginosa can enhance S. constellatus 7155 growth on a CF-derived bronchial epithelial cell (CFBE) monolayer (22). These data indicate that P. aeruginosa can both positively and negatively impact cocultured microbes, including Streptococcus spp., and the interaction between the microbes can be influenced by environmental context. In this study, we investigate the ability of *P. aeruginosa* to influence Streptococcus growth in our in vitro coculture system. We demonstrate that multiple P. aeruginosa strains and clinical isolates can enhance the growth of multiple Streptococcus spp. We used a candidate genetic approach and a genetic screen to identify P. aeruginosa mutants that were unable to support Streptococcus growth, and

found a single mutant of P. aeruginosa that no longer enhances growth of streptococci. We found that the P. aeruginosa  $\Delta pqsL$  mutant suppressed S. sanguinis growth, likely via a mechanism that involves iron sequestration. These data indicate that competition for iron can impact this polymicrobial interaction.

### Results

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P. aeruginosa promotes streptococcal growth in a coculture system. We reported previously that P. aeruginosa can enhance viable S. constellatus 7155 cell number when grown as a coculture on CF-derived bronchial epithelial (CFBE) cells (22). We first sought to recapitulate the finding that *P. aeruginosa* promotes the *Streptococcus* biofilm population by using the model organism S. sanguinis SK36 in coculture conditions in the absence of CFBE cells. We used P. aeruginosa PAO1 and S. sanguinis SK36 for these experiments because both are sequenced strains (24–26) with available genetic mutant libraries (27–29). This simplified coculture system allowed us to test the interaction between P. aeruginosa and Streptococci without confounding factors contributed by the CFBE cells. To test the hypothesis that *S. sanguinis* SK36 viable cell number increases in coculture with P. aeruginosa PAO1 in absence of CFBE cells, we grew P. aeruginosa PAO1 and S. sanguinis SK36 in coculture in the wells of a plastic culture dish. We observed that the number of viable S. sanguinis SK36 in a biofilm was enhanced 100-1055-fold by coculture with *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 compared to *S. sanguinis* SK36 grown as a monoculture (Fig. 1A, see also Fig. S1A). P. aeruginosa PAO1 biofilm growth was not significantly affected by coculture with S. sanguinis SK36 (Fig. S1B). These data indicate that the enhancement of S. sanguinis SK36 populations in a biofilm by P. aeruginosa PAO1 does not require the CFBE cells.

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P. aeruginosa enhances growth of S. sanguinis SK36. We considered two models of polymicrobial interaction that may be enhancing viable, S. sanguinis SK36 cells in the biofilm when grown in co-culture with P. aeruginosa. P. aeruginosa might promote Streptococcus adhesion and biofilm formation, or P. aeruginosa may promote streptococcal growth. To distinguish between these models, we conducted a time course experiment with P. aeruginosa PA14, P. aeruginosa PAO1, and S. sanguinis SK36. If *P. aeruginosa* was promoting adhesion of *S. sanguinis* SK36 cells rather than growth, we predict that we would detect more S. sanguinis SK36 in the biofilm and fewer planktonic cells, but total c ell number is not increased compared to S. sanguinis SK36 monoculture. In contrast, if *P. aeruginosa* were enhancing *S. sanguinis* SK36 growth, then both total biofilm and planktonic S. sanguinis SK36 populations should increase in coculture compared to S. sanguinis SK36 monoculture. As demonstrated by the increased S. sanguinis SK36 biofilm and planktonic cells recovered from coculture compared to monoculture, P. aeruginosa appears to promote the growth of S. sanguinis SK36 (Fig. 1B and Fig. S2A and S2B), thus accounting for the increased population of S. sanguinis SK36 biofilm cells. Multiple P. aeruginosa strains enhance the growth of multiple streptococci. Based on current evidence that multiple Streptococcus species inhabit the CF lung (30, 31) and influence patient health (5–10, 14), we sought to determine whether the observed enhancement of Streptococcus viable counts in coculture with P. aeruginosa may be more broadly generalized to other streptococci, including the Streptococcus milleri group (SMG), which has been implicated in CF-related exacerbations (5–8). To assess

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the ability of *P. aeruginosa* to promote multiple *Streptococcus* spp., we cocultured *P.* aeruginosa PAO1 with 6 SMG isolates and 8 oral Streptococcus spp. Figure 1C depicts a representative strain of each streptococcal species assayed, and shows the biofilm population obtained from monoculture and coculture with *P. aeruginosa* PAO1, respectively (see Fig. S3A for all 14 strains tested). P. aeruginosa PAO1 growth was not significantly affected by coculture with any of the *Streptococcus* spp. tested (Fig. S3B). We found that P. aeruginosa PAO1 significantly enhanced the growth of one of the two S. anginosus, two of two S. intermedius, and neither of the two S. constellatus strains tested. Additionally, of the oral Streptococcus spp. tested, P. aeruginosa PAO1 significantly promoted the growth of one of the two S. oralis, the one S. parasanguinis, and one of the three S. salivarius isolates, but not the S. pneumoniae or S. peroris isolates tested (Fig. 1C and Fig. S3A). While not every Streptococcus isolate tested demonstrated significant increase in viable population recovered from the coculture, most species tested exhibited a trend toward increased growth when cocultured with P. aeruginosa PAO1. These coculture data suggest that P. aeruginosa may be promoting Streptococcus growth through a pathway that affects many Streptococcus species. Next we assessed whether multiple *P. aeruginosa* clinical and laboratory strains could promote the growth of S. sanguinis. Additionally, given that S. parasanguinis was found to bind extracellular alginate produced by mucoid P. aeruginosa strains (23), we tested whether mucoid or nonmucoid P. aeruginosa could better promote growth in our coculture system. We cocultured S. sanguinis SK36 with seven nonmucoid P. aeruginosa and four mucoid P. aeruginosa laboratory and clinical strains, and observed a significant growth enhancement of S. sanguinis SK36 by ten out of eleven P.

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aeruginosa strains tested in coculture biofilms (Fig. 1D) and planktonic growth (Fig. S4A). The growth of all tested *P. aeruginosa* strains was not affected by coculture with S. sanguinis SK36 (Fig. S4B, S4C). Additionally, P. aeruginosa PAO1 (parental) and P. aeruginosa PDO300 mucA22 are isogenic nonmucoid and mucoid strains, respectively. We found a significant enhancement in viable S. sanguinis SK36 biofilm cells recovered from coculture with P. aeruginosa PDO300 mucA22 compared to P. aeruginosa PAO1, suggesting that mucoid *P. aeruginosa* strains may better enhance *Streptococcus* growth. Additionally, these mucoid P. aeruginosa strains showed among the most robust promotion of viable counts when cocultured with Streptococcus. In summary, we have demonstrated that our minimal medium coculture assay using a plastic substratum can recapitulate our prior observation that *P. aeruginosa* promotes streptococcal growth. We were able to determine that P. aeruginosa is likely promoting Streptococcus growth rather than increasing the biofilm population via enhanced adherence. The *Streptococcus* growth-enhancement phenotype occurred among most oral Streptococci tested, and the majority of P. aeruginosa clinical and laboratory strains are capable of promoting Streptococcus growth, which lends support to the idea that these interactions are common among these two genera. Known *P. aeruginosa* virulence pathways are not involved in the *Streptococcus* growth-promoting phenotype. P. aeruginosa has many well characterized virulence factors that have been demonstrated to impact polymicrobial interactions, including pathways for quorum sensing (32), biofilm formation, and the production of secreted

molecules such as phenazines (33, 34), siderophores (3, 35), alginate (36), and rhamnolipids (22). We hypothesized that one or more of these virulence factors might be altering *Streptococcus* growth in our system. To test this idea, we utilized a candidate genetic approach to assess whether any of these virulence pathways may be involved in the observed growth-enhancing phenotype. We cocultured *P. aeruginosa* PA14 mutants in each of the above pathways with *S. constellatus* 7155 as a model streptococcal strain know to positively respond to *P. aeruginosa* growth enhancement (22), and assessed whether any of these mutants lost the ability to enhance *S. constellatus* 7155 growth. We found that none of the pathways tested were involved in enhancement of *S. constellatus* 7155 growth (Table S1).

We also constructed *P. aeruginosa* PA14 \( \Delta katA, \texttt{ \texttt{AkatB}}\), and \( \Delta katAkatB\) mutant strains in order to test the hypothesis that extracellular *P. aeruginosa* catalase is enhancing *S. sanguinis* SK36 growth by breaking down hydrogen peroxide produced by *S. sanguinis* SK36 given that KatA has been found in the supernatant of *P. aeruginosa* cultures (37–39). It has previously been reported that *S. sanguinis* and other oral streptococci can inhibit *P. aeruginosa* growth through hydrogen peroxide production (15, 20, 21), and that the hydrogen peroxide produced by oral streptococci plays an important role in growth inhibition, eDNA release, and biofilm formation within the oral microbiome (reviewed in 40 and 41). We chose to mutate the *katA* and *katB* genes and not the *katE* gene because previous reports indicate that KatA is the major catalase utilized by *P. aeruginosa*, and that KatB can partially recover hydrogen peroxide resistance in the absence of KatA (37, 42). Meanwhile, KatE was not demonstrated to play a role in alleviating hydrogen peroxide stress (42). *S. sanguinis* SK36 did not

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demonstrate reduced growth in coculture with the P. aeruginosa PA14 \( \Delta katA, \( \Delta katB, \) or  $\triangle katA \triangle katB$  mutant strains compared to wild-type *P. aeruginosa* PA14, indicating that catalase is not playing a role in the *Streptococcus* growth enhancement phenotype (Fig. S5A). The P. aeruginosa \( \Delta katA \) mutant displays a slight, significant growth defect in the coculture compared to *P. aeruginosa* PA14 in coculture, and the \( \Delta katB \) mutant displays a modest, but significant growth defect in monoculture compared to P. aeruginosa PA14 in coculture (Fig. S5B). Taken together, these data suggest known virulence factors, on their own, do not contribute to P. aeruginosa-mediated growth enhancement of Streptococcus spp. Screening the *P. aeruginosa* PA14NR Set for *P. aeruginosa* PA14 transposon insertion mutant strains that do not support S. constellatus growth. The Ausubel lab reported a nonredundant library of P. aeruginosa PA14 transposon insertion mutants (PA14NR Set) (43). The PA14NR Set contains 5,459 transposon insertion mutant strains with mutations in 4,596 genes. Each of these *P. aeruginosa* PA14 transposon mutant strains was tested in coculture with *S. constellatus* 7155 (Fig. 2A). Of the 5,459 mutant strains in the library, 48 strains were unable to promote S. constellatus 7155 growth in two replicate experiments (Table S2). Two of these 48 mutants were eliminated when we tested available deletion mutants as they did not recapitulate the phenotype of the transposon mutation (not shown). The remaining 46 transposon mutants (Table S2) were tested in our standard coculture with S. sanguinis SK36 to determine which *P. aeruginosa* PA14 transposon mutants are unable to enhance Streptococcus growth in a second strain. 44 of the 46 P. aeruginosa PA14

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transposon mutants were capable of enhancing growth of S. sanguinis SK36, and thus were unlikely involved in a general pathway for enhancing growth of Streptococcus. We found that two transposon mutants were unable to promote either S. constellatus 7155 or S. sanguinis SK36 growth: P. aeruginosa pgsL::TnM and P. aeruginosa dbpA::TnM. The dbpA gene codes for the RNA helicase DbpA, which has been demonstrated to play a role in the formation of the 50S ribosomal subunit in Escherichia coli (reviewed in 44). E. coli is able to compensate for  $\triangle dbpA$  deletions in forming the 50S ribosomal subunit, as described previously (45). An inability to form the 50S ribosomal subunit would otherwise cause a lethal protein synthesis defect, and a dominant negative dbpA mutant strain is necessary to observe a defect in DbpA function. We built and assayed the *P. aeruginosa* PA14  $\triangle dbpA$  mutant strain and found no significant defect in *S.* sanguinis SK36 growth enhancement (Fig. S6A) or in *P. aeruginosa* growth (Fig. S6B), and thus did not pursue further study of this mutant. We previously studied the effects of the *Pseudomonas* quinolone signal pathway (pgs) on interactions between P. aeruginosa and Staphylococcus aureus, including the utilization of 2-heptyl-4-hydroxyquinoline-N-oxide (HQNO), a respiratory chain inhibitor, to drive S. aureus to fermentative metabolism (3, 35, 36). As was observed for S. constellatus 7155, there was a significant reduction in the ability of P. aeruginosa pgsL::TnM mutant to support S. sanguinis SK36 growth compared to the wild-type P. aeruginosa PA14 (Fig. 2B). There was no detectable growth defect of the pgsL::TnM mutant strain compared to wild-type P. aeruginosa PA14 in our assay condition (Fig. S7). We chose to focus on the *P. aerugionsa pgsL::TnM* mutant for the remainder of our study.

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The P. aeruginosa \( \Delta pgsL \) mutant has a defect in Streptococcus growth enhancement. The PQS pathway involves the production of multiple 4-hydroxy-2alkylquinolones (HAQs) and begins with anthranilic acid, which is converted to intermediates of unknown structure by the enzymes PgsA and PgsD (Fig. 3A). These unknown intermediates can then be converted into HQNO by PqsL, our gene of interest, or 4-hydroxy-2-heptylquinoline (HHQ) by PqsB and PqsC. HHQ can then be converted into 3,4-dihydroxy-2-heptylquinoline (PQS) by PqsH (46–48). MvfR (also known as PgsR) is the transcriptional regulator that is activated by HHQ and PQS and positively regulates the transcription of operons involved in PQS, LasR, and RhIR guorum sensing pathways, as well as the operons required for production of the siderophores pyoverdine and pyochelin (49, 50). MvfR/PgsR and PQS have also been demonstrated to indirectly increase expression of the phenazine pyocyanin (49). We considered two different mechanisms that could explain why the growth of S. sanguinis SK36 is no longer promoted by coculture with the P. aeruginosa PA14 pgsL::TnM. We hypothesized that either the pgsL::TnM strain may no longer be able to promote S. sanguinis SK36 growth, or the loss of PqsL function resulted in a P. aeruginosa strain that reduced S. sanguinis SK36 viability. To distinguish between these hypotheses, we assessed the Streptococcus growth enhancement capabilities of P. aeruginosa PA14 deletion mutants in the pgs pathway when grown in coculture with S. sanguinis SK36. We found that the  $\triangle pqsL$  mutant was the only mutant in the pqspathway that was unable to promote S. sanguinis SK36 growth (Fig. 3B and Fig. S8A

for *S. sanguinis* SK36 planktonic growth, Fig. S8B-C for *P. aeruginosa* biofilm and planktonic growth).

We complemented the  $\Delta pqsL$  strain with an arabinose inducible pMQ72-pqsL construct and demonstrated a significant increase in viable *S. sanguinis* SK36 biofilm cells recovered when the complemented strain was induced with 0.2% arabinose (Fig. 3C and Fig. S9A for planktonic growth); there was no significant difference between wild-type *P. aeruginosa* PA14 and the complemented  $\Delta pqsL/pMQ72-pqsL$  strain. Additionally, there was no significant difference in *P. aeruginosa* biofilm and planktonic growth in medium amended with 0.2% arabinose, the inducer of the expression for the P<sub>BAD</sub> promoter on the pMQ72 plasmid (Fig. S9B-C).

Additionally, we assayed the P. aeruginosa  $\Delta pqsL$  mutant strain in coculture with a few representative Streptococcus spp. from Fig. 1B to determine if the  $\Delta pqsL$  mutant strain has a broad defect in Streptococcus growth enhancement (Fig. 3D). We found that for S. intermedius 4807, there was a slight but nonsignificant growth decrease during coculture with P. aeruginosa  $\Delta pqsL$ , indicating that the mutant strain is unable to enhance Streptococcus growth. Similarly, we saw a nonsignificant decrease in S. parasanguinis 5357 growth in coculture with the  $\Delta pqsL$  mutant compared to wild-type P. aeruginosa PA14. We did observe a significant decrease in S. anginosus 5535 cells recovered from the coculture with the  $\Delta pqsL$  mutant strain compared to monoculture and coculture conditions with P. aeruginosa PA14, indicating that the  $\Delta pqsL$  mutation is contributing to the repression of the growth of S. anginosus 5535. We found that both wild-type P. aeruginosa PA14 and the  $\Delta pqsL$  mutant strain caused a nonsignificant reduction in S. intermedius 7155 cells recovered from coculture, indicating that both of

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these *P. aeruginosa* strains may be able to outcompete *S. intermedius* 7155. We saw no significant changes to P. aeruginosa growth while in coculture with these representative *Streptococcus* spp. (Fig. S10). The P. aeruginosa ApgsL mutant likely suppresses S. sanguinis SK36 growth via iron sequestration. It has been demonstrated previously that a pqsL mutant is deficient in HQNO production and overproduces PQS (47). Exogenous PQS has been demonstrated to chelate iron and to increase the expression of the genes coding for siderophore and phenazine biosynthesis enzymes in *P. aeruginosa* (51–53). Thus, we hypothesized that it was the increased production of PQS and/or increased expression of one or more PQS-regulated genes that caused the observed loss in growth promotion of *S. sanguinis* SK36. To test our hypothesis, we assayed *S. sanguinis* SK36 in coculture with the ΔpqsL mutant strains deficient in production of the virulence factors regulated by PQS: siderophores ( $\triangle pqsL\triangle pvdA\triangle pchE$ ) and phenazines ( $\triangle pqsL\triangle phzA-G1/2$ ) (49, 51–53). We found that the *P. aeruginosa*  $\triangle pqsL\triangle pvdA\triangle pchE$  deletion mutant strain restored *S.* sanguinis SK36 growth enhancement to levels similar to wild-type P. aeruginosa PA14 (Fig. 4A) without affecting *P. aeruginosa* growth (Fig. S11). In contrast, the *P.* aeruginosa ∆pgsL∆phzA-G1/2 mutant did not restore S. sanguinis SK36 growth (Fig. 4A, Fig. S11). One prediction of this iron sequestration model is that iron supplementation should restore the *Streptococcus* enhancing activity of the *P. aeruginosa*  $\Delta pqsL$  mutant. We added 50µM FeCl<sub>3</sub> to our minimal medium coculture conditions and saw restoration

of *S. sanguinis* SK36 growth enhancement 6 out of 18 times. We explored this phenotype using different FeCl<sub>3</sub> concentrations, making a fresh FeCl<sub>3</sub> solution daily, using buffered media in our assay and when making the FeCl<sub>3</sub> stock solution, but the phenotype was still variable. We do not fully understand why the iron rescue phenotype was so variable. We measured the iron levels of the medium used in our coculture conditions (MEM) using ICP/MS and showed that the concentration of iron is below the limit of detection (<5 ppb), so it is plausible that the streptococci are iron limited in our coculture conditions.

Next, we tested the idea that coculture in anaerobic conditions would also lead to recovery of the *Streptococcus* growth promotion phenotype in the  $\Delta pqsL$  mutant, because P. aeruginosa has been demonstrated to reduce pyoverdine and pyochelin production in anoxic conditions (54). Upon anaerobic coculture in an AnaeroPak-Anaero container with a GasPak satchet, the P.  $aeruginosa \Delta pqsL$  mutant significantly enhanced S. sanguinis SK36 viability compared to coculture under aerobic conditions (Fig. 4B and Fig. S12A). The level of S. sanguinis growth enhancement promoted by the P.  $aeruginosa \Delta pqsL$  mutant in anaerobic conditions was equivalent to that observed for the WT P. aeruginosa. Additionally, if P. aeruginosa were enhancing S. sanguinis SK36 growth solely through oxygen consumption, we would expect to see enhanced S. sanguinis growth in monoculture under anaerobic conditions, which we do not observe here.

We note that *P. aeruginosa* biofilm and planktonic growth were decreased under the anaerobic growth conditions used in these experiments compared to what we typically observe under aerobic conditions (Fig. S12B-C), which is not surprising given

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that aerobic respiration is the main means of energy generation for this microbe. Together, these data indicate that wild-type *P. aeruginosa* is contributing to the growth S. sanguinis SK36 via a mechanism independent of oxygen consumption in our coculture system, and are consistent with our hypothesis that reduced siderophore production under anaerobic conditions mitigates the phenotype of the  $\Delta pqsL$  mutant. An iron ABC transporter of S. sanguinis SK36 participates in competition with P. aeruginosa. Our data suggest that one component of the interaction between P. aeruginosa and Streptococcus spp. is the competition for iron. The genome of S. sanguinis SK36 has been sequenced and annotated, and using this information we identified several gene products that, based on their annotation, might be involved in iron uptake. We predicted that if S. sanguinis SK36 is indeed competing with P. aeruginosa for iron, loss of one or more of these iron uptake system would compromise the ability of S. sanguinis SK36 to grow in coculture with P. aeruginosa. Given that the ΔpqsL mutant likely has an enhanced capacity to scavenge iron as indicated by the restoration of S. sanguinis SK36 growth enhancement by the ΔpqsLΔpvdAΔpchE mutant, any compromise observed for S. sanguinis SK36 iron acquisition mutants should be exacerbated in coculture with P. aeruginosa  $\triangle pqsL$ . Xu and colleagues reported a mutant library of S. sanguinis SK36 wherein nonessential genes are deleted and replaced with a kanamycin resistance cassette (27, 28). Using this library, we examined whether selected *S. sanguinis* SK36 mutant strains lacking genes involved in iron uptake (Table 1) have reduced growth in the presence of wild-type *P. aeruginosa* PA14 or the *P. aeruginosa* Δ*pqsL* strain. We tested *S. sanguinis* 

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SK36 strains carrying mutations in genes coding for iron regulatory proteins, an ironbinding lipoprotein, a ferrichrome-binding protein, and predicted iron-uptake ABC transporters using the coculture assay. We found that all of the mutant strains tested behaved like wild-type S. sanguinis SK36 in coculture, except for the S. sanguinis SK36 Ssx 1742 and Ssx 1744 mutant strains (Fig. 4C and S13A). The SSA 1742 gene codes for a predicted ferrichrome-binding protein and the SSA\_1744 gene codes for a predicted permease protein of an iron compound ABC transporter. The S. sanguinis SK36 Ssx 1742 and Ssx 1744 mutant strains demonstrated reduced growth in monoculture conditions, 6.5-fold and 6.9-fold respectively, indicating that they may be iron starved in our minimal medium growth conditions (Fig. 4C). This iron starvation phenotype is exacerbated in coculture with wild-type P. aeruginosa PA14 with a 44.9-fold reduction in Ssx 1742 cells and a 5.5-fold reduction in Ssx 1744 cells obtained from coculture compared to wild-type S. sanguinis SK36 coculture. In coculture with the *P. aeruginosa*  $\Delta pqsL$  mutant strain, there is a significant, 4.9-fold reduction in Ssx\_1742 cells compared to wild-type S. sanguinis SK36 in coculture with the  $\triangle pqsL$  mutant. Importantly, coculture of the S. sanguinis SK36 Ssx\_1744 mutant strain showed no additional, significant growth defect when grown in coculture with the P. aeruginosa \( \Delta pqsL \) mutant compared to the WT P. aeruginosa strain. We take this result to mean that the increased iron sequestration by the  $\Delta pqsL$ 

mutant is competing for the iron typically transported by the S. sanguinis SK36

Ssx\_1744-encoded iron ABC transporter; thus loss of Ssx\_1744 confers no additional

phenotype when cocultured with the *P. aeruginosa* PA14  $\triangle pqsL$  mutant. Finally, we

- observed no significant difference in P. aeruginosa PA14 and the  $\Delta pqsL$  mutant strain
- growing in coculture with *S. sanguinis* SK36 mutant strains (Fig. S13B and S13C).

### **Discussion**

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In this study, we sought to characterize a polymicrobial interaction that occurs between P. aeruginosa and Streptococcus spp. We previously demonstrated that P. aeruginosa can suppress S. constellatus 7155 biofilms through surfactant production, and that this suppression can be alleviated through treatment with the CF maintenance antibiotic, tobramycin (22). Our current work adds to our understanding of *P. aeruginosa*  Streptococcus interactions by demonstrating the widespread ability of multiple P. aeruginosa clinical isolates from CF patients and laboratory strains to enhance the growth of multiple species of Streptococcus. To better understand the basis of the ability of P. aeruginosa to promote the growth of Streptococcus spp., we screened P. aeruginosa transposon insertion mutants to identify factors that contribute to the ability of P. aeruginosa to enhance growth of S. constellatus - we identified 46 candidate mutants. Following up on these mutants, we identified only one strain carrying a mutation in the pqsL gene that has a consistent, reduced Streptococcus spp. growth enhancement phenotype versus multiple species of *Streptococcus*. Upon further investigation we revealed that this mutant no longer promotes Streptococcus growth because the P. aeruginosa ApgsL mutant strain likely actively competes with Streptococcus for iron. Loss of PgsL function has been reported to enhance PQS production (47), excess PQS has been demonstrated to enhance siderophore biosynthesis gene transcription (51–53), and PQS-mediated iron sequestration by P. aeruginosa has been demonstrated to reduce growth of both gram positive and gram negative soil bacteria (32). This PQS-mediated growth inhibition of soil bacterial growth can be restored upon addition of 50µM FeCl<sub>3</sub> (32). Similarly, our data show the ability to

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restore *Streptococcus* growth by introducing mutations in the siderophore genes to the  $\Delta pqsL$  mutant or by growing the cocultures anaerobically, a growth condition where P. aeruginosa is known to reduce pyoverdine and pyochelin production (54). We cannot rule out that the increased siderophore production in the  $\Delta pqsL$  mutant impacts production of reactive oxygen species that may be toxic to *Streptococcus* spp.; the fact that growth of the  $\Delta pqsL$  mutant under anaerobic conditions reverses its phenotype is consistent with this idea.

An interesting observation from this study was the demonstration of a significant increase in S. sanguinis SK36 biofilm growth between an isogenic nonmucoid and mucoid P. aeruginosa PAO1 strain (Fig. 1D). Previous work demonstrated that S. parasanguinis is able to use the streptococcal surface adhesin BapA1 to bind alginate produced by mucoid *P. aeruginosa* and enhance *S. parasanguinis* biofilm formation in vitro, however S. gordonii and S. sanguinis SK36 did not demonstrate enhanced biofilm formation (23). Here we demonstrate a significant growth increase of S. sanguinis SK36 when in coculture with P. aeruginosa PDO300 mucA22 compared to the isogenic nonmucoid strain. It is possible that S. sanguinis SK36 can also bind to alginate. Alternatively, we hypothesize that the growth enhancement induced by the mucoid P. aeruginosa strain may be due to decreased rhamnolipid production that has been described in mucoid strains (36) and the corresponding relief of rhamnolipid-induced Streptococcus killing (22). Furthermore, mucoid strains were shown to produce lower levels of products of the PQS pathway and reduced levels of siderophores (36). Thus, Streptococcus spp. may more readily co-exist, and perhaps grow to larger numbers, in patients with mucoid *P. aeruginosa*, a question that could be answered by performing a

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clinical study assessing relative levels of *Streptococcus* spp. as a function of mucoid *P.* aeruginosa. Furthermore, these data indicate that the interactions between P. aeruginosa and Streptococcus may change over the lifetime of patients with CF as the colonizing *P. aeruginosa* converts to mucoidy. Oral streptococci have been demonstrated to utilize hydrogen peroxide to inhibit the growth and colonization of competing microorganisms (15, 20, 21, 40), and we hypothesized that *P. aeruginosa* catalase might play a role in enhancing *Streptococcus* growth as catalase has been found in the supernatant of P. aeruginosa cultures (38, 39, 42). However, we found no significant defect in S. sanguinis SK36 growth enhancement by our P. aeruginosa  $\triangle katA$ ,  $\triangle katB$ , and  $\triangle katA \triangle katB$  compared to wild-type P. aeruginosa PA14 indicating that catalase is not the factor produced by P. aeruginosa that is enhancing Streptococcus growth. It has been demonstrated that P. aeruginosa does not secrete catalase and that it is found in the supernatant due P. aeruginosa cell lysis (38) – it may be that catalase found in the supernatant is too dilute to have a positive influence on *Streptococcus* growth in coculture, or that the hydrogen peroxide is not growth limiting to the streptococci in our coculture conditions. Thus, we conclude that *P. aeruginosa* catalase is not influencing *Streptococcus* growth in our model system. It is also worth noting that anaerobic coculture was not sufficient to enhance S. sanguinis SK36 monoculture growth to the same levels achieved during coculture with P. aeruginosa PA14 in aerobic conditions (Fig. 4B). These data indicate that P.

aeruginosa-mediated growth enhancement of streptococci cannot be explained by

oxygen consumption via *P. aeruginosa*.

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To better understand how S. sanguinis SK36 might compete with P. aeruginosa for iron in iron deplete conditions, we examined a set of S. sanguinis SK36 mutants lacking putative iron uptake systems or regulatory genes. Of the nine mutants tested, only two showed reduced growth of S. sanguinis SK36 when in coculture with P. aeruginosa PA14, Ssx 1742 lacking a ferrichrome-binding protein and Ssx 1744 lacking the permease protein of an iron-compound ABC transporter (Fig. 4C and S12). The Ssx\_1742 mutant demonstrated a significant growth defect in monoculture, and during coculture with P. aeruginosa PA14. The growth defect of the Ssx 1742 mutant was worsened when cocultured with the  $\Delta pqsL$  mutant. Together, these data indicate that the Ssx 1742 mutant strain is unable to compete with *P. aeruginosa* for the limited iron in our co-culture conditions, and that the ferrichrome-binding protein encoded by Ssx 1742 is not involved in the competition for this metal with *P. aeruginosa*. In contrast, the Ssx 1744 mutant showed no additional defect when cocultured with the  $\Delta pqsL$  mutant versus the WT *P. aeruginosa*. We take this result to mean that the increased production of the siderophores in the  $\Delta pqsL$  mutant is competing for the iron typically transported by the S. sanguinis SK36 Ssx\_1744-encoded iron ABC transporter; thus loss of Ssx\_1744 confers no additional phenotype when cocultured with the P. aeruginosa PA14 \( \Delta pqsL \) mutant. These data indicate that the Ssx\_1744-encoded iron ABC transporter of S. sanguinis SK36 plays a key role in the competition with P. aeruginosa. Our data support a second mechanism whereby *P. aeruginosa* can limit the growth of Streptococcus spp. (Figure 5), including SMG, via iron sequestration. We previously reported that *P. aeruginosa* rhamnolipid surfactants could reduce the viability

of *S. constellatus*. *P. aeruginosa* can also influence the biofilm formation of *S. parasanguinis* through alginate production (23) and the growth of *Streptococcus* spp. via a currently undescribed mechanisms (15, 17, 22). Conversely, previous studies investigating interactions between *P. aeruginosa* and *Streptococcus* spp. also showed that *Streptococcus* spp. influences transcription of *P. aeruginosa* virulence genes, including rhamnolipids, elastase, and phenazine biosynthesis genes through Al-2 signaling (16) and an undescribed mechanism (15, 17, 18), and can suppress *P. aeruginosa* growth when they are a primary colonizer through production of  $H_2O_2(15, 20)$  and reactive nitrogenous intermediates (20, 21). Thus, this polymicrobial interaction is complex.

Our data also indicate that *P. aeruginosa* can promote the growth of various *Streptococcus* spp., but we do not understand the basis of this growth promotion. We anticipated that the genetic screen described here would likely identify components of such a growth-promoting pathway in *P. aeruginosa*; instead, our screen only identified a single locus apparently involved in a competitive interaction. We suggest two possible explanations for our findings. First, perhaps *P. aeruginosa* determinants that promote *Streptococcus* growth are essential; we think this explanation unlikely, but a formal possibility. More likely is that *P. aeruginosa* has multiple, redundant pathways to boost *Streptococcus* growth. Thus, our genetic approach would be expected to fail to identify such redundant pathways, and alternative strategies to explore *P. aeruginosa-Streptococcus* interactions must be employed in future studies.

Finally, the observations we present here may be of relevance in the CF lung, as many patients are co-colonized by *P. aeruginosa* and *Streptococcus* spp. (9, 55).

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Analysis of the average available iron in the airway varies markedly between ~0.02 μM in healthy individuals and ~8 μM in patients with CF, and there is a great deal of variability within patients with CF (56, 57). The increased iron in the CF airway is likely due to the reported enhanced levels of extracellular iron in the apical surface liquid of airway cells with a mutation in CFTR (58) and the bleeding into the airway (hemoptysis) associated with this patient population (59). Thus, in CF patients, iron levels in the airway can range from concentrations wherein we might expect direct competition between P. aeruginosa and Streptococcus for this limited resource, to levels wherein abundant iron would mitigate such competition. Additional studies are necessary to determine if *Streptococcus* spp. are iron limited (or not) in the CF airway, or in sufficiently close proximity to *P. aeruginosa* in the airway (i.e., in mixed microcolonies) to expect direct competition for iron in a local niche. **Acknowledgements.** We thank Dr. Ping Xu for providing his S. sanguinis SK36 mutant library, and Dr. Deborah Hogan, Dr. Nicholas Jacobs, and Dr. Dominique Limoli for providing bacterial strains. We thank Dr. Brian Jackson for quantifying the iron concentration in our media with ICP/MS. This work was supported by the Cystic Fibrosis Foundation (OTOOLE16GO), Molecular and Cellular Biology at Dartmouth training grant (T32GM008704), the Munck-Pfefferkorn Fund, and NIH (R37 Al83256-06) to G.A.O.

#### **Materials and Methods**

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**Bacterial strains and growth conditions.** Strains used in this study are listed in Supplemental Table S3. P. aeruginosa strains were grown on lysogeny broth (LB) agar or in LB liquid with shaking at 37°C, and where indicated, in the presence of antibiotics at the following concentrations: 25µg/ml gentamicin, 250µg/ml kanamycin, 75µg/ml tetracycline. Streptococcus spp. were grown as previously described (22) on tryptic soy agar supplemented with 5% defibrinated sheep's blood (blood agar) or statically in Todd Hewitt broth supplemented with 0.5% yeast extract (THY) and 20µl/ml oxyrase (Oxyrase, Inc.) at 37°C with 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. S. sanguinis SK36 gene replacement mutant strains were grown on blood agar or THY with 500µg/ml kanamycin (27). At the end of each coculture assay, P. aeruginosa was grown overnight on Pseudomonas Isolation agar (PIA) at 37°C, and Streptococcus spp. were grown overnight on blood agar at 37°C anaerobically in AnaeroPak-Anaero containers (Thermo Fisher) or on blood agar supplemented with 10µg/ml neomycin and 10µg/ml polymixin B (Streptococcus selection agar) when specified. Saccharomyces cerevisiae strain InvSc1 (Invitrogen), was used for homologous recombination to build the pMQ30-katA, pMQ-30-katB, and pMQ30-dbpA deletion vector and pMQ72-pqsL complementation vector. InvSc1 was grown as previously described in 1% Bacto yeast extract, 2% Bacto peptone, and 2% dextrose (60). Synthetic defined agar-uracil (4813-065; Qbiogene) was used for InvSc1 selections.

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Species identification of *Streptococci*. Streptococci were isolated at the Dartmouth Hitchcock Medical Center in Lebanon, NH. Streptococcus clinical isolates were speciated using 16S rRNA gene sequencing. Genomic DNA (gDNA) was extracted from each strain from overnight cultures using the Gentra Puregene Yeast/Bact. Kit (QIAGEN) followed with 16S-ITS PCR as previously described (61) using the Strep16S-1471F and 6R-IGS primers (listed in Table S4). Streptococcus oralis, S. mitis, and S. pneumoniae were further differentiated by PCR of a region of the gdh gene and sequencing as previously described using the Strep-gdhF and Strep-gdhR primers (listed in Table S4) (61). The Phusion Polymerase PCR protocol (New England Biolabs) was followed for preparing 50µl reactions, and the PCR conditions for the 16S-ITS region were: 98°C for 30s followed by 25 cycles of 98°C for 10s, 61°C for 15s, 72°C for 30s, a final extension at 72°C for 7 minutes. The PCR conditions for amplifying gdh were as follows: 98°C for 30s, followed by 30 cycles of 98°C for 10s, 57.9°C for 15s, 72°C for 30s followed by a final extension at 72°C for 7 minutes. The resulting PCR products were imaged on a 1% agarose gel with Sybr Safe (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc.). The remaining PCR reaction was purified using the QIAquick PCR Purification kit (QIAGEN), and the purified DNA product was sequenced at the Dartmouth Molecular Biology Core Facility using the Applied Biosystems 3730 DNA Analyzer. Sequence results were analyzed using NCBI BLAST for species identification. **Mixed microbial coculture system.** Cocultures were conducted as previously described in the CFBE model system (3, 22, 35, 36) with some modifications. Overnight cultures of *P. aeruginosa* and *Streptococcus* spp. were individually centrifuged at

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10,000 x q for 3 minutes, the cell pellet was washed with 1.5 ml minimal essential medium (MEM) supplemented with 2 mM L-glutamine (MEM+L-Gln), centrifuged again, and the cell pellet was resuspended in 1.5 ml MEM+L-Gln. The optical density at 600nm (OD<sub>600</sub>) of each culture was determined and the *P. aeruginosa* cultures were adjusted in MEM+L-Gln to an OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.05. The *Streptococcus* spp. cultures were adjusted to an OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.1. S. sanguinis SK36 overnight cultures were adjusted to an OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.1, then further diluted 1:100 in MEM+L-Gln due to the robust growth S. sanguinis SK36 exhibits in monoculture. A 1:1 mixture of P. aeruginosa and Streptococcus spp. was prepared from the adjusted cultures. Three wells of a 96-well plate were inoculated per monoculture and coculture condition with 100uL per well. The culture plates were then incubated statically for 1 hour at 37°C with 5% CO<sub>2</sub>, at which point the unattached planktonic cells were aspirated with a multichannel pipette and replaced with 100µl MEM supplemented with 2mM L-glutamine and 0.4% L-arginine (MEM+L-Gln+L-Arg). The culture plates were incubated statically for an additional 5.5 hours, at which point the supernatant was removed and replaced with 100µl MEM+L-Gln+L-Arg. At 21 hours post-inoculation, planktonic cells were removed to be plated and biofilms were disrupted using a 96 pin replicator in 100µl of MEM+L-Gln. Both planktonic and biofilm cells were 10-fold serially diluted and plated on selective media. PIA plates were grown overnight aerobically, and blood agar plates were grown overnight in AnaeroPak-Anaero containers (Thermo Scientific) with GasPak satchets (BD) to selectively grow P. aeruginosa and Streptococcus spp., respectively. Following overnight incubation, colonies were counted and the colony forming units (CFU) per milliliter of culture were determined.

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Growth kinetics in mixed microbial coculture system. P. aeruginosa PA14 and PAO1 were grown in coculture with S. sanguinis SK36 as described above, with one 96well plate per time point. Six time points were assessed: 0, 3, 5.5, 7.5, 10, and 24 hours. The 0-hour time point corresponds to the initial inoculum. At each time point, the planktonic and biofilm cells from the same wells were serially diluted and plated on PIA and blood agar. Cells were harvested from the 5.5 hour time point plate prior to the 5.5 hour medium exchange. Construction of *P. aeruginosa* PA14 deletion mutant strains. The pMQ30 vector (Table S3) was used to generate the *P. aeruginosa* PA14  $\triangle katA$ ,  $\triangle katB$ ,  $\triangle katA \triangle katB$ , and  $\triangle dbpA$  mutant strains. The pMQ30-katA, pMQ30-katB, and pMQ30-dbpA deletion constructs were built using homologous recombination of the PCR products made with the respective "KO" primers (listed in Table S4) with the Xba1 restriction enzymedigested pMQ30 in yeast as previously reported (60). Plasmid integrants were isolated on LB agar supplemented with gentimicin and nalidixic acid followed by counterselection on sucrose medium. Deletion mutants were confirmed by PCR with respective "conf." primers (Table S4), followed by sequencing. Coculture was conducted as described above with the confirmed *P. aeruginosa* PA14 deletion mutant strains. Genetic screen. The Ausubel lab created a nonredundant P. aeruginosa PA14 transposon library (PA14NR set) in 96-well plate format (43). Initially, a 96 pin replicator was used to transfer inocula from the frozen library to a sterile 96-well plate containing

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150μl of LB per well. The plate was then incubated statically for 24 hours at 37°C. S. constellatus 7155 frozen aliquots were made from 750µl of overnight culture mixed with 750ul of 40% glycerol. The day of the coculture experiment, frozen S. constellatus 7155 aliquots were thawed and 500µl of aliquot were added to 4.5ml THY cultures with 100µl Oxyrase, and were grown for 6-8h at 37°C with 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. The S. constellatus 7155 culture was then adjusted to an OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.05 in MEM+L-Gln, and 100µl of adjusted culture were added to each well of a sterile 96-well plate. The PA14NR set was grown in LB for 24 hr in a 96 well plate format - each well contained a transposon mutant from the P. aeruginosa PA14NR set. A 96 pin replicator was then used to transfer 2-3µl of culture from the transposon library plate into the plate containing *S. constellatus* 7155. The coculture plates were then incubated statically for 2 hours at 37°C with 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. After 2 hours, the supernatant and unattached bacteria were aspirated using a multichannel pipette and 100μl MEM+L-Gln with 5μg/ml tobramycin to suppress *P.* aeruginosa PA14 rhamnolipid production were added to each well. The plates were then incubated statically for an additional 20 hours at 37°C with 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. At 22 hours post-inoculation, the 96 pin replicator was used to disrupt the biofilms into the supernatant fraction. The 96 pin replicator was then used to spot culture onto large petri plates containing either PIA or *Streptococcus* selection agar. PIA plates were incubated overnight at 37°C, and Streptococcus selection agar plates were incubated for 24 hours at 37°C with 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. In the initial screen, we identified P. aeruginosa mutants that showed low or undetectable S. constellatus 7155 growth. To confirm the phenotype, the candidate *P. aeruginosa* PA14 transposon mutant strain was picked from the PIA plate and grown statically overnight at 37°C in a sterile 96-well plate in 125µl LB. The next

morning, 125µl of 40% glycerol was added to each well containing *P. aeruginosa* PA14 candidate mutants, and these "candidate mutant" plates were stored at -80°C for the next round of screening. For the second round of the screen, the coculture process described above was repeated with the plates containing candidate mutants.

If we had clean deletions of the candidate mutants, they were also tested in the assay above. If the clean deletion did not recapitulate the original transposon mutant, that transposon mutant was eliminated from the list of candidate mutants. Table S2 shows the final list of *P. aeruginosa* PA14 transposon insertion mutant strains that yielded low or undetectable *S. constellatus* 7155 growth after rescreening.

We then tested each individual *P. aeruginosa* PA14 transposon mutant in Table S2 in our standard 96-well coculture assay as described above with *S. sanguinis* SK36. The two mutants that yielded consistently low *S. sanguinis* SK36 growth in our standard coculture are in bold in Table S2.

P. aeruginosa ΔpqsL complementation. The pMQ72 vector (Table S3) with an arabinose-inducible promoter was used to complement the P. aeruginosa PA14 ΔpqsL deletion mutant. The pMQ72-pqsL complementation plasmid was built using homologous recombination of the PCR product made with the pqsL comp 3' and pqsL comp 5' primers (listed in Table S4) with SacI restriction enzyme-digested pMQ72 in yeast as previously reported (60). P. aeruginosa PA14 ΔpqsL/pMQ72-pqsL and P. aeruginosa PA14 ΔpqsL/pMQ72-empty vector control strains were cocultured with S. sanguinis SK36 as described above with the following changes: at 1 and 5.5h post-

inoculation, MEM+L-Gln+L-Arg supplemented with L-arabinose at 0% and 0.2% final concentration was added to the medium to induce pMQ72-pqsL gene expression.

Coculture with 50μM ferric chloride. Coculture was conducted as described above, but with the following changes: at 1 and 5.5 hours post-inoculation, supernatants were aspirated with a multichannel pipette, and replaced with MEM+L-Gln+L-Arg, with or without freshly prepared, filter sterilized 50μM ferric chloride hexahydrate.

Anaerobic coculture. Coculture was conducted as described above, but with the following alterations: once the plates were inoculated, they were incubated in AnaeroPak-Anaero containers with a GasPak satchet. At each medium change (1 hour, 5.5 hours), a new satchet was added to the container to ensure anaerobic coculture conditions. The AnaeroPak container was incubated in the same incubator as the aerobic plate to control for any environmental effects.

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## **Figure Legends**

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Figure 1. P. aeruginosa enhanced growth of Streptococcus spp. in coculture. (A to D) Coculture assays were conducted to investigate streptococcal growth when exposed to P. aeruginosa. (A) S. sanguinis SK36 (Ss) cocultured with P. aeruginosa PAO1. (B) Coculture growth kinetics of *S. sanguinis* with *P. aeruginosa* PA14 were investigated. The time points each represent the average of three biological replicates with three technical replicates. The error bars indicate SD. (C) A representative group of clinical and reference Streptococcus strains were tested in coculture with P. aeruginosa PAO1 (see Fig. S3A for all Streptococcus spp. strains tested). In this panel, each strain is denoted by their strain number, S. anginosus 5535, S. intermedius 4807, S. constellatus 7155, S. parasanguinis ATCC15912, S. pneumoniae D39, S. peroris ATCC700780, S. oralis 7404, and S. salivarius JIM8780. (D) S. sanguinis SK36 was tested in coculture with multiple P. aeruginosa clinical and laboratory strains. (A, C, D) Each column represents the average of three biological replicates with three technical replicates. The error bars indicate the standard deviation. ns, not significant, \*, P < 0.05, \*\*, P < 0.01, and \*\*\*, P < 0.001 by paired two-tailed student's *t*-test (A and C), repeated measures one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey's multiple comparisons posttest (D), and paired two-tailed student's t-test between Ss + PAO1 DHL08 and Ss + PAO1 mucA22 (D). The corresponding graphs depicting *P. aeruginosa* growth in these assays can be found in Figures S1-4.

Figure 2. Screening for *P. aeruginosa* PA14 mutants altered in interaction with

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Streptococcus. (A) An overview of the P. aeruginosa PA14NR Set transposon mutant screen used to identify P. aeruginosa transposon insertion mutants that can no longer enhance S. constellatus 7155 growth, and the number of P. aeruginosa PA14 transposon insertion mutants identified in each step. (B) Coculture between a mutant strain identified in the screen, P. aeruginosa pgsL::TnM, and S. sanguinis SK36. Each bar represents the average of three biological replicates, each with three technical replicates. Error bars represent SD. \*\*, P < 0.01 and \*\*\*, P < 0.001 by repeated measures ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison posttest. P. aeruginosa growth data from this assay can be found in Figure S7. Figure 3. The *P. aeruginosa*  $\Delta pqsL$  mutant inhibits *Streptococcus* growth. (A) The PQS biosynthetic pathway and the enzymes that catalyze each step are shown. (B) Coculture of S. sanguinis SK36 with wild-type P. aeruginosa PA14 and P. aeruginosa PA14 mutant strains lacking each enzyme in the PQS biosynthetic pathway. (C) Coculture of S. sanguinis SK36 with P. aeruginosa PA14, the  $\triangle pqsL$  mutant, its complement pMQ72-pqsL and the vector control pMQ72 in the presence of 0.2% arabinose. (D) Coculture of representative Streptococci from Figure 1 in coculture with the WT P. aeruginosa PA14 and the  $\triangle pqsL$  mutant strain. In each panel, bars represent the average of three biological replicates, each with at least three technical replicates. Error bars indicate SD. ns, not significant, \*, P < 0.05, \*\*, P < 0.01, and \*\*\*, P < 0.001 by repeated measures ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons posttest with Streptococcus-only as the control condition (B) and repeated measures ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons posttest (C and D). The corresponding P. aeruginosa

growth data for these experiments can be found in Figures S8-10.

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Figure 4. P. aeruginosa \( \text{DogsL} \) mutant likely inhibits \( Streptococcus \) growth by sequestering iron. (A) Coculture of S. sanguinis SK36 with P. aeruginosa PA14 mutant strains lacking pgsL, and siderophore ( $\Delta pgsLpvdApchE$ ) or phenazine genes (\Delta pqsLphzA-G1/2). (B) Coculture of S. sanguinis SK36 with P. aeruginosa PA14 mutant strains in 5% CO<sub>2</sub> (aerobic) or in anaerobic conditions. (C) Coculture of S. sanguinis SK36 gene replacement mutants lacking putative iron acquisition genes with P. aeruginosa PA14 and the  $\triangle pqsL$  mutant. Each bar represents the average of three biological replicates, each with at least three technical replicates. Error bars indicate SD. ns, not significant, \*, P < 0.05, \*\*, P < 0.01, and \*\*\*, P < 0.001 by repeated measures ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons posttest (A), paired two-tailed student's t-test (B), and repeated measures ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons posttest with S. sanguinis (Ss) as the control condition (C). The corresponding *P. aeruginosa* growth data for these experiments can be found in Supp. Figure S11-13. Figure 5. A model for *P. aeruginosa-Streptococcus* interactions. (A-B) *P.* aeruginosa has both positive and negative interactions with Streptococcus spp. (A) It has been demonstrated previously that *P. aeruginosa* can enhance *S. parasanguinis* biofilm formation through alginate secretion (23) or inhibit Streptococcus growth with rhamonolipid secretion (22). Here we describe a negative interaction wherein iron sequestration by *P. aeruginosa* limits *Streptococcus* spp. growth. *Streptococcus* promoting factors produced by P. aeruginosa have not yet been identified (indicated by

the question mark). (B) Previous evidence also demonstrates that *Streptococci* can influence *P. aeruginosa* through AI-2 signaling (16), leading to enhanced *IasB*, *rhIA*, *exoT*, and *phzA1/2* gene expression, or inhibit *P. aeruginosa* viability through H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production (15, 20, 21) and subsequent generation of reactive nitrogenous intermediates (20, 21).

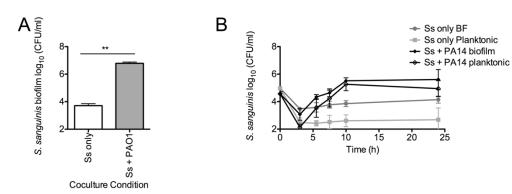
## Table 1: S. sanguinis SK36 iron-related gene products.

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Gene Number	Predicted Gene Product
Ssx_0256	ScaR metalloregulator
Ssx_0686	Fe <sup>2+</sup> /Zn <sup>2+</sup> uptake regulation protein
Ssx_1129	periplasmic iron transport lipoprotein
Ssx_1578	ABC-type Fe <sup>3+</sup> -siderophore transport system, permease component
Ssx_1581	FatB, metal-binding ABC transporter
Ssx_1741	ABC-type Fe3+-siderophores transporter, ATPase component
Ssx_1742	ferrichrome-binding protein
Ssx_1743	ABC-type Fe3+-siderophore transport system, permease component
Ssx_1744	iron compound ABC transporter, permease protein

Figure 1



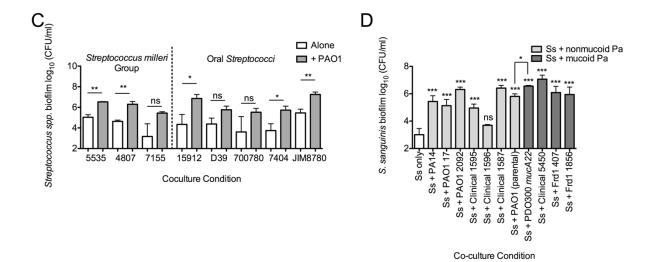


Figure 2

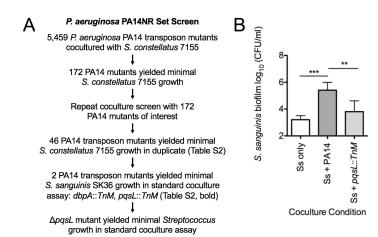
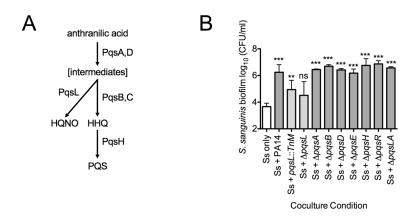


Figure 3



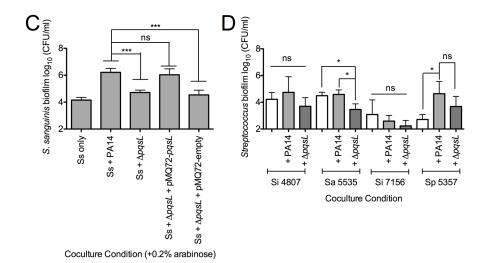
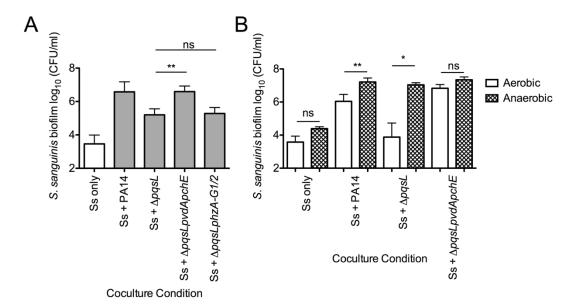


Figure 4



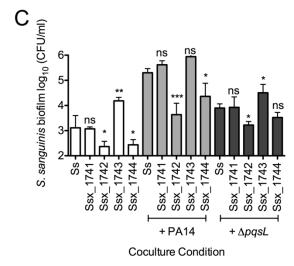


Figure 5

