1 Polymicrobial interactions between *Staphylococcus aureus* 2 and Pseudomonas aeruginosa promote biofilm formation 3 and persistence in chronic wound infections 4 5 Klara Keim¹, Mohini Bhattacharya¹, Heidi A. Crosby², Christian Jenul^{1,3}, Krista Mills^{1,4} Michael 6 Schurr¹, and Alexander Horswill¹ 7 8 9 ¹ Department of Immunology and Microbiology, University of Colorado School of Medicine, Aurora, CO, United States of America 10 11 ² New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA, United States of America 12 13 ³ Department of Genetics and Genome Biology, University of Leicester, Leicester, United Kingdom 14 15 ⁴ Alphabet Health, New York, NY, United States of America 16 17 18 19 20 21 *Corresponding author: 22 Alexander R. Horswill, Ph.D. 23 University of Colorado School of Medicine 24 Department of Immunology and Microbiology 25 12800 E. 19th Ave., RC1N-9101 Mail Stop 8333 26 Aurora, CO 80045 27 28 Phone: 303-724-3534 E-mail: alexander.horswill@cuanschutz.edu 29

31 Abstract

32 Chronic, non-healing wounds are a leading cause of prolonged patient morbidity and mortality due to biofilm- associated, polymicrobial infections. Staphylococcus aureus and Pseudomonas 33 34 aeruginosa are the most frequently co-isolated pathogens from chronic wound infections. 35 Competitive interactions between these pathogens contribute to enhanced virulence. 36 persistence, and antimicrobial tolerance. P. aeruginosa utilizes the extracellular proteases LasB, 37 LasA, and AprA to degrade S. aureus surface structures, disrupt cellular physiology, and induce 38 cell lysis, gaining a competitive advantage during co-infection. S. aureus evades P. aeruginosa 39 by employing aggregation mechanisms to form biofilms. The cell wall protein SasG is implicated 40 in S. aureus biofilm formation by facilitating intercellular aggregation upon cleavage by an extracellular protease. We have previously shown that proteolysis by a host protease can 41 42 induce aggregation. In this study, we report that *P. aeruginosa* proteases LasA, LasB, and AprA cleave SasG to induce S. aureus aggregation. We demonstrate that SasG contributes to S. 43 aureus biofilm formation in response to interactions with P. aeruginosa proteases by quantifying 44 aggregation, SasG degradation, and proteolytic kinetics. Additionally, we assess the role of 45 SasG in influencing S. aureus biofilm architecture during co-infection in vivo, chronic wound co-46 47 infections. This work provides further knowledge of some of the principal interactions that 48 contribute to S. aureus persistence within chronic wounds co-infected with P. aeruginosa, and 49 their impact on healing and infection outcomes.

50

52 Introduction

53 Chronic wound infections contribute to prolonged patient morbidity, with the global burden projected to increase in prevalence over the next decade [1, 2]. It is estimated that chronic 54 55 wounds such as venous ulcers, pressure ulcers, and surgical site infections impact over 8.2 56 million people and accrue healthcare costs ranging from \$31.7-\$96.8 billion in the United States 57 annually [3, 4]. Despite aggressive wound management measures, patients experience 58 treatment failure, wounds that do not heal, and patient morbidity [3, 5, 6]. The primary cause of 59 complications in chronic wounds is the presence of polymicrobial biofilm-associated bacterial 60 infections that lead to prolonged inflammation, collateral tissue damage, and poor vascular 61 perfusion [2, 7-10].

S. aureus and P. aeruginosa are the pathogens most frequently co-isolated from chronic 62 wound infections, infecting 93.5% and 52.2% of patients, respectively [11-14]. These co-63 infections are associated with increased bacterial virulence, recalcitrance to treatment, and 64 65 worsened patient outcomes [15, 16]. Infection severity is exacerbated by competitive 66 interactions that lead to upregulation of exoproducts, surface proteins, and biofilm formation in 67 both pathogens [15, 17-19]. The spatiotemporal dynamics of S. aureus - P. aeruginosa co-68 infections have been well-characterized in chronic infections such as those associated with cystic fibrosis [19-22]. Much remains to be understood about the complex interactions between 69 S. aureus and P. aeruginosa in the context of chronic wound infections [15]. 70

It has been suggested that these pathogens cannot coexist long-term, and that P. 71 72 aeruginosa ultimately becomes predominant by outcompeting S. aureus with its arsenal of anti-73 staphylococcal exoproducts and higher antimicrobial tolerance [23-26]. However, clinical 74 evidence and recent studies indicate that long-term coexistence between these pathogens occurs frequently, due to coevolution in the wound environment [13, 17, 21]. A predominant 75 76 ecological theory explaining the infection dynamics between S. aureus and P. aeruginosa 77 hypothesizes that an initial antagonistic interaction event may occur during early infection, 78 eventually leading to niche partitioning and cooperation [27-29]. Preceding biofilm formation, 79 these two pathogens compete for nutrients and space, leading to antagonism with extracellular 80 products [28, 30]. These interactions with P. aeruginosa initiate S. aureus biofilm formation independent of host proteins and driven by mechanisms of intercellular aggregation [28]. In 81 82 response to environmental stress, S. aureus often forms free-floating multicellular aggregates, highly tolerant to mechanical disruption and antimicrobial activity [31, 32]. Competitive 83 interactions between S. aureus and P. aeruginosa serve as a key determinant in establishing 84 chronic infections by enhancing S. aureus aggregation and biofilm formation [26, 28]. However, 85 the molecular interactions underlying this response to P. aeruginosa, and their impact on 86 87 chronic wounds has not been clearly defined.

The giant, cell-wall anchored <u>surface</u> protein <u>G</u> (SasG) has been implicated in *S. aureus* aggregation and biofilm formation [33-35]. SasG has multiple structural domains (**Fig. 1A**) that are orthologous to the *S. epidermidis* accumulation-associated protein (Aap) and function similarly [32, 36-40]. The N-terminal A domain of SasG contributes to adherence by binding to desquamated epithelial cells such as corneocytes [36, 41-43]. The C-terminal B domain of fulllength SasG is responsible for aggregation and consists of several B-repeats with alternating G5 subdomains and E spacers [35, 44-47]. We recently demonstrated that the host protease trypsin can induce *S. aureus* SasG-dependent aggregation [48]. Several previous studies indicate that aggregation occurs following cleavage of the A domain by a non-native extracellular protease, which promotes intercellular interactions through Zn²⁺-dependent dimerization of the B repeats [35, 44-47, 49, 50].

99 There is variation in SasG expression with most laboratory strains because they either 100 lack functional full-length SasG or do not express it under laboratory conditions [33, 48, 51-53]. 101 However, its clinical relevance is apparent from the identification of anti-SasG antibodies in 102 human serum during infections and of several clinical isolates that express SasG constitutively 103 [51, 54]. Previous work characterizing this mechanism suggests that SasG-dependent 104 aggregation occurs as a protective mechanism to initiate biofilm formation in response to 105 environmental stress [33, 35, 48, 55, 56].

106 Despite the importance of understanding how antagonistic interactions with P. 107 aeruginosa promote S. aureus survival and coexistence. little is known about the mechanisms 108 that initiate S. aureus biofilm formation during the earliest stages of coinfection. We hypothesize 109 that P. aeruginosa proteases cleave SasG and induce S. aureus aggregation, which initiates biofilm formation and promotes persistence in polymicrobial chronic wound infections. 110 We 111 propose that SasG-dependent aggregation improves S. aureus competitive success in 112 coinfection with P. aeruginosa, leading to increases in S. aureus survival, antimicrobial resistance, and wound severity. Here we demonstrate that the P. aeruginosa proteases LasA, 113 LasB, and AprA cleave SasG and induce S. aureus aggregation. We show that SasG-114 dependent aggregates increase S. aureus resistance to antibiotics and promote the formation of 115 116 robust biofilms that coexist with P. aeruginosa in an in vivo model of chronic wound infection. 117 These results indicate that SasG plays an important role in the competitive success of S. aureus 118 against P. aeruginosa and may serve as a crucial mechanism for these pathogens to coexist in 119 chronic infections.

121 Results

122 Interactions with P. aeruginosa induce SasG-dependent S. aureus aggregation

123 We recently showed that host proteases can induce S. aureus intercellular aggregation 124 by processing the surface protein SasG, conferring protection in chronic lung infections [33, 35]. 125 P. aeruginosa secretes several proteases and factors that interact with S. aureus, leading us to hypothesize that antagonism by *P. aeruginosa* could induce SasG-dependent aggregation, 126 127 promoting coexistence in chronic wounds [28, 34, 57, 58]. To investigate this question, we used the previously characterized methicillin-resistant S. aureus (MRSA) USA400 MW2 ΔmgrA and 128 $\Delta mgrA \Delta sasG$ strains [48]. The regulator MgrA represses sasG under laboratory growth 129 130 conditions (Supplementary Fig. 1A); therefore, the $\Delta mgrA$ mutant was used to evaluate the 131 role of SasG with relevant expression levels [48, 53, 59, 60]. We resuspended the sasG-132 expressing MRSA $\Delta m q r A$ and the $\Delta m q r A \Delta s a s G$ double mutant in increasing concentrations (0-133 100%) of wild-type P. aeruginosa PAO1 cell-free supernatant. At all tested concentrations, PAO1 supernatant induced high levels of MRSA $\Delta mgrA$ aggregation, exhibiting maximum 134 135 aggregation when treated with 10% supernatant (Fig. 1B). Aggregation occurred rapidly, with 136 discernably higher levels of $\Delta mgrA$ aggregate sedimentation and clearing the suspension within an hour (**Fig. 1C**). As expected, aggregation was abolished in the $\Delta sasG$ mutant, demonstrating 137 138 that P. aeruginosa induces S. aureus aggregation that is dependent on SasG (Fig. 1B, C, 139 Supplementary Figure 1A).

140 Proteolytic processing within the A domain of SasG is required for *S. aureus* aggregation 141 to occur [35]. We hypothesized that P. aeruginosa secreted factors induce S. aureus aggregation through processing of SasG. To investigate this we extracted MRSA cell wall 142 proteins following treatment with PAO1 supernatant and evaluated SasG cleavage with SDS-143 144 PAGE and Coomassie staining. SasG is anchored to the cell wall at the C-terminally located 145 LPKTG sortase recognition motif [43, 61, 62]. The predicted molecular mass of SasG from strain MW2 is ~150 kDa, and previous studies observed the protein running to ~230 kDa, likely 146 due to cell wall remnants from the isolation procedure [32, 39, 59]. Cell wall fragments remain 147 covalently bound to the proteins after extraction due to sortase-anchoring, which slightly 148 impedes migration through the gel [32]. We observed a large protein band at ~230 kDa in cell 149 wall extracts from $\Delta mgrA$ not present in $\Delta sasG$, which we reasoned to be SasG (Fig. 1D). 150 151 Treatment with 10-100% PAO1 supernatant also revealed processing into two smaller bands of 152 ~175 and ~150 kDa, that were absent in the $\Delta sasG$ mutant control, indicating processing by 153 PAO1 (Fig. 1D and Supplementary Fig. 1B).

154 To determine if a proteinaceous exoproduct in PAO1 supernatant was responsible for 155 SasG cleavage, we repeated the aggregation assay with heat treated supernatant and observed 156 a loss in $\Delta mgrA$ aggregation (Supplementary Fig. 1C). Since dimerization of exposed B 157 domains facilitates intercellular aggregation, we evaluated the ability of B domain antibodies to inhibit aggregation [35, 38]. Prior to treatment with PAO1 supernatant, we incubated MRSA 158 159 ΔmgrA with antibodies that bind the B domain of SasG and observed inhibition of SasG-160 dependent aggregation (Supplementary Fig. 1D). These results demonstrate that SasG facilitates S. aureus aggregation in response to P. aeruginosa secreted factors. 161

163

164 *P. aeruginosa las-regulated proteases induce S. aureus aggregation*

165 P. aeruginosa secretes several anti-staphylococcal exoproducts controlled by 3 major 166 guorum-sensing systems, namely las, rhl and pgs [63, 64]. To determine which P. aeruginosa factor(s) process SasG, we generated las, rhl, and pgs guorum sensing mutants in PAO1. 167 Incubating MRSA $\Delta mgrA$ with supernatants from PAO1 quorum sensing mutants revealed that 168 169 $\Delta lasR$ exhibited significantly attenuated aggregation compared to wild-type PAO1, while $\Delta rhlR$ and $\Delta pqsA$ induced high aggregation levels comparable to PAO1 (Fig. 2A). Concordantly, 170 171 recombinant SasG processing assays showed minimal processing by $\Delta lasR$ supernatant, in 172 contrast to robust processing by PAO1, $\Delta rhIR$, and $\Delta pqsA$ [48] (Fig. 2B). Interestingly, though 173 $\Delta rh/R$ induced significant aggregation, we observed a reduction in SasG processing, likely due 174 to cross-regulation commonly observed between the las and rhl systems [70, 71] (Fig. 2C). 175 These data indicate P. aeruginosa secretes las-regulated factors that process SasG to induce 176 S. aureus aggregation.

177

178 LasA, LasB, and AprA process SasG and induce S. aureus aggregation

179 The P. aeruginosa metalloproteases elastase B (Pseudolysin;LasB), Elastase A 180 (Staphylolysin; LasA), and alkaline protease (Aeruginolysin; AprA) are expressed in a las dependent manner and are prolific during early infection, cleaving host and bacterial proteins to 181 facilitate inflammation and clearance of competing bacteria [65, 66]. SasG-dependent 182 aggregation is triggered by proteolytic cleavage by a non-native, extracellular protease, which 183 184 removes the A domain and exposes the B domain, enabling homodimeric interactions between 185 corresponding B domains on adjacent cell surfaces [34, 35, 48]. To investigate the individual and coordinated contributions of each protease, we performed SasG processing and 186 aggregation assays using supernatants from wild-type PAO1, single protease mutants ($\Delta lasA$, 187 $\Delta lasB$, and $\Delta aprA$, double protease mutants ($\Delta lasA \Delta \Delta lasB$, $\Delta lasA \Delta aprA$, and $\Delta lasB \Delta aprA$), 188 and a triple protease mutant ($\Delta lasA \Delta lasB \Delta aprA$). The triple protease mutant abolished both 189 190 aggregation (Fig. 2D) and SasG processing (Fig. 2E), demonstrating that at least one of the P. 191 aeruginosa proteases, LasA, LasB, or AprA, is responsible for cleaving SasG.

192 Compared to wild-type PAO1, all single protease mutants ($\Delta lasA$, $\Delta lasB$, and $\Delta aprA$), 193 exhibited attenuated aggregation, indicating that no individual protease alone is sufficient to 194 induce maximal MRSA aggregation (Fig. 2D). SasG processing patterns differed across the 195 double protease mutants, suggesting each protease may target distinct cleavage sites (Fig. 2E). Untreated, recombinant SasG resulted in a ~165 kDa band, and SasG processing by wild-type 196 197 PAO1 produced three bands at ~138 kDa, ~114 kDa, and ~100 kDa (Fig. 2E-G). The ΔlasB (LasA and AprA) and *DaprA* (LasA & LasB) mutants showed slightly reduced processing 198 199 compared to PAO1, while $\Delta lasA$ exhibited the most extensive SasG processing, likely due to the combined activity of LasB and AprA (Fig 2G). LasB and AprA exhibit functional redundancy and 200 201 increased coordinated activity when co-expressed, and both proteases exhibit higher expression levels and broader substrate specificities than LasA [72]. Collectively, these data 202

indicate that while LasA, LasB, and AprA each contribute to SasG processing, no single
 protease alone is sufficient to induce maximal aggregation. Rather, the combined proteolytic
 activities of LasB and AprA, and to a lesser extent LasA, appear to be primarily responsible for
 fully processing SasG.

207 We investigated the ability of each protease to cleave SasG and induce MRSA 208 aggregation using double protease mutants $\Delta lasB \Delta aprA$ (LasA⁺), $\Delta lasA \Delta aprA$ (LasB⁺), $\Delta lasA$ 209 $\Delta lasB$ (AprA⁺). All three proteases were capable of cleaving SasG and inducing MRSA aggregation independently, to varying extents (Fig. 2F,G). Both AprA and LasB induced 210 211 significant aggregation, though moderately attenuatedcompared to wild-type PAO1. In contrast, LasA exhibited limited SasG processing and induced the lowest aggregation levels (Fig. 2F). 212 213 Despite inducing an intermediate amount of aggregation, $\Delta lasA \Delta a prA$ (LasB⁺) processed SasG 214 similarly to wild-type PAO1, producing an intense ~138 kDa band and a faint ~100 kDa band 215 (Fig. 2G). Interestingly, $\Delta lasA \Delta lasB$ (AprA⁺) induced only slightly less aggregation than PAO1, 216 with reduced processing compared to LasB, exhibiting a less intense ~138 kDa band, a faint 217 ~130 kDa band, and several faint bands between 138-165 kDa (Fig. 2G). This increased aggregation by AprA could result from higher activity or cleavage sites more effective at 218 219 removing the entire A domain than LasB [72]. The $\Delta lasB \Delta aprA$ (LasA⁺) induced the lowest 220 aggregation levels and exhibited reduced SasG processing (Fig. 2G). A notable observation 221 was that all double protease mutants produced prominent ~138 kDa bands when processing 222 SasG, suggesting this may be the location of a primary cleavage site associated with 223 aggregation. We attempted to identify the SasG cleavage site(s) with N-terminal sequencing, 224 with inconclusive results, likely due to the extensive processing resulting in many cleavage sites. Altogether, these findings indicate that while LasA, LasB, and AprA can each 225 226 independently cleave SasG and induce S. aureus aggregation, their combined proteolytic 227 activities likely synergize to fully process SasG, triggering maximal aggregation levels.

228

229 Expression of P. aeruginosa LasA, LasB, and AprA proteases

Previous studies have correlated *P. aeruginosa* protease expression levels with infection 230 severity, finding that guorum-sensing and protease-deficient strains exhibit attenuated virulence 231 232 in wound models [65, 66, 73, 74]. To investigate which protease(s) are most relevant for polymicrobial interactions and SasG-dependent aggregation in wounds, we quantified lasA, 233 lasB, and aprA expression in wild-type PAO1 and guorum sensing mutants $\Delta lasR$, and $\Delta rhlR$ 234 using RT-qPCR (Fig. 3). Strains were cultured under conditions used for aggregation assays, 235 236 with transcript levels normalized to the rpoD housekeeping gene. In all strains lasB was 237 expressed at significantly higher levels than aprA and lasA, with lasA showing the lowest 238 expression levels (Fig. 3A). As a major transcriptional activator of these proteases, the lasR-239 deficient mutant exhibited significantly reduced expression of all proteases, which correlated 240 with the previously observed attenuation in SasG processing and MRSA aggregation Figure 241 **2A-B.** The *rhIR*-deficient mutant also displayed lower protease expression than PAO1, 242 consistent with the reduction in SasG processing observed in Figure 2B. LasR was initially 243 identified as the key regulator of protease expression, but the *rhl* quorum sensing system is also

required for full activation of some protease genes like *lasB* [71, 75-77]. Therefore, attenuated SasG processing in the $\Delta rhIR$ mutant is likely a result of reduced expression of *lasB*.

Previous work identified significant upregulation of protease genes, particularly AprA, in 246 247 vivo and in clinical wound specimens, [78]. To validate the relevance of *P. aeruginosa* protease 248 AprA in SasG-dependent aggregation, we expressed AprA in E. coli BL21 from an arabinose-249 inducible promoter. Wild-type BL21 supernatant did not induce MRSA aggregation: however. 250 supernatant from protease over-expressing BL21 induced aggregation to similar levels as wild-251 type PAO1. These results demonstrate that heterologous expression of AprA is sufficient to 252 induce SasG-dependent aggregation (Fig. 3B). Therefore, the proteases LasA, LasB, and AprA 253 are differentially expressed in *P. aeruginosa* and SasG processing is likely the concerted activity 254 of all three proteases, with LasB and AprA being the most prominent in inducing S. aureus 255 aggregation.

256

257 Aggregate formation leads to increased S. aureus tolerance to antimicrobials

258 Chronic wound pathogens experience routine exposure to sub-lethal concentrations of 259 antibiotics, and previous studies indicate that S. aureus aggregation promotes antimicrobial 260 tolerance, biofilm formation, and survival post-treatment [28, 31, 57]. Vancomycin and 261 ciprofloxacin are antimicrobials used frequently to treat chronic wounds coinfected with S. 262 aureus and P. aeruginosa [15, 16]. We investigated if aggregates formed in response to 263 competitive interactions with PAO1 affect S. aureus antimicrobial susceptibility and bacterial persistence. The MIC breakpoints against MRSA $\Delta mgrA$ and $\Delta mgrA \Delta sasG$ strains for 264 Vancomycin and Ciprofloxacin were 2 µg/mL and 1 µg/mL, respectively. Using the broth 265 microdilution method, MRSA mutant aggregates were exposed to Ciprofloxacin (Cip) (Figure 266 267 4A) and Vancomycin (Vn) (Figure 4B) concentrations ranging from sublethal to 2-4 times the 268 MIC.

Treatment with PAO1 supernatant facilitated survival of $\Delta m g A$ bacteria in a SasG 269 dependent manner, with the $\Delta sasG$ mutant strain exhibiting significantly lower colony forming 270 271 units (CFUs) compared to $\Delta mgrA$ control at 2 and 4ug/mL of both antibiotics. Interestingly, the PBS-treated AsasG mutant also exhibited a significant decrease in cell viability at 2 and 4 272 $\mu q/mL$ Vn when compared with $\Delta m q r A$ bacteria (Fig. 4B). We recovered higher CFUs from 273 274 SasG-expressing MRSA treated with PAO1, than the PBS-treated control, with cell viability at 1 µg/mL Cip and Vn similar to the no antibiotic controls. These results demonstrate that P. 275 276 aeruginosa induced aggregate formation assists the survival of S. aureus exposed to 277 ciprofloxacin and vancomycin treatment. (Fig. 4).

278

279 S. aureus aggregates promote coexistence during biofilm formation

The earliest stages of coinfection between *S. aureus* and *P. aeruginosa* are crucial in determining if interspecies interactions will lead to coexistence, niche partitioning, or elimination of either pathogen [28, 57]. However, little is known about these interactions, the spatiotemporal

dynamics that initiate aggregation and its impact on promoting biofilm formation [22, 28]. We 283 284 speculated that under the continuous environmental stresses occurring in co-infected wounds, S. aureus SasG-dependent aggregates will develop into mature biofilms, capable of coexisting 285 286 alongside P. aeruginosa. The Lubbock Chronic Wound Biofilm Model utilizes wound-like media (WLM) to recapitulate the chronic wound environment in vitro [80, 81]. We used this model 287 evaluate the role of SasG in biofilm formation, S. aureus-P. aeruginosa interactions, and 288 289 community spatial organization during early coinfection (Fig. 5A). MRSA $\Delta mgrA$ and the $\Delta sasG$ 290 mutants were inoculated into wound-like media (WLM) as either mono- or co-infections with PAO1 and incubated for 24 hours (Fig. 5A-B). We observed no differences in survival among 291 monomicrobial biofilms (Fig. 5C). Polymicrobial biofilms consisting of $\Delta mgrA$ and PAO1 292 293 exhibited little difference in cell viability between the two pathogens, and both exhibited slight 294 increases in CFUs compared to the monomicrobial biofilms (Fig. 5C). Polymicrobial biofilms 295 with the *AsasG* mutant had a significant decrease in MRSA cell viability and an increase in 296 PAO1, suggesting that PAO1 is at an advantage during co-infection with $\Delta sasG$ (Fig. 5C). In 297 SasG-dependent co-infected biofilms, MRSA made up approximately 50% of the population. 298 which was in sharp contrast to $\Delta sasG$ biofilms, where MRSA made up less than 5% of the total 299 population (Supplementary Fig. 3A). These data suggest that SasG provides S. aureus with a 300 survival advantage during coinfection with *P. eruginosa*.

To investigate how SasG-dependent biofilm formation contributes to spatial structure 301 and S. aureus coexistence with P. aeruginosa, fluorescent strains of MRSA (expressing pHC48; 302 303 dsRed) and PAO1 (expressing pMRP9-1; GFP) were inoculated into WLM as described above. 304 Biofilms were harvested and slides were prepared for confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM). In $\Delta mgrA$ - PAO1biofilms, we observed dense, robust aggregates of S. aureus 305 306 throughout the biomass, interspersed with PAO1 (Fig. 5D). The average overall thickness of $\Delta mgrA$ biofilms decreased significantly in a SasG dependent manner (Fig. 5E), while average 307 308 thickness of the entire area (Fig. 5F), average biomass thickness (Fig. 5G), and biovolume (Fig. 5H) of MRSA vs PAO1 were nearly equivalent (Fig. 5F-H). In PAO1 biofilms containing the 309 310 $\Delta sasG$ mutant, we had difficulty identifying MRSA in the biofilm and those identifiable were in 311 distinct niches at the periphery of the biofilm separated from PAO1 (Fig. 5D). The $\Delta sasG$ 312 mutant made up significantly less of the average thickness, area, biomass thickness, and 313 biovolume (Fig. 5E-H). Altogether, these findings suggest that SasG promotes formation of a 314 stable and robust MRSA biofilm composed of large aggregates, allowing MRSA to coexist with 315 P. aeruginosa.

316

317 In vivo murine model of polymicrobial chronic wound infections

We developed a murine chronic wound model to investigate the impact of SasGdependent biofilm formation on *S. aureus* survival during co-infection with *P. aeruginosa* (Fig **6A**). Mice were wounded with a 6 mm biopsy punch and mono- or co-infected with PAO1 and either MRSA $\Delta mgrA$ or the $\Delta sasG$ mutant. Co-infections of PAO1 with $\Delta sasG$ and the monoinfections of each strain exhibited very little inflammation and pus over the experiment time course (9 days). By day nine, these wounds were only ~50% the initial wound size, exhibited scabbing, and had little inflammation remaining. (Fig. 6B,C). Mono-infections of $\Delta mgrA$

exhibited slower wound healing compared to the other mono-infections, but CFU recovery was 325 326 nearly equivalent among mono-infected groups (Fig. 6D,E). Coinfections with $\Delta m grA$ resulted in a significant delay in wound healing, pus and redness around the wound margins, and 327 macroscopically inflamed skin through day seven (Fig. 6B,C). We recovered significantly less 328 329 MRSA from $\Delta sasG$ co-infections than $\Delta mgrA$, indicating that SasG promotes S. aureus survival 330 in polymicrobial chronic wounds (Fig. 6D). Interestingly, PAO1 survival did not change when 331 comparing co-infections, which suggests S. aureus and P. aeruginosa coexistence (Fig. 6E). 332 Altogether these data indicate that SasG contributes to MRSA persistence and delayed wound 333 closure in wounds co-infections with P. aeruginosa.

335 Discussion

336 Competitive interactions between S. aureus and P. aeruginosa have been extensively 337 characterized in vitro and in chronic lung infections like cystic fibrosis (CF) [19, 22, 30]. However, there is substantial debate and conflicting evidence surrounding their competitive 338 339 dynamics in chronic wounds [17, 28, 82, 83]. The polymicrobial nature of chronic wounds is well 340 documented in clinical studies, showing S. aureus and P. aeruginosa co-isolated from wound 341 specimens at a high frequency [84, 85]. This led to the widely accepted view that S. aureus 342 promotes secondary P. aeruginosa infection but is ultimately outcompeted and displaced, 343 contending that the two species cannot stably coexist [20, 23]. Since the lung of a CF patient is 344 distinct from a chronic wound environment, recent development of novel disease models, both 345 in vitro and in vivo, has led to work that uncovers the mechanisms of biofilm formation, 346 environmental conditions, and polymicrobial interactions in chronic wounds [17, 21, 86, 87]. These studies provide further evidence that S. aureus and P. aeruginosa can coexist and 347 describe one mechanism that significantly contributes to this, promoting antimicrobial tolerance, 348 bacterial persistence, and delayed wound healing [17, 21, 86, 87]. Our results show that P. 349 350 aeruginosa may promote S. aureus coexistence in chronic wounds by inducing intercellular 351 aggregation upon initial co-infection, encouraging subsequent S. aureus biofilm formation.

352 P. aeruginosa upregulates several extracellular factors and proteases in the presence of 353 S. aureus that exacerbate tissue damage and delay wound healing [65, 73]. The proteases 354 LasB, AprA, and LasA are found in clinical wound fluid and contribute to delayed wound healing by exacerbating tissue damage, promoting fibrin clot formation, delaying skin restructuring, and 355 356 encouraging a polymicrobial environment [88]. Our previous work demonstrates that host 357 proteases like trypsin cleave SasG and induce S. aureus intercellular aggregation [48, 59]. This 358 led us to hypothesize that SasG-dependent intercellular aggregation serves as a protective 359 mechanism against polymicrobial interactions, facilitating swift S. aureus biofilm formation in 360 response to antagonism by P. aeruginosa. Here, we demonstrate that secreted proteases in P. 361 aeruginosa supernatant cleave SasG and induce aggregation (Fig. 1B-D). This aggregation was attenuated by heat-treating the supernatant, validating the involvement of proteinaceous 362 363 factors (Supplementary Fig. 1B).

LasR is generally considered the master regulator of LasA, LasB, and AprA [63, 64, 89]. 364 As expected, in **Figure 2** $\Delta lasR$ eliminated aggregation and SasG processing, but we also 365 observed a slight reduction or delay in SasG processing by $\Delta rhlR$. This is likely explained by the 366 interconnected nature of the *rhl* and *las* quorum sensing systems. Previous work found that *rhl* 367 compensates for virulence factor expression if the las quorum sensing system is disrupted [71, 368 76]. RhIR is also required for full activation of some virulence factors, so the attenuated SasG 369 370 processing (Fig. 2B) and low gene expression (Fig. 3A) is likely due to incomplete activation of 371 lasB or other genes reliant on rhl [70, 90-92].

Our previous work identified a metalloprotease, SepA, in *S. epidermidis* that cleaves the SasG ortholog Aap and induces aggregation following a similar mechanism [39]. *P. aeruginosa* metalloproteases LasA, LasB, and AprA are detected at high concentrations in chronic wound infections breaking down host matrix molecules, which further develops an environment ideal for polymicrobial interactions [39, 48], and we confirmed that no significant *S. aureus* aggregation or SasG processing occurred when exposed to the triple protease mutant ($\Delta lasA\Delta lasB\Delta aprA$) supernatant.

Evaluation of single protease mutant phenotypes highlighted the synergy between 379 380 proteases. The attenuated aggregation and extensive SasG processing observed in $\Delta lasA$ 381 could result from SasG overprocessing by LasB and AprA (Fig. 2D-E). LasB and AprA can act 382 in concert to enhance proteolytic activity, which may also explain the enhanced SasG cleavage 383 by AlasA [93]. Double protease mutants exhibited greater variations in SasG cleavage and 384 aggregation than single mutants (Fig. 2F-G). LasA ($\Delta lasB \Delta aprA$) exhibited the weakest activity, 385 likely due to its limited specificity and need for activation by LasB [94]. LasA has a narrow 386 substrate specificity and cleaves glycine-rich substrates, preferring bonds in Gly-Gly-Ala sequences [95, 96]. The SasG A domain sequence contains only a single predicted cleavage 387 site with these residues, so LasA may ineffectively remove the A domain compared to LasB and 388 389 AprA. SasG processing by double protease mutants resulted in multiple cleavage events and 390 several bands with varying molecular weights (Fig. 2E & G). We attempted to identify proteolytic cleavage sites using N-terminal sequencing, but results were inconclusive, even in shorter 391 reactions with only one presumable cleavage event (data not shown). SasG cleavage was not 392 393 limited to a single defined product as seen previously with human trypsin and S. epidermidis 394 SepA [39, 48]. Based on the structure of SasG and previously identified cleavage sites, LasA, 395 LasB, and AprA likely cleave at multiple sites within the lectin portion of the A domain to allow B 396 domain dimerization [39, 97]. Overall, our data indicate that the combined activities of LasA, 397 LasB, and AprA are required for maximal SasG processing and aggregation.

398 Aggregation and competitive interactions between S. aureus and P. aeruginosa can 399 promote synergism and alter antimicrobial tolerance [17, 19, 98]. Bacterial aggregates often exhibit characteristics similar to mature biofilms, such as altered metabolism, gene expression, 400 401 and protection from environmental stress [57]. Our data demonstrate that SasG-dependent 402 aggregation induced by PAO1 increased MRSA tolerance to vancomycin and ciprofloxacin, 403 which are commonly used to treat S. aureus-P. aeruginosa coinfections [17]. The increased 404 antimicrobial tolerance of $\Delta m q r A$ is likely attributable to the protective effects conferred by 405 aggregate formation, preventing effective antibiotic interaction with the cell surface. Previous work demonstrated that *P. aeruginosa* factors can synergize with or antagonize antibiotic 406 407 activity against S. aureus in a strain-dependent manner [19, 22, 99, 100]. LasA was reported to 408 protect S. aureus from vancomycin in vivo while potentiating killing in vitro [19, 98]. Therefore, 409 the enhanced antimicrobial tolerance observed for $\Delta m grA$ likely results from a combination of 410 aggregate formation plus P. aeruginosa proteases and secreted factors reducing antibiotic 411 efficacy. Conversely, the increased susceptibility of the $\Delta sasG$ mutant could stem from P. aeruginosa factors potentiating antimicrobial effects in the absence of SasG-mediated 412 413 aggregation. The interplay between SasG expression and P. aeruginosa interactions may provide S. aureus with a competitive advantage by conferring protection from environmental 414 415 stresses and enabling stable co-existence within the chronic wound environment.

416 Bacterial aggregates often provide increased stability and protection compared to 417 polysaccharide biofilms, but their contribution to long-term biofilm development and community 418 organization in chronic wounds remains poorly understood [55]. Using the Lubbock Chronic 419 Wound Biofilm model, we demonstrated that SasG contributed to S. aureus biofilm formation 420 and long-term survival in co-infections with P. aeruginosa. Previous work investigating biofilm biogeography in wounds observed patchy distributions of each bacterial population, with the 421 majority of S. aureus biomass identified as aggregates, driving P. aeruginosa into planktonic 422 cells [101]. We observed a similar community structure, and confocal microscopy revealed 423 MRSA $\Delta mgrA$ forming biofilms made up of dense SasG-dependent aggregates interspersed 424 425 among populations of *P. aeruginosa* (Fig. 5D). We observed several dual species aggregates 426 and found that S. aureus aggregates grew in close proximity to or within P. aeruginosa 427 populations, suggesting stable coexistence between the pathogens. Previous studies observed niche partitioning of S. aureus and P. aeruginosa during coinfection, which we observed with 428 429 $\Delta sasG$ but *P. aeruginosa* dominated in these biofilms [22], Interestingly, the $\Delta sasG$ biofilms 430 appeared as a large blood clot compared to the smaller, dense $\Delta marA$ polymicrobial biofilms 431 (Fig. 5B). We speculate that S. aureus $\Delta sasG$ mutant forms biofilms through coagulation and 432 clumping mechanisms as opposed to intercellular aggregates [57, 102].

Biofilm formation functions to protect bacteria from host immune factors, antimicrobial 433 molecules, and competitors, which is a crucial component to persistence and treatment failure in 434 435 chronic wound infections. Previous clinical and in vivo studies of chronic infections demonstrate 436 increased virulence, biofilm formation, and persistence in coinfections of *P. aeruginosa* with *S.* 437 aureus [17]. Using an in vivo model of chronic wound infections we observed a significant delay 438 in wounds coinfected with *P. aeruginosa* and *S. aureus* $\Delta mgrA$ (Fig. 6B-C). Interestingly, we 439 also observed a slight delay in wound healing in $\Delta mgrA$ mono-infections, indicating additional 440 potential SasG cleavage by host proteases, such as matrix metalloproteases.. We observed 441 significant attenuation of S. aureus survival in $\Delta sasG$ -PAO1 coinfections, while $\Delta mgrA$ 442 coinfections exhibited equivalent P. aeruginosa and S. aureus populations. We speculate that 443 upon coinfection, close contact between the pathogens allows competitive interactions to occur and initiates SasG-dependent aggregation. Our findings indicate that S. aureus establishes 444 SasG-dependent biofilms that allow for persistence. Ultimately S. aureus SasG-dependent 445 446 biofilm formation and coexistence with P. aeruginosa result in recalcitrant chronic wound 447 infections that exhibit delayed wound healing, reduced antimicrobial efficacy and poor patient 448 outcomes. Altogether our findings demonstrate a novel mechanism for how P. aeruginosa 449 facilitates co-existence with S. aureus in wounds specifically through the activity of proteases 450 LasA, LasB, and AprA which induce SasG-dependent aggregation.

451

453 Materials and Methods

454 *Ethics Statement*

455 All animal studies described were reviewed, approved, and done in accordance with the 456 recommendations of the Animal Care and Use Committee at the University of Colorado 457 Anschutz Medical Campus. The approved protocol was assigned number 00987.

458

459 Bacterial Strains, Media, and Growth Conditions

460 All bacterial strains and plasmids used in this work are listed in **Table 1.** In this work we used mutant strains of S. aureus MRSA USA400 MW2 as described in our previous work[48], 461 that were either SasG-expressing (MRSA $\Delta mgrA$) or a SasG mutant (MRSA $\Delta mgrA \Delta sasG$). The 462 463 regulator MgrA represses sasG under laboratory conditions, so this mutant is used to better reflect clinically relevant expression levels in our investigation under laboratory conditions [48, 464 53, 59, 60]. S. aureus strains were inoculated into tryptic soy broth (TSB; BD), and strains of E. 465 coli and P. aeruginosa were inoculated into Lennox lysogeny broth (LB; RPI) unless indicated 466 otherwise. Cultures were grown overnight at 37°C with shaking at 200 rpm. Antibiotics were 467 added to the media at the following concentrations: chloramphenicol (Cam) 10 µg/mL and 468 erythromycin (Erm) 5 µg/mL. E. coli strains with plasmids were maintained in LB supplemented 469 470 with antibiotics at the following concentrations: ampicillin (Amp) 100 µg/mL, gentamicin (Gn) 20 471 µg/mL, and chloramphenicol (Cam) 10µg/mL.

472

473 Recombinant DNA and Genetic Techniques

E. coli DH5α and DC10B were used as cloning hosts for plasmid construction. All restriction enzymes, Phusion and Q5 polymerases, and DNA ligase were purchased from New England Biolabs (NEB). Kits for DNA extraction, plasmid mini-preps, and gel extractions were purchased from Qiagen. Lysostaphin and lysozyme were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and used for DNA extractions. All oligonucleotides were purchased from Integrated DNA Technologies (IDT) and are listed in **Table 2.** DNA sequencing was performed at the Molecular Biology Service Center at the University of Colorado Anschutz Medical Campus.

481

482 **Construction of Fluorescent Reporter Strains**

S. aureus MW2 mgrA and sasG mutant strains were fluorescently labelled by moving dsRed-expressing plasmid pHC48 [103] from RN4220 by phage transduction. Transductions were performed with phage 11 as described previously [104] and pHC48 was maintained with 10 μg/mL Cam. *P. aeruginosa* strain PAO1 was fluorescently labeled by moving GFPexpressing plasmid pMRP9-1 through electroporation and maintaining the plasmid with 100 μg/mL Amp[105].

490 Construction of Protease Deletion Mutants in P. aeruginosa

491 Protease deletion mutants of lasA, lasB, and aprA were constructed in PAO1 through homologous recombination following conjugation as described previously[106]. The deletion 492 constructs were generated in pEXG2 by Gibson assembly. Plasmid pEXG2 was purified from E. 493 494 coli DC10B using the QIAprep Spin Miniprep kit (Qiagen). To generate the lasA, lasB, and aprA 495 deletion plasmids, DNA fragments (~700 bp in size) flanking the targeted regions for deletion and pEXG2 were amplified by PCR. The products were then purified with the QIAquick PCR 496 497 Purification Kit (Qiagen), fused by a second amplification, and purified with the QIAquick Gel 498 Extraction Kit (Qiagen). This PCR product and pEXG2 were digested with restriction enzymes, 499 and ligated together to generate pHC207, pHC208, and pHC211. Plasmids were then 500 electroporated into E. coli DC10B and plated on LB plates containing 20 µg/mL Gn to select for 501 cells containing the plasmid. Single colonies were picked and patched on LB plates containing 20 µg/mL Gn. Presence of the plasmid with the flanking regions was then confirmed by PCR. 502 The deletion plasmids were then purified from overnight cultures by miniprep and the insert was 503 504 confirmed by sequencing.

505 Deletion plasmids were then moved from *E. coli* DC10B to *P. aeruginosa* PAO1 by 506 triparental mating as described previously[106]. Single recombinants were selected for by 507 plating on Vogel-Bonner minimal medium (VBMM) agar containing 160 µg/mL Gn and generate 508 merodiploid strains[106]. Plasmids were resolved from merodiploid strains through 509 counterselection by plating on VBMM containing 7.5% sucrose following overnight outgrowth in 510 LB broth. Colonies were patched on VBMM agar containing 7.5% sucrose and screened for 511 gene deletions by PCR, then deletions were confirmed by sequencing.

512

513 **Construction of an AprA expression strain in E. coli**

To construct the E. coli BL21 strain expressing mature active AprA from P. aeruginosa, 514 515 the apr operon was amplified by PCR from PAO1 genomic DNA using primers flanking upstream of aprX and downstream of aprA. All primers are listed in Table 2. The amplification 516 517 products were PCR purified, and the plasmid pBAD18 was purified by miniprep. The purified apr 518 operon insert and pBAD18 vector were digested with restriction enzymes and ligated together. 519 The ligation product was then transformed into E. coli DH5a and plated on LB agar containing 100 µg/mL Amp for selection. Colonies were patched on LB agar containing 100 µg/mL Amp 520 521 and screened by PCR for the presence of the plasmid with the insert. The plasmid was purified 522 from overnight cultures and the insert was confirmed by sequencing. The plasmid was then 523 transformed into *E. coli* BL21 by electroporation for protein expression.

524

525 S. aureus Aggregation Assay

526 Cultures of *S. aureus* and *P. aeruginosa* (25mL) were grown overnight in TSB and LB, 527 respectively, at 37°C with shaking at 200 rpm. One mL of *S. aureus* overnight culture was 528 harvested by centrifugation and the supernatant was discarded. Cells were washed with 1 mL of

phosphate buffered saline (PBS) and the centrifugation step was repeated, discarding the 529 530 supernatant. P. aeruginosa cultures were centrifuged, the supernatants collected, and remaining cells removed with a 0.22 µm PVDF syringe filter (Nanopore). P. aeruginosa 531 532 supernatants were then diluted in PBS to the appropriate concentration. S. aureus cells were resuspended in 1 mL of either P. aeruginosa cell-free supernatant or PBS. Tubes were allowed 533 to sit for 1 hour at room temperature. Aggregation was assessed visually and quantified by 534 535 optical density. Aggregation of S. aureus cells over 1 h results in sedimentation of the 536 aggregates and clearing of the suspension. To quantify aggregation, 125µL of liquid was 537 removed from the top of the suspension at timepoints 0 h and 1 h, and optical density at 600 nm was measured in a 96-well plate with a Tecan Infinite M200 plate reader. Results represent an 538 average of three separate experiments with each performed in technical triplicate. 539

540

541 Cell Wall Preparations

Following 1 h aggregation assays described above, S. aureus cell wall proteins were 542 543 extracted as described previously[48]. Cells from aggregation assays were harvested by centrifugation, washed twice with PBS, and resuspended in 500 µL of protoplasting buffer 544 545 (10mM Tris pH 8, 10mM MgSO₄, 30% raffinose). Lysostaphin was added to the suspension and 546 cells were incubated for 1 h at 37°C. Tubes were then centrifuged for 3 minutes a maximum speed and 500µL of supernatant was transferred to a new tube. Proteins were precipitated by 547 addition of 125 µL of ice-cold trichloroacetic acid (TCA) and incubated on ice for 2 h. 548 Precipitated proteins were centrifuged for 10 min at maximum speed and supernatant was 549 discarded. The pellet was washed twice with 500 µL of ice cold 100% ethanol, centrifuging for 5 550 551 mins between washes and discarding supernatant, and inverted to dry. Pellets were 552 resuspended in 36 µL 2X Laemelli SDS-PAGE Buffer (New England Biolabs), heated at 85°C, 553 and loaded into 4-20% gradient acrylamide gel. Following SDS-PAGE, gels were stained with 554 Coomassie blue stain and imaged.

555

556 SasG Proteolytic Processing Assays and Cleavage Site Determination

557 S. aureus surface protein SasG was purified as described previously[48]. To assess SasG proteolysis, purified full-length SasG was diluted 10-fold in PBS to a concentration of 500 558 559 µg/mL. Then 2 µL of this SasG dilution was mixed with 18 µL of P. aeruginosa cell-free supernatant diluted in PBS to a final concentration of 1%. Reactions were incubated at room 560 561 temperature for 10 minutes unless otherwise indicated. Reactions were quenched by adding 20µL of 2X Laemelli SDS-PAGE loading buffer (BioRad). Immediately following addition of 562 563 loading buffer, 10µL was loaded on a 4-20% gradient gel. Following SDS-PAGE, gels were stained with Coomassie and imaged. SasG cleavage was guantified with ImageJ. 564

To determine the proteolytic cleavage site(s) in SasG, large-scale reactions were set up for each condition by mixing 30 μ L SasG with 270 μ L *P. aeruginosa* supernatant. Reactions were repeated as described above and 20 μ L of reaction was loaded on a 4-20% gradient gel. Proteins were then transferred to a PVDF membrane using the Transblot Turbo Transfer 569 System (BioRad) and the membrane was stained with Coomassie and dried. N-terminal 570 sequencing was then carried out by Edman degradation using a Shimadzu PPSQ-53A Gradient 571 Dratein Sequences at the Dratein Facility at laws State University

571 Protein Sequencer at the Protein Facility at Iowa State University.

572

573 *RT-qPCR*

574 For relative real-time quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) quantification of *lasA, lasB,* and *aprA* 575 expression, total RNA was isolated from *P. aeruginosa* using the Rneasy Mini Kit (Qiagen) 576 according to the manufacturer's instructions. Contaminating DNA was removed using Turbo 577 DNA-free kit (Thermo Fisher). After DNase treatment, one step reverse transcription and real-578 time PCR amplification was performed on 100 ng of purified RNA

using the iScript cDNA synthesis kit (Bio389 Rad). qPCR was performed by amplifying cDNA in 20 µL reaction volumes with iTaq Universal SYBR Green Supermix (Bio-Rad) in the CFX96 Touch Real-Time PCR System (Bio393 Rad) under the following conditions: 3 min at 95°C, 40 cycles of 10 s at 95°C and 30 s at 60°C, followed by a dissociation curve. No template and no reverse transcription controls were performed in parallel. Primers used for the amplification of *aprA, lasB, lasA* and *rpoD* are described in **Table 2.**

- 585 Results reflect three independent experiments performed in triplicate. Relative expression was 586 normalized to *rpoD* via the Pfaffl method.
- 587

588 Assessment of Antimicrobial Resistance

589 The MICs of vancomycin (Van) and ciprofloxacin (Cip) were determined for each S. aureus 590 strain by the standard broth microdilution method according to CLSI guidelines[107, 108]. The MICs were estimated accordingly: Van = 1.0 μ g/mL and Cip = 0.5 μ g/mL. MIC did not vary 591 592 among mutant strains of S. aureus MW2 and estimations were consistent with the EUCAST 593 predicted MICs. To assess changes in antimicrobial susceptibility, aggregation assays were performed as described above. Following aggregation for 1hr, tubes were centrifuged and 594 595 supernatant discarded. Cells were resuspended in 1 mL of CAMHB and mixed gently by 596 pipetting. Antibiotic-supplemented media was prepared by diluting vancomycin or ciprofloxacin in CAMHB to final concentrations of 0, 1, 2, and 4 µg/mL. Antibiotic-supplemented CAMHB was 597 inoculated with ~5x10⁶ CFU of S. aureus to a final volume of 200 µL in a 96-well plate, and each 598 plate included both sterility and growth controls. An initial time point (t = 0 h) was taken by 599 plating for CFUs on Cation-Adjusted Mueller-Hinton Agar (CAMHA). Plates were incubated at 600 37° C, with timepoints taken at t = 1, 3, and 5 h and CFUs enumerated. Growth was also 601 assessed by measuring OD_{600} at each timepoint in addition to t= 10 and 18 h (Supplementary 602 603 Figure 2). Results represent four separate experiments, and each condition was performed in 604 triplicate.

605

606 In vitro Lubbock Chronic Wound Biofilm Model

In this study, we adapted the Lubbock Chronic Wound Biofilm Model developed by Sun 607 608 et al.[81]. Wound-like Media (WLM; 50% Bolton broth, 45% heparinized bovine plasma, 5% laked horse blood) was aliguoted (3mL) into sterile glass test tubes. Overnight cultures (5 mL) of 609 S. aureus and P. aeruginosa were normalized to an OD₆₀₀ of 0.125 in Bolton broth (BB). This 610 suspension was subsequently diluted 1:10 into 900 µL BB so that 10µL of each culture was 611 normalized to 5x10⁵ CFU. LCWBM preparation followed by inoculating WLM with 10 µL of 612 613 diluted S. aureus and P. aeruginosa as monocultures and cocultures. A sterile pipette tip (20µL 614 Rainin SoftFit-L Tips; Thermo Fisher Scientific) was ejected into the test tube during inoculation. 615 Biofilms were cultured at 37°C with shaking and harvested after 24 h of incubation. Biofilms 616 were harvested from the glass tubes, imaged, and the pipette tip was removed. Each biofilm 617 was washed three times with 500 µL sterile PBS and transferred to a new sterile plate, imaged, 618 and excess medium was removed. Biofilms were transferred to sterile pre-weighed tubes 619 containing four steel homogenization beads and 500µL sterile PBS. Tubes were bead-beat for 620 90 s at three 30 s intervals, with tubes placed on ice for 30 s between each bead-beating. Tubes were vortexed for 1 min. and CFU/mg was determined by serial dilution and selectively plating 621 622 for S. aureus on Mannitol Salt Agar (MSA) and P. aeruginosa on Pseudomonas Isolation Agar 623 (PIA). Results represent three separate experiments with each condition performed in triplicate.

624

625 Confocal Laser Scanning Microscopy and Image Analysis

626 Lubbock Chronic Wound Biofilms were additionally analyzed by confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM) using the Olympus FV1000-IX81 Microscope at the University of Colorado 627 Anschutz Medical Campus Advanced Light Microscopy Core. Biofilms were cultured as 628 629 described above using dsRed-expressing S. aureus strains (pHC48) and GFP-expressing P. 630 aeruginosa (pMRP9-1). Following removal of the pipette tip scaffold, harvested biofilms were placed on glass slides, fixed with 10% formalin, and coverslips were placed carefully to cover 631 the biofilm. Detection of dsRed-expressing S. aureus cells was performed using 632 excitation/emission wavelengths of 587/610 nm. Detection of GFP-expressing P. aeruginosa 633 634 was performed by using excitation/emission wavelengths of 488/509 nm. Images were acquired using 20x, 60x water-immersion, and 100x oil-immersion objectives. Data were stored as 1024-635 by 1024-pixel slices in stacks of 20 images. Three biofilms were imaged for each condition and 636 results reflect the most representative images of each condition. 637

638

639 *Murine Model of Polymicrobial Chronic Wound Infections*

All animals are housed and maintained at the University of Colorado Anschutz Medical 640 Campus Animal Care Facility accredited by the Association for Assessment and Accreditation of 641 Laboratory Care International (AAALAC). All animal studies described herein were performed in 642 accordance with best practices outlined by the Office of Laboratory Animal Resources (OLAR) 643 and Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) at the University of Colorado 644 (protocol #00987). S. aureus MW2 strains and P. aeruginosa strain PAO1 were grown overnight 645 646 at 37°C with shaking in 5mL of TSB and LB, respectively. Overnight cultures were diluted 1:100 647 into flasks containing 35 mL of TSB and LB and subcultured at 37°C with shaking to an OD₆₀₀ of 648 0.5. Subcultured bacteria were then pelleted, and resuspended in sterile saline so that all strains 649 were normalized to $5x10^5$ CFU/10 µL. One mL of each strain was aliquoted into an Eppendorf 650 tube and kept on ice throughout the experiment.

651 A murine model of polymicrobial chronic wound infection was used to assess 652 persistence and infection dynamics between S. aureus and P. aeruginosa. C57BL/6 female 653 mice (Jackson Laboratories) arrived to the animal facility at 7-weeks of age. Mice were allowed 654 to acclimate to the BSL-2 level animal housing facility at the University of Colorado Anschutz 655 Medical Campus for at least seven days prior to their inclusion in this study's *in vivo* infection model. One day prior to infection, mice were anesthetized (2-3% isoflurane; inhalation) and fur 656 657 on the dorsal surface was carefully shaved. Nair was applied to remove any remove any 658 remaining fur and completely expose the skin. On day 0, mice were anesthetized and the shaved skin surface was sterilized with an isopropyl alcohol swab and povidone iodine prep pad 659 660 (PDI Healthcare). Bupivacaine hydrochloride was used as a local anesthetic for the area to be 661 wounded and was injected subcutaneously at a dosage of 1-2 mg/kg. Buprenorphine was used as an analgesic and was injected subcutaneously at a dosage of 0.01-0.2mg/kg. A 6mm biopsy 662 punch was used with dissection scissors and forceps to excise a circular section of skin and 663 generate a wound 6 mm in diameter. Following wounding, each mouse was inoculated by 664 pipetting a final volume of 10 µL of bacterial inoculum or sterile saline (vehicle control) directly 665 onto the wound. Single infections were inoculated with 10μ L (5 x 10^5 CFU) of S. aureus or P. 666 aeruginosa. Co-infections were inoculated with 5 µL (2.5 x 10⁵ CFU) of both S. aureus and P. 667 668 aeruginosa. Following infection, wounds were covered with the transparent dressing Tegaderm 669 followed by two bandages.

The infection time course spanned nine days, Tegaderm was removed on day 2, and 670 bandages were replaced daily. Clinical severity was assessed by measuring body weight 671 672 changes. Lesions were imaged to assess wound severity and healing progression and was analyzed with ImageJ software (National Institutes of Health). On day 9, animals were 673 674 euthanized by CO2 inhalation followed by cervical dislocation. Wound tissue was excised and 675 placed in a pre-weighed 2mL vial with 0.5mL of 1XPBS and 1.0mm zirconia/silica beads. The 676 excised tissue was homogenized by bead-beating for 90 s at three 30 s intervals, with tubes placed on ice for 30 s between each bead-beating. Tubes were vortexed for 1 min, and CFU/mg 677 was determined by serial dilution and selectively plating for S. aureus on Mannitol Salt Agar 678 679 (MSA) and P. aeruginosa on Pseudomonas Isolation Agar (PIA). Results represent three 680 separate experiments with five mice per condition.

681 **Resource availability**

Further inquiries and information on reagents and resources should be directed to (and will befulfilled by) the lead contact, Alexander R. Horswill. (alexander.horswill@cuanschutz.edu)

684 Acknowledgements

685 We thank the members of the Horswill and Doran labs at the University of Colorado Medical 686 School, for their critical evaluation of this work.

687 A.R.H is funded by NIH award Al083211 and the Department of Veteran's Affairs award 688 BX002711.

689 **Declaration of interests.** The authors declare no competing interests.

690 Author Contributions

691 Conceptualization, K.K., M.B., C.J., M.S., A.R.H.; Methodology, K.K., M.B., C.J., H.C., K.M.,

- A.R.H.; Investigation, K.K., C.J.; Writing- Original Draft, K.K., Writing- Review and Editing, K.K.,
- M.B., C.J., H.C., M.S., A.R.H.; Funding Acquisition, A.R.H.; Supervision M.S., A.R.H.
- 694
- 695
- 696
- 697
- 698
- 699

700 **References**

701 702	1.	Järbrink, K., et al., <i>The humanistic and economic burden of chronic wounds: a protocol for a systematic review.</i> Systematic Reviews, 2017. 6 (1): p. 15.		
703 704	2.	Clinton, A. and T. Carter, <i>Chronic Wound Biofilms: Pathogenesis and Potential Therapies.</i> Laboratory Medicine, 2015. 46 (4): p. 277-284.		
705 706 707	3.	Nussbaum, S.R., et al., <i>An Economic Evaluation of the Impact, Cost, and Medicare Policy Implications of Chronic Nonhealing Wounds.</i> Value in Health, 2018. 21 (1): p. 27 32.		
708 709	4.	Wolcott, R.D., et al., <i>Chronic wounds and the medical biofilm paradigm.</i> J Wound Care 2010. 19 (2): p. 45-6, 48-50, 52-3.		
710 711	5.	Frykberg, R.G. and J. Banks, <i>Challenges in the Treatment of Chronic Wounds.</i> Advances in Wound Care, 2015. 4 (9): p. 560-582.		
712 713	6.	Hoversten, K.P., et al., <i>Prevention, Diagnosis, and Management of Chronic Wounds i</i> Older Adults. Mayo Clinic Proceedings, 2020. 95 (9): p. 2021-2034.		
714 715	7.	Anderson, K. and R.L. Hamm, <i>Factors That Impair Wound Healing.</i> Journal of the American College of Clinical Wound Specialists, 2012. 4 (4): p. 84-91.		
716 717 718	8.	Burmølle, M., et al., <i>Biofilms in chronic infections – a matter of opportunity – monospecies biofilms in multispecies infections.</i> FEMS Immunology & Medical Microbiology, 2010. 59 (3): p. 324-336.		
719 720	9.	Evelhoch, S.R., <i>Biofilm and Chronic Nonhealing Wound Infections.</i> Surg Clin North Am, 2020. 100 (4): p. 727-732.		
721 722	10.	Percival, S.L., S.M. Mccarty, and B. Lipsky, <i>Biofilms and Wounds: An Overview of the Evidence.</i> Advances in Wound Care, 2015. 4 (7): p. 373-381.		
723 724	11.	Gjødsbøl, K., et al., <i>Multiple bacterial species reside in chronic wounds: a longitudinal study.</i> International Wound Journal, 2006. 3 (3): p. 225-231.		
725 726	12.	Kirketerp-Moller, K., et al., <i>Distribution, Organization, and Ecology of Bacteria in Chronic Wounds.</i> Journal of Clinical Microbiology, 2008. 46 (8): p. 2717-2722.		
727 728 729	13.	Fazli, M., et al., <i>Nonrandom Distribution of Pseudomonas aeruginosa and</i> <i>Staphylococcus aureus in Chronic Wounds.</i> Journal of Clinical Microbiology, 2009. 47 (12): p. 4084-4089.		
730 731 732	14.	Malic, S., et al., <i>Detection and identification of specific bacteria in wound biofilms using peptide nucleic acid fluorescent in situ hybridization (PNA FISH)</i> . Microbiology, 2009. 155 (8): p. 2603-2611.		

733 734	15.	Serra, R., et al., <i>Chronic wound infections: the role of Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Staphylococcus aureus.</i> Expert Rev Anti Infect Ther, 2015. 13 (5): p. 605-13.
735 736 737	16.	Briaud, P., et al., <i>Impact of Coexistence Phenotype Between Staphylococcus aureus and Pseudomonas aeruginosa Isolates on Clinical Outcomes Among Cystic Fibrosis Patients.</i> Front Cell Infect Microbiol, 2020. 10 : p. 266.
738 739 740	17.	Deleon, S., et al., Synergistic Interactions of Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Staphylococcus aureus in anIn VitroWound Model. Infection and Immunity, 2014. 82 (11): p. 4718-4728.
741 742 743	18.	Cendra, M.d.M., et al., Optimal environmental and culture conditions allow the in vitro coexistence of Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Staphylococcus aureus in stable biofilms. Scientific Reports, 2019. 9 (1): p. 16284.
744 745	19.	Radlinski, L., et al., <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa exoproducts determine antibiotic efficacy against Staphylococcus aureus.</i> PLoS Biol, 2017. 15 (11): p. e2003981.
746 747 748	20.	Filkins, L.M., et al., <i>Coculture of Staphylococcus aureus with Pseudomonas aeruginosa Drives S. aureus towards Fermentative Metabolism and Reduced Viability in a Cystic Fibrosis Model.</i> Journal of Bacteriology, 2015. 197 (14): p. 2252-2264.
749 750 751	21.	Baldan, R., et al., Adaptation of Pseudomonas aeruginosa in Cystic Fibrosis Airways Influences Virulence of Staphylococcus aureus In Vitro and Murine Models of Co- Infection. PLoS ONE, 2014. 9 (3): p. e89614.
752 753 754	22.	Barraza, J.P. and M. Whiteley, A Pseudomonas aeruginosa Antimicrobial Affects the Biogeography but Not Fitness of Staphylococcus aureus during Coculture. mBio, 2021. 12 (2): p. e00047-21.
755 756 757	23.	Hotterbeekx, A., et al., <i>In vivo and In vitro Interactions between Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Staphylococcus spp.</i> Frontiers in Cellular and Infection Microbiology, 2017. 7 .
758 759	24.	Seth, A.K., et al., <i>Quantitative comparison and analysis of species-specific wound biofilm virulence using an in vivo, rabbit-ear model.</i> J Am Coll Surg, 2012. 215 (3): p. 388-99.
760 761 762	25.	Frydenlund Michelsen, C., et al., <i>Evolution of metabolic divergence in Pseudomonas aeruginosa during long-term infection facilitates a proto-cooperative interspecies interaction.</i> The ISME Journal, 2016. 10 (6): p. 1323-1336.
763 764 765	26.	Michelsen, C.F., et al., <i>Staphylococcus aureus Alters Growth Activity, Autolysis, and Antibiotic Tolerance in a Human Host-Adapted Pseudomonas aeruginosa Lineage.</i> Journal of Bacteriology, 2014. 196 (22): p. 3903-3911.
766 767	27.	McNally, L., et al., <i>Killing by Type VI secretion drives genetic phase separation and correlates with increased cooperation.</i> Nat Commun, 2017. 8 : p. 14371.

Alves, P.M., et al., Interaction between Staphylococcus aureus and Pseudomonas
aeruginosa is beneficial for colonisation and pathogenicity in a mixed biofilm. Pathog
Dis, 2018. **76**(1).

- Millette, G., et al., *Despite Antagonism in vitro, Pseudomonas aeruginosa Enhances Staphylococcus aureus Colonization in a Murine Lung Infection Model.* Frontiers in
 Microbiology, 2019. 10.
- Armbruster, C.R., et al., *Staphylococcus aureus Protein A Mediates Interspecies Interactions at the Cell Surface of Pseudomonas aeruginosa.* mBio, 2016. 7(3).
- 31. Crosby, H.A., J. Kwiecinski, and A.R. Horswill, *Staphylococcus aureus Aggregation and*Coagulation Mechanisms, and Their Function in Host–Pathogen Interactions, in
 Advances in Applied Microbiology. 2016, Elsevier. p. 1-41.
- Schaeffer, C.R., et al., Accumulation-associated protein enhances Staphylococcus
 epidermidis biofilm formation under dynamic conditions and is required for infection in a
 rat catheter model. Infect Immun, 2015. 83(1): p. 214-26.
- 33. Corrigan, R.M., et al., *The role of Staphylococcus aureus surface protein SasG in adherence and biofilm formation.* Microbiology (Reading), 2007. **153**(Pt 8): p. 24352446.
- 785 34. Kuroda, M., et al., *Staphylococcus aureus surface protein SasG contributes to*786 *intercellular autoaggregation of Staphylococcus aureus.* Biochem Biophys Res
 787 Commun, 2008. **377**(4): p. 1102-6.
- 78835.Geoghegan, J.A., et al., Role of surface protein SasG in biofilm formation by789Staphylococcus aureus. J Bacteriol, 2010. **192**(21): p. 5663-73.
- Roche, F.M., M. Meehan, and T.J. Foster, *The Staphylococcus aureus surface protein*SasG and its homologues promote bacterial adherence to human desquamated nasal
 epithelial cells. Microbiology, 2003. **149**(10): p. 2759-2767.
- 37. Roche, F.M., et al., *Characterization of novel LPXTG-containing proteins of Staphylococcus aureus identified from genome sequences.* Microbiology (Reading),
 2003. **149**(Pt 3): p. 643-654.
- Rohde, H., et al., *Induction of Staphylococcus epidermidis biofilm formation via proteolytic processing of the accumulation-associated protein by staphylococcal and host proteases.* Mol Microbiol, 2005. 55(6): p. 1883-95.
- Paharik, A.E., et al., *The metalloprotease SepA governs processing of accumulation-*associated protein and shapes intercellular adhesive surface properties in
 Staphylococcus epidermidis. Mol Microbiol, 2016.

802 803 804	40.	Yarawsky, A.E., et al., <i>The biofilm adhesion protein Aap from Staphylococcus epidermidis forms zinc-dependent amyloid fibers.</i> J Biol Chem, 2020. 295 (14): p. 4411-4427.
805	41.	Mills, K.B., et al., skin colonization is mediated by SasG lectin variation. bioRxiv, 2023.
806 807	42.	Maciag, J.J., et al., <i>Mechanistic basis of staphylococcal interspecies competition for skin colonization.</i> bioRxiv, 2023.
808 809 810	43.	Roy, P., A.R. Horswill, and P.D. Fey, <i>Glycan-Dependent Corneocyte Adherence of Staphylococcus epidermidis Mediated by the Lectin Subdomain of Aap.</i> mBio, 2021. 12 (4): p. e0290820.
811 812 813	44.	Gruszka, D.T., et al., <i>Staphylococcal biofilm-forming protein has a contiguous rod-like structure.</i> Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 2012. 109 (17): p. E1011-E1018.
814 815 816	45.	Formosa-Dague, C., et al., <i>Zinc-dependent mechanical properties of Staphylococcus aureus biofilm-forming surface protein SasG.</i> Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A, 2016. 113 (2): p. 410-5.
817 818 819	46.	Conrady, D.G., et al., <i>A zinc-dependent adhesion module is responsible for intercellular adhesion in staphylococcal biofilms.</i> Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 2008. 105 (49): p. 19456-19461.
820 821 822	47.	Conrady, D.G., J.J. Wilson, and A.B. Herr, <i>Structural basis for Zn2+-dependent intercellular adhesion in staphylococcal biofilms.</i> Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 2013. 110 (3): p. E202-E211.
823 824	48.	Crosby, H., et al., Host-derived protease promotes aggregation of Staphylococcus aureus by cleaving the surface protein SasG. 2022.
825 826	49.	Gruszka, D.T., et al., <i>Disorder drives cooperative folding in a multidomain protein.</i> Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 2016. 113 (42): p. 11841-11846.
827 828	50.	Gruszka, D.T., et al., <i>Cooperative folding of intrinsically disordered domains drives assembly of a strong elongated protein.</i> Nature Communications, 2015. 6 (1): p. 7271.
829 830	51.	Meyer, T.C., et al., <i>A Comprehensive View on the Human Antibody Repertoire Against.</i> Front Immunol, 2021. 12 : p. 651619.
831 832	52.	Monecke, S., et al., A field guide to pandemic, epidemic and sporadic clones of methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus. PLoS One, 2011. 6 (4): p. e17936.
833 834 835	53.	Crosby, H.A., et al., <i>The Staphylococcus aureus ArIRS two-component system regulates virulence factor expression through MgrA</i> . Molecular Microbiology, 2020. 113 (1): p. 103-122.

836 837 838	54.	Carrera-Salinas, A., et al., <i>Staphylococcus aureus surface protein G (sasG) allelic variants: correlation between biofilm formation and their prevalence in methicillin-resistant S. aureus (MRSA) clones.</i> Research in Microbiology, 2022. 173 (3): p. 103921.
839 840	55.	Speziale, P., et al., <i>Protein-based biofilm matrices in Staphylococci.</i> Front Cell Infect Microbiol, 2014. 4 : p. 171.
841 842 843	56.	Yonemoto, K., et al., <i>Redundant and Distinct Roles of Secreted Protein Eap and Cell Wall-Anchored Protein SasG in Biofilm Formation and Pathogenicity of Staphylococcus aureus.</i> Infection and Immunity, 2019. 87 (4).
844 845	57.	Haaber, J., et al., <i>Planktonic Aggregates of Staphylococcus aureus Protect against Common Antibiotics.</i> PLoS ONE, 2012. 7 (7): p. e41075.
846 847	58.	Cai, YM., <i>Non-surface Attached Bacterial Aggregates: A Ubiquitous Third Lifestyle.</i> Frontiers in Microbiology, 2020. 11 .
848 849 850	59.	Crosby, H.A., et al., <i>The Staphylococcus aureus Global Regulator MgrA Modulates Clumping and Virulence by Controlling Surface Protein Expression.</i> PLOS Pathogens, 2016. 12 (5): p. e1005604.
851 852 853	60.	Kwiecinski, J.M., et al., <i>Staphylococcus aureus adhesion in endovascular infections is controlled by the ArIRS–MgrA signaling cascade.</i> PLOS Pathogens, 2019. 15 (5): p. e1007800.
854 855 856	61.	Schneewind, O. and D.M. Missiakas, <i>Staphylococcal Protein Secretion and Envelope Assembly.</i> Microbiology spectrum, 2019. 7 (4): p. 10.1128/microbiolspec.GPP3-0070-2019.
857 858	62.	Mazmanian, S.K., et al., <i>Staphylococcus aureus sortase, an enzyme that anchors surface proteins to the cell wall.</i> Science, 1999. 285 (5428): p. 760-3.
859 860 861	63.	Jurado-Martín, I., M. Sainz-Mejías, and S. McClean, <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa: An Audacious Pathogen with an Adaptable Arsenal of Virulence Factors.</i> Int J Mol Sci, 2021. 22 (6).
862 863	64.	Lee, J. and L. Zhang, <i>The hierarchy quorum sensing network in Pseudomonas aeruginosa.</i> Protein & Cell, 2015. 6 (1): p. 26-41.
864 865	65.	Suleman, L., <i>Extracellular Bacterial Proteases in Chronic Wounds: A Potential Therapeutic Target?</i> Adv Wound Care (New Rochelle), 2016. 5 (10): p. 455-463.
866 867	66.	Lindsay, S., A. Oates, and K. Bourdillon, <i>The detrimental impact of extracellular bacterial proteases on wound healing.</i> Int Wound J, 2017. 14 (6): p. 1237-1247.
868 869	67.	O'Callaghan, R., et al., <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa Keratitis: Protease IV and PASP as Corneal Virulence Mediators.</i> Microorganisms, 2019. 7 (9): p. 281.

870 871 872	68.	Galdino, A.C.M., et al., <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Its Arsenal of Proteases:</i> <i>Weapons to Battle the Host</i> , in <i>Pathophysiological Aspects of Proteases</i> , S. Chakraborti and N.S. Dhalla, Editors. 2017, Springer Singapore: Singapore. p. 381-397.	
873 874 875 876	69.	Hoge, R., et al., Weapons of a pathogen: Proteases and their role in virulence of <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> , in <i>Mendez-Vilas A (ed) Current Research, technology and education topics in applied microbiology and microbial biotechnology</i> . 2010, Formatex Research Center: Badajoz, Spain. p. 383-395.	
877 878 879	70.	Zhu, H., et al., <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa with LasI Quorum-Sensing Deficiency during Corneal Infection.</i> Investigative Ophthalmology & Visual Science, 2004. 45 (6): p. 1897-1903.	
880 881 882	71.	Pearson, J.P., E.C. Pesci, and B.H. Iglewski, <i>Roles of Pseudomonas aeruginosa las and rhl quorum-sensing systems in control of elastase and rhamnolipid biosynthesis genes.</i> J Bacteriol, 1997. 179 (18): p. 5756-67.	
883 884 885	72.	Mateu-Borrás, M., et al., <i>Molecular Analysis of the Contribution of Alkaline Protease A and Elastase B to the Virulence of Pseudomonas aeruginosa Bloodstream Infections.</i> Frontiers in Cellular and Infection Microbiology, 2022. 11 .	
886 887 888	73.	Schmidtchen, A., H. Wolff, and C. Hansson, <i>Differential proteinase expression by Pseudomonas aeruginosa derived from chronic leg ulcers.</i> Acta Derm Venereol, 2001. 81 (6): p. 406-9.	
889 890	74.	Park, JH., et al., <i>Acceleration of protease effect on Staphylococcus aureus biofilm dispersal.</i> FEMS Microbiology Letters, 2012. 335 (1): p. 31-38.	
891 892 893 894	75.	Brint, J.M. and D.E. Ohman, Synthesis of multiple exoproducts in Pseudomonas aeruginosa is under the control of RhIR-RhII, another set of regulators in strain PAO1 with homology to the autoinducer-responsive LuxR-LuxI family. Journal of Bacteriology, 1995. 177 (24): p. 7155-7163.	
895 896	76.	Pesci, E.C., et al., <i>Regulation of las and rhl quorum sensing in Pseudomonas aeruginosa.</i> Journal of Bacteriology, 1997. 179 (10): p. 3127-3132.	
897 898 899	77.	Wilder, C.N., S.P. Diggle, and M. Schuster, <i>Cooperation and cheating in Pseudomonas aeruginosa: the roles of the las, rhl and pqs quorum-sensing systems.</i> The ISME Journal, 2011. 5 (8): p. 1332-1343.	
900 901	78.	Tan, X., et al., <i>Transcriptional analysis and target genes discovery of Pseudomonas aeruginosa biofilm developed ex vivo chronic wound model.</i> AMB Express, 2021. 11 (1).	
902 903	79.	MA, W., <i>Methods for dilution antimicrobial susceptibility tests for bacteria that grow aerobically: approved standard.</i> Clsi (Nccls), 2006. 26 : p. M7-A7.	

Bi Giulio, M., et al., Graphene Oxide affects Staphylococcus aureus and Pseudomonas
 aeruginosa dual species biofilm in Lubbock Chronic Wound Biofilm model. Scientific
 Reports, 2020. 10(1).

- 81. Sun, Y., et al., *In vitro multispecies Lubbock chronic wound biofilm model.* Wound Repair
 and Regeneration, 2008. **16**(6): p. 805-813.
- Pastar, I., et al., Interactions of Methicillin Resistant Staphylococcus aureus USA300 and
 Pseudomonas aeruginosa in Polymicrobial Wound Infection. PLoS ONE, 2013. 8(2): p.
 e56846.
- 83. Hendricks, K.J., et al., Synergy between Staphylococcus aureus and Pseudomonas
 aeruginosa in a rat model of complex orthopaedic wounds. J Bone Joint Surg Am, 2001.
 83(6): p. 855-61.
- 91584.Dowd, S.E., et al., Survey of bacterial diversity in chronic wounds using Pyrosequencing,916DGGE, and full ribosome shotgun sequencing. BMC Microbiology, 2008. 8(1): p. 43.
- 85. Frank, D.N., et al., *Microbial diversity in chronic open wounds.* Wound Repair Regen,
 2009. **17**(2): p. 163-72.
- 86. Limoli, D.H., et al., *Pseudomonas aeruginosa Alginate Overproduction Promotes Coexistence with Staphylococcus aureus in a Model of Cystic Fibrosis Respiratory Infection.* mBio, 2017. 8(2).
- 87. Woods, P.W., et al., *Maintenance of S. aureus in Co-culture With P. aeruginosa While*923 *Growing as Biofilms*. Frontiers in Microbiology, 2019. 9.
- Prasad, A.S.B., et al., *Pseudomonas aeruginosa virulence proteins pseudolysin and protease IV impede cutaneous wound healing.* Laboratory Investigation, 2020. 100(12):
 p. 1532-1550.
- 89. Nakagami, G., et al., Contribution of quorum sensing to the virulence of Pseudomonas
 aeruginosa in pressure ulcer infection in rats. Wound Repair and Regeneration, 2011.
 19(2): p. 214-222.
- 930 90. Andrejko, M., et al., *Three Pseudomonas aeruginosa strains with different protease* 931 profiles. Acta Biochim Pol, 2013. **60**(1): p. 83-90.
- 932 91. Hoge, R., et al., Weapons of a pathogen: Proteases and their role in virulence of
 933 Pseudomonas aeruginosa, in Mendez-Vilas A (ed) Current Research, technology and
 934 education topics in applied microbiology and microbial biotechnology. 2010, Formatex
 935 Research Center: Badajoz, Spain. p. 383-395.

936 92. Rumbaugh, K.P., et al., *Contribution of Quorum Sensing to the Virulence*937 of*Pseudomonas aeruginosa in Burn Wound Infections*. Infection and Immunity, 1999. 938 67(11): p. 5854-5862.

939 93. Casilag, F., et al., *The LasB Elastase of Pseudomonas aeruginosa Acts in Concert with*940 *Alkaline Protease AprA To Prevent Flagellin-Mediated Immune Recognition.* Infect
941 Immun, 2016. 84(1): p. 162-71.

- 94. Toder, D.S., M.J. Gambello, and B.H. Iglewski, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa LasA: a*943 second elastase under the transcriptional control of lasR. Mol Microbiol, 1991. 5(8): p.
 944 2003-10.
- 945 95. Coin, D., et al., *LasA, alkaline protease and elastase in clinical strains of Pseudomonas*946 *aeruginosa: quantification by immunochemical methods.* FEMS Immunology & Medical
 947 Microbiology, 1997. **18**(3): p. 175-184.
- 948 96. Kessler, E., et al., Secreted LasA of Pseudomonas aeruginosa is a staphylolytic
 949 protease. J Biol Chem, 1993. 268(10): p. 7503-8.
- 97. Crosby, H.A., et al., *Host-derived protease promotes aggregation of Staphylococcus*951 *aureus by cleaving the surface protein SasG.* mBio, 2024. **15**(4): p. e03483-23.

952 98. Orazi, G. and G.A. O'Toole, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa Alters Staphylococcus aureus*953 Sensitivity to Vancomycin in a Biofilm Model of Cystic Fibrosis Infection. mBio, 2017.
954 8(4).

- 95. 99. Trizna, E.Y., et al., *Bidirectional alterations in antibiotics susceptibility in Staphylococcus*956 *aureus-Pseudomonas aeruginosa dual-species biofilm.* Sci Rep, 2020. **10**(1): p. 14849.
- 957 100. Orazi, G., K.L. Ruoff, and G.A. O'Toole, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa Increases the* 958 Sensitivity of Biofilm-Grown Staphylococcus aureus to Membrane-Targeting Antiseptics
 959 and Antibiotics. mBio, 2019. **10**(4).
- 101. Ibberson, C.B., et al., *Precise spatial structure impacts antimicrobial susceptibility of S.* aureus in polymicrobial wound infections. Proceedings of the National Academy of
 Sciences, 2022. **119**(51).
- 102. Trivedi, U., et al., Staphylococcus aureuscoagulases are exploitable yet stable public
 goods in clinically relevant conditions. Proceedings of the National Academy of
 Sciences, 2018. 115(50): p. E11771-E11779.
- 103. Ibberson, C.B., et al., *Hyaluronan Modulation Impacts Staphylococcus aureus Biofilm Infection.* Infect Immun, 2016. 84(6): p. 1917-1929.
- 968 104. Novick, R.P., *Genetic systems in staphylococci.* Methods Enzymol, 1991. 204: p. 587969 636.
- 105. Davies, D.G., et al., *The involvement of cell-to-cell signals in the development of a*bacterial biofilm. Science, 1998. **280**(5361): p. 295-8.
- Hmelo, L.R., et al., *Precision-engineering the Pseudomonas aeruginosa genome with two-step allelic exchange.* Nature Protocols, 2015. **10**(11): p. 1820-1841.

107. CLSI, Methods for Dilution Antimicrobial Susceptibility Tests for Bacteria That Grow
 Aerobically; Approved Standard—Ninth Edition., in CLSI document M07-A9. 2012,
 Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute: Wayne, PA.

- Wiegand, I., K. Hilpert, and R.E. Hancock, *Agar and broth dilution methods to determine the minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) of antimicrobial substances.* Nat Protoc, 2008.
 3(2): p. 163-75.
- Jenul, C., et al., *Pyochelin biotransformation by Staphylococcusaureus shapes bacterial competition with Pseudomonas aeruginosa in polymicrobial infections*. Cell Rep, 2023.
 42(6): p. 112540.





985

Figure 1. S. aureus aggregation is SasG-dependent and induced by P. aeruginosa. (A) 986 Graphical representation of the structure of S. aureus SasG. (B) Aggregation of S. aureus MW2 987 $\Delta mgrA$ and $\Delta mgrA\Delta sasG$ mutants following incubation for one hour with *P. aeruginosa* cell-free 988 989 supernatant diluted in PBS in increasing concentrations from 0-100%. (C) Representative image showing aggregation of the $\Delta mgrA$ and $\Delta mgrA\Delta sasG$ mutants following incubation with 10% P. 990 aeruginosa supernatant for one hour at room temperature. (D) Coomassie stained SDS-PAGE 991 gel showing SasG processing by increasing concentrations of P. aeruginosa supernatant. Cell 992 993 wall proteins were extracted from the same samples as described above prior to treatment (input) and following aggregation. Results represent an average of three independent 994 experiments performed in triplicate ± SEM (n=9). Statistical significance was determined by 2-995 way ANOVA with Bonferroni multiple comparisons test (****p<0.0001). 996



997

998 Figure 2. P. aeruginosa las regulated proteases cleave SasG and induce S. aureus aggregation. (A) Aggregation of the S. aureus MW2 $\Delta mgrA$ mutant treated for one hour 999 1000 with 10% P. aeruginosa cell-free supernatant from mutant strains in a PAO1 background with 1001 deletions of each of the three major quorum sensing systems ($\Delta lasR$, $\Delta rhIR$, $\Delta pgsA$, and 1002 $\Delta lasR\Delta rhIR$). Vertical bars represent four independent experiments SEM ± (n=12). (B) stained SDS-PAGE ael showing SasG processing 1003 Coomassie associated with S. 1004 aureus aggregation induced by PAO1 quorum sensing mutants. (C) MRSA aggregation induced 1005 by a triple protease mutant $\Delta las A \Delta las B \Delta a prA$. Each protease is sufficient to cleave SasG, but 1006 exhibits varying levels of activity. (D & F) MRSA aggregation induced by various PAO1 protease mutant supernatants. (E & G) SasG cleavage after treatment with 10% PAO1 double protease 1007 mutants. Methodology repeated as described in (Fig. 2A & 3B). Vertical bars represent three 1008 independent experiments SEM \pm (n=9). Statistical significance was determined using the 1009 Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's test for multiple comparisons (****p<0.0001, ***p<0.001, 1010 1011 **p<0.01, *p<0.1).



1013 Figure 3. Protease genes lasA, lasB, and aprA are differentially expressed in P. aeruginosa PAO1 in a guorum sensing-dependent manner. (A) Transcriptional expression 1014 1015 of protease genes lasA, lasB, and aprA in wild-type PAO1 and isogenic mutants of $\Delta rhIR$ and 1016 $\Delta las R$. Expression levels were quantified by RT-qPCR, relative mRNA levels for target genes 1017 were normalized to the expression of reference gene rpoD via the pfaffl method. Vertical bars 1018 represent results from 3 independent experiments performed in triplicate SEM \pm (n=9). Data 1019 were analyzed by 2-way ANOVA with Holm-Sidák multiple comparisons test. (B) AprA induces SasG-dependent aggregation. E. coli BL21 expressing the apr operon in pBAD18 induced with 1020 arabinose or uninduced (repressed with glucose) supernatant was collected and diluted in PBS 1021 1022 to 10%. MW2 $\Delta mgrA$ was treated for 1hr in an aggregation assay and aggregation was quantified. Results represent an average of three independent experiments SEM ± (n=12). 1023 Statistical significance was determined using the Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's test for multiple 1024 1025 comparisons (****p<0.0001, ***p<0.001, **p<0.01, *p<0.1).



Figure 4. SasG-dependent S. aureus aggregates exhibit increased tolerance to antibiotics 1027 Ciprofloxacin and Vancomycin. Aggregation assays were performed by treating MRSA 1028 Δ mgrA and the Δ mgrA Δ sasG mutant with either PBS or 10% PAO1 supernatant. Following 1029 aggregation for 1hr, MRSA was treated with (A) Ciprofloxacin (Cip) or (B) Vancomycin (Vn) for 5 1030 1031 hours, and CFUs were recovered to quantify antimicrobial susceptibility. Vertical bars represent 1032 results from three independent experiments SEM ± (n=9). Statistical significance was determined by One-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test (****p<0.0001, 1033 ***p<0.001, **p<0.01, *p<0.1). 1034



1035

1036 Figure 5. SasG-dependent aggregates promote biofilm formation and contribute to S. 1037 aureus survival when co-infected with P. aeruginosa in vitro. (A) Schematic of the Lubbock Biofilm model. (B) Representative images of mono-microbial and polymicrobial biofilms formed 1038 in the Lubbock Model. (C) MRSA and PAO1 CFUs recovered from monomicrobial and 1039 polymicrobial biofilms inoculated with MRSA Δ mgrA, the Δ mgrA Δ sasG mutant, and/or PAO1 1040 1041 represented by CFU/mg of biofilm. (D) Representative confocal microscopy images of polymicrobial biofilms expressing MRSA-dsRED or PAO1-GFP, taken with the 60X objective. 1042 1043 (E) Average total thickness of polymicrobial biofilms (µm). (F) Average thickness of the entire 1044 biofilm area taken up by MRSA or PAO1 (µm). (G) Average thickness of the MRSA or PAO1 biomass within the biofilm (µm) (H) Total biovolume of MRSA or PAO1 within Lubbock Biofilms 1045 (µm³). All microscopy images were quantified with COMSTAT and results represent an average 1046 1047 of three independent experiments performed in triplicate SEM \pm (n=9). Statistical significance of CFU recovery was determined by One-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test, and 1048 1049 image analyses were determined by Mann-Whitney test SEM \pm (n=9). (****p<0.0001, ***p<0.001, **p<0.01, *p<0.1). 1050



1053 Figure 6. SasG increases S. aureus survival and contributes to worse clinical outcomes in an in vivo model of polymicrobial chronic wound infections. (A) Schematic of in vivo 1054 polymicrobial chronic wound model. (B) Representative images showing chronic wound 1055 progression over the 9 day time course. (C) Quantification of wound healing over 9 days, 1056 1057 represented as the percent difference of the initial wound size with statistical significance representing comparisons between co-infections. (D) MRSA and (E) PAO1 CFUs recovered 1058 1059 from excised wound tissue at the day 9 endpoint. Results represent an average of three 1060 independent experiments performed SEM \pm (n=15). Statistical significance was determined by 1061 One-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test or Mann-Whitney test (****p<0.0001).



1063



1065

1066 Supplementary Figure 1. The regulator MgrA represses sasG under laboratory 1067 **conditions.** (A) Aggregation of MRSA strain USA400 MW2 WT, $\Delta mgrA$, and $\Delta sasG$ strains treated with 0-100% WT PAO1 supernatant. (B) Quantification of Coomassie stained SDS-1068 PAGE gel showing cell wall protein extractions from Figure 1D following aggregation. (C) MRSA 1069 $\Delta mgrA$ mutant aggregation treated with 10% heat treated and WT PAO1 supernatant. (D) 1070 Blocking of S. aureus aggregation by SasG B domain antibodies. Results represent an average 1071 1072 of three independent experiments performed in triplicate ± SEM (n=6). Statistical significance was determined by one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni multiple comparisons test (****p<0.0001). 1073



1074

1075 Supplementary Figure 2. SasG-dependent MRSA aggregates are more tolerant to

antimicrobials. OD600 showing growth of MRSA over 18 hours with treatment of (A) Cip or (B)
 Vn.





MRSA AsasG

0.01

MRSA ∆sasG

1

1087 Table 1. Bacterial strains & plasmids

Strain/Plasmid	Genotype/Properties	Source	
Bacterial Strains			
E. coli			
DH5a	Cloning Strain	NEB	
BL21 (DE3)	Protein expression strain	Novagen	
DC10B	Cloning Strain & Conjugation donor	[103]	
SM10 (λpir)	Conjugation donor strain	Schurr	
HB101	Conjugation helper strain	[104]	
AH5308	Top10 (pEXG2)	This Study	
AH5496	SM10 (pEXG2 ∆ <i>lasA</i>)	This Study	
AH5497	SM10 (pEXG2 ∆ <i>lasA</i>)	This Study	
S. aureus			
RN4220		[64]	
AH0843	Wild-type MW2	[64]	
AH3422	MW2 ∆ <i>mgrA</i>	[64]	
AH3812	MW2 ∆sasG	[64]	
AH3989	MW2 ∆ <i>mgrA</i> ∆sasG	[64]	
AH5623		[97]	
AH6398	MW2 <i>∆mgrA</i> (pHC48)	This Study	
AH6399	MW2 <i>∆mgrA ∆sasG</i> (pHC48)	This Study	
P. aeruginosa			
AH5132	Wild-type PAO1		
AH5133	∆lasR	Mike Schurr	
AH5134	$\Delta rhIR$	Mike Schurr	

AH5135	ΔlasR ΔrhIR	Mike Schurr
AH5136	∆pqsA	[109]
AH5505	PAO1 ∆ <i>lasA</i>	This Study
AH5516	PAO1 ∆ <i>lasB</i>	This Study
AH5713	PAO1 ∆aprA	This Study
AH5517	PAO1 ∆ <i>lasA</i> ∆ <i>lasB</i>	This Study
AH5715	PAO1 ∆lasA ∆aprA	This Study
AH5716	PAO1 ∆ <i>lasB</i> ∆aprA	This Study
AH5714	PAO1 ∆lasA ∆lasB ∆aprA	This Study
AH5742	PAO1 (pMRP9-1)	[99]
Plasmids		
Plasmid	Genotype/Properties	Source
pEXG2	Allelic exchange vector	[105]
pRK600	Helper plasmid	[106]
pBAD18	Protein expression plasmid	[107]
pHC48	dsRed expression vector	[97]
pMRP9-1	GFP expression vector	[99]
pHC207	pEXG2 ∆ <i>lasA</i>	This Study
pHC208	pEXG2 ∆ <i>lasB</i>	This Study
pHC211	pEXG2 ∆aprA	This Study

1088 Table 2. Primers

Oligonucleotides		
Identifier	Primer Name	Sequence
KK25	pBAD_sseq_fwd	ATGCCATAGCATTTTTATCC
KK26	pBAD_sseq_rev	GATTTAATCTGTATCAGG
KK31	pBAD_fwd	CTGTTTTGGCGGATGAG
KK32	pBAD_fwd	AACGGGTATGGAGAAACAG
KK33	aprA_internal_fwd	AAAGGTCGTAGCGATGCGTA
KK34	aprA_internal_ rev	GAGGTGGCGCTGTAGAAGTC
KK04	aprA_pBAD18_Hin dIII_rev	GACTAAGCTTTCAGACGACGATGTCGG
KK47	PA1245 up Sacl fwd	GATCGAGCTCAACAAGTTGTCGCCAGGC
KK49	aprD_pBAD18_Bm tl_fwd	GACTGCTAGCCTCATTCGGGATTCCAGC
KK50	aprA downstream HindIII rev	GACTAAGCTTATCAGACTGCTGGCCATACTGATAC
HC835	pEXG2 Gibson fwd	CCTTAATTAATTTCCACGGGTG
HC836	pEXG2 Gibson rev	GTCGACCTGCAGAAGCTTGC
HC837	lasA delA Gibson	GTAAAGCAAGCTTCTGCAGGTCGACGAAATCGATGATATCCAG GACC
HC838	lasA delB Gibson	AACTCGAGCCGCAAGCATGCTGAAGGATCTTTTGTGCTGCATG G
HC839	lasA delC Gibson	TTCAGCATGCTTGCGGCTCGAGTTTTCCGTCCGTTGTACAACC C
HC840	lasA delD Gibson	CGCACCCGTGGAAATTAATTAAGGTCACCACCGGCATCATCTT C
HC841	lasA chrom up	GTCGGTTGGATTTCCTGAATC

HC842	lasA chrom down	AGGGAGCGCTGCTGAAAGTC
HC843	aprA delA Gibson	GCAAGCTTCTGCAGGTCGACGACCTGCTGAACGCCGAGCA
HC844	aprA delB Gibson	AACTCGAGCCGCAAGCATGCTGAATGCAAGAGAATTGCTGGAC AT
HC845	aprA delC Gibson	TTCAGCATGCTTGCGGCTCGAGTTGATTTCGCGATCAATCTGA T
HC846	aprA delD Gibson	CACCCGTGGAAATTAATTAAGGACCGAGGAGCATCAGGGTCA
HC847	aprA chrom up	CTACGAGATGACCGTGGATTC
HC848	aprA chrom down	ACGACCTCAAGGGCATGATC
HC855	pEXG2 for	CTCATTTCACTAAATAATAGTGAACGGC
HC856	pEXG2 rev	CAT TCT GCT AAC CAG TAA GGC AAC
HC875	lasB delA Gibson	GTAAAGCAAGCTTCTGCAGGTCGACCAGGAAAACTTCGGCGCT TTCTC
HC876	lasB delB Gibson	AAC TCG AGC CGC AAG CAT GCT GAA CGT AGA AAC CTT CTT CAT CTT GTT CAG TTC
HC877	lasB delC Gibson	TTCAGCATGCTTGCGGCTCGAGTTCAGAACCGCAACTACTCGG C
HC878	lasB delD Gibson	CAC CCG TGG AAA TTA ATT AAG GCG TAC GAA GGC CTG CAC CAG
HC879	lasB chrom up	GCTGCCGGACTATCGTTG
HC880	lasB chrom down	GCGAGAGGAACTGATGCAA
KK23	gyrB fwd KK	AACGGACGTGGTATCCCAGTTGAT
KK24	gyrB rev KK	CCGCCAAATTTACCACCAGCATGT
KK15	sasG_RT- qPCR_fwd	GCAGAAGCAGCTGAAAACAA
KK16	sasG_RT- qPCR_fwd	GTGGTGCAGTGTCTTTGTTTG

KK65	aprA_qPCR_fwd	TGATCAACAGCAGCTACAGCGC
KK66	aprA_qPCR_rev	TATGGCCGATCTCGTGGGTCAG
KK71	lasB_qPCR_fwd	AAGACCGAGAATGACAAAGTGG
KK72	lasB_qPCR_rev	TCAGGTAGGAGACGTTGTAGAC
KK79	lasA_qPCR_fwd	GCGGCTACTACAGCATCAAC
KK80	lasA_qPCR_rev	GTATTCCTCGAAACCGTAGTAG
KK85	lasR_qPCR_fwd	ACGCTCAAGTGGAAAATTGG
KK86	lasR_qPCR_rev	TCGTAGTCCTGGCTGTCCTT
KK89	rhIR_qPCR_fwd	CGGTCTGCCTGAGCCATC
KK90	rhIR_qPCR_rev	GCCAGCGTCTTGTTCGG
KK91	rpoD_qPCR_fwd	GGGCGAAGAAGGAAATGGTC
KK92	rpoD_qPCR_rev	GTATTCGAACTTGTCCACCGC