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4 **Interaction between atypical microorganisms and *E. coli* in catheter-** 5 **associated urinary tract biofilms**

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18

19 **Abstract**

20 Most biofilms involved in catheter-associated urinary tract infections (CAUTIs) are
21 polymicrobial, with disease causing (e.g. *Escherichia coli*) and atypical microorganisms
22 (e.g. *Delftia tsuruhatensis*) frequently co-inhabiting the same catheter. Nevertheless,
23 there is a lack of knowledge about the role of atypical microorganisms. Here, single- and
24 dual-species biofilms consisting of *E. coli* and atypical bacteria (*D. tsuruhatensis*,
25 *Achromobacter xylosoxidans*), were evaluated. All species were good biofilm producers
26 (Log 5.84-7.25 CFUs cm⁻² at 192 h) in artificial urine. The ability of atypical species to
27 form biofilm appears to be hampered by the presence of *E. coli*. Additionally, when *E.*
28 *coli* was added to a pre-formed biofilm of the atypical species, it seemed to take advantage
29 of the first colonizers to accelerate adhesion, even when added at lower concentrations.
30 Results suggest a greater ability of *E. coli* to form biofilms in conditions mimicking the
31 CAUTIs, whatever the pre-existing microbiota and the inoculum concentration.

32 **Running title:** Catheter-associated urinary tract biofilms.

33 **Keywords:** *Escherichia coli*, atypical species, multispecies biofilms, urinary tract
34 infections, urinary catheters.

35

36 **Introduction**

37 Hospital-acquired (nosocomial) infections are frequently related with biofilms formed in
38 medical devices, such as prosthetic heart valves, cardiac pacemakers, urinary catheters,
39 contact lenses and orthopedic devices (Campoccia et al. 2006; Hall-Stoodley et al. 2004;
40 Morris & Stickler 1998; Silva et al. 2010; Tenke et al. 2006). The higher economic costs
41 associated with these diseases is due to long hospitalization periods for infected patients
42 (Curtis 2008; Ferrieres et al. 2007; Silva et al. 2010). The most common nosocomial
43 infections are urinary tract infections (UTIs) (Klevens et al. 2007) and about 80% of these
44 infections, known as catheter-associated UTIs (CAUTIs), are related to the insertion of
45 catheters in the urinary tract (Curtis 2008; Doyle et al. 2001). These medical devices are
46 used in hospital and nursing home settings to relieve urinary retention and incontinence
47 (Hall-Stoodley et al. 2004). However, in patients with long-term urinary catheters, the
48 infection is inevitable in most of the cases (Jacobsen et al. 2008).

49 CAUTIs originate from the colonization of the surface of catheters by microorganisms.
50 Indeed, urinary catheters provide an attractive niche for bacterial colonization due to the
51 intermittent flow of warm nutritious urine, leading to the formation and growth of a
52 biofilm (Ganderton et al. 1992). Biofilms have been described as microbial communities
53 attached to a surface and embedded in extracellular polymeric substances (EPS)
54 (Costerton et al. 1987; Stewart & Franklin 2008). In this mode of life, microorganisms
55 can survive in hostile environments, and are protected against external aggressive factors
56 encountered in host tissues (e.g. antibodies, phagocytes, etc.) or other environmentally-
57 challenging conditions (e.g. UV light, extreme temperatures, shear forces, etc.) (Donlan
58 & Costerton 2002). In contrast to their planktonic counterparts, cells in the biofilm
59 microenvironment are typically resistant to antibiotics (Lewis 2007). Consequently,
60 infections on medical devices associated with biofilms are persistent and difficult to
61 eradicate (Costerton 1999).

62 Recent studies involving urinary catheters have shown that CAUTIs are mostly
63 polymicrobial (Frank et al. 2009; Hola et al. 2010; Macleod & Stickler 2007). The
64 potential pathogens involved in initial adhesion are usually *Staphylococcus epidermidis*,
65 *Escherichia coli* or *Enterococcus faecalis* (Matsukawa et al. 2005); but several others
66 species (such as *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Proteus mirabilis*, *Providencia stuartii* and
67 *Klebsiella pneumoniae*) can appear in the later stages of infection, in conjugation with
68 initial colonizers (Jacobsen et al. 2008; Matsukawa et al. 2005). Furthermore, it was
69 recently observed that these disease causing microorganisms can co-inhabit the catheter
70 surface with other unusual microorganisms with unproven pathogenic potential (e.g.

71 *Delftia tsuruhatensis*, *Achromobacter xylosoxidans*) (Frank et al. 2009). While
72 interactions of *E. coli* with other common causes of UTIs, have already been addressed
73 (Jacobsen et al. 2008, Matsukawa et al. 2005, Cerqueira et al. 2013, Ferrieres et al. 2007);
74 there is a lack of knowledge about the possible role that these atypical microorganisms
75 have on the rate at which disease-causing microorganisms adhere and form biofilms and,
76 consequently, their effect on the CAUTIs outcome. In fact, some studies have
77 demonstrated recently, for other pathologies, that the atypical microorganisms could have
78 some important contributions in biofilm infections (Lopes et al. 2014, Lopes et al. 2012).
79 Both disease causing and atypical microorganisms have in common the ability to form
80 mono or multi-species biofilms on the surface of the urinary catheter (Frank et al. 2009),
81 which means that interactions between the different bacterial populations are possible, if
82 not likely. For instance, some of these microorganisms are able to degrade certain
83 components of plastics (Patil et al. 2006; Wan et al. 2007), which means that some
84 products of their metabolism might feed other microorganisms (e.g. *Escherichia coli*)
85 and, eventually, they could act as primary colonizers of the catheter. In opposition, it
86 might be possible that the colonization by these atypical microorganisms can prevent the
87 colonization by pathogenic bacteria. Hence, understanding the role that atypical
88 microorganisms have on biofilm dynamics might be crucial to help in the development
89 of novel strategies to prevent or minimize bacterial adhesion to catheters.

90 As such, in here we evaluated single-species (*E. coli*, *D. tsuruhatensis*, *A. xylosoxidans*)
91 and dual-species (*E. coli/D. tsuruhatensis*, *E. coli/A. xylosoxidans*) biofilm formation in
92 96-well microtiter plates. To better mimic conditions found in urinary catheters, biofilms
93 were formed in artificial urine medium (AUM) (Brooks & Keevil 1997) at 37°C. In order
94 to understand which type of interactions occurs between different species, we compared
95 dual-species biofilms with individual biofilms fitness regarding: total biomass formed,
96 total cells counts and cultivability values. Four additional features were also explored: the
97 growth rates of each microorganism, the siderophore production by *E. coli* and atypical
98 microorganisms, the antimicrobial activity of biofilm supernatants and the influence of a
99 pre-formed biofilm on the adhesion and biofilm formation of a second colonizer.

100

101 **Materials and Methods**

102 ***Bacterial maintenance and inoculum preparation***

103 For each experiment, *E. coli* CECT 434, *A. xylosoxidans* B3, *D. tsuruhatensis* BM90 were
104 streaked from a frozen stock (-80°C) on Tryptic Soy Agar (TSA) (Merck, Germany) and
105 grown overnight at 37°C. Subsequently, colonies from each species were used to
106 inoculate 75 ml of AUM. The cultures were incubated overnight (16-18 hours) at 37°C,
107 under agitation (150 rpm). Cell concentration was then assessed by optical density (O.D.)
108 at 620 nm, and the inoculum was diluted in AUM in order to obtain a final concentration
109 of 10⁸ CFUs ml⁻¹ or 10² CFUs ml⁻¹. AUM was prepared as previously described (Brooks
110 & Keevil 1997), using the following formulation in one litre of distilled water: peptone 1
111 g (Merck, Germany), yeast extract 0.05 g (Liofilchem, Italy), lactic acid 1.1 mmol l⁻¹
112 (Fluka), citric acid 0.4 g (VWR, Belgium), sodium bicarbonate 2.1 g (Merck, Germany),
113 urea 10 g (VWR, Belgium), uric acid 0.07 g (VWR, Belgium), creatinine 0.8 g (Merck,
114 Germany), calcium chloride.2H₂ O 0.37 g (Merck, Germany), sodium chloride 5.2 g
115 (Merck, Germany), iron II sulphate.7H₂ O 0.0012 g (Merck, Germany), magnesium
116 sulphate.7H₂O 0.49 g (Merck, Germany), sodium sulphate.10H₂O 3.2 g (Merck,
117 Germany), potassium dihydrogen phosphate 0.95 g (Merck, Germany), di-potassium
118 hydrogen phosphate 1.2 g (Merck) and ammonium chloride 1.3 g (Merck, Germany) (pH
119 was adjusted to 6.5).

120 Monospecies and multispecies biofilms (*E. coli* CECT 434/ *A. xylosoxidans* B3; *E. coli*
121 CECT 434/ *D. tsuruhatensis* BM90) were formed as described below.

122

123 ***Biofilm formation assays***

124 First, single-species biofilms were formed to study the biofilm-forming ability of each
125 species. For this, 200 µl of each inoculum in AUM (10⁸ CFUs ml⁻¹ of initial
126 concentration) were transferred into each well of a 96-well tissue culture plate (Orange
127 Scientific, Braine-l'Alleud, Belgium). An additional experiment at an initial inoculum
128 concentration of 10⁶ CFUs ml⁻¹ was performed in order to evaluate the influence of initial
129 inoculation level on the biofilm formation of the three species under study (results are
130 presented in supplemental material).

131 In order to understand how *E. coli* biofilm-formation is affected in the presence of the
132 atypical microorganisms, a total of 3 species combinations (*E. coli*/ *A. xylosoxidans*; *E.*
133 *coli*/ *D. tsuruhatensis*) at the same initial concentration (10⁸ CFUs ml⁻¹) were also studied.
134 For dual-species biofilms, equal volumes of each single culture (100 µl) at an initial
135 concentration of 2 x 10⁸ CFUs ml⁻¹ were used.

136

137 Tissue culture plates were then placed in an incubator (FOC 225I - VELS Scientifica,
138 Italy) at 37°C, under static conditions, during 8 days. Every 48 h the medium was
139 carefully replaced by fresh AUM. Wells containing sterile AUM were used as a control.
140 These assays were performed in triplicate.

141 In order to test how a pre-formed single-species biofilm affects the subsequent adhesion
142 of a second colonizer, pre-colonization experiments were performed.

143 **(i)** Pre-colonization with atypical microorganisms: Wells of a 96-well tissue culture
144 plate were pre-colonized with atypical microorganisms (initial concentration of 10^8
145 CFUs ml⁻¹). After 24 h, the medium was removed, biofilm was washed twice with
146 sterile saline solution 0.85% (v/v) and 200 µl of *E. coli* suspension (initial inoculum
147 concentration of 10^2 CFUs ml⁻¹) were added. The same assay was performed but with
148 initial concentrations of 10^2 CFUs ml⁻¹ for the atypical microorganisms and 10^8 CFUs
149 ml⁻¹ for *E. coli*.

150 **(ii)** Pre-colonization with *E. coli*: The experiments described in i) were repeated but
151 microorganisms were added in reverse sequence.

152 **(iii)** Single-species biofilms: Single-species biofilms were developed to study biofilm-
153 forming ability at low initial concentration (10^2 CFUs ml⁻¹). These assays were used
154 as controls to compare the results obtained in biofilm experiments i) and ii).

155 At selected time points (24 h, 48 h, 96 h and 192 h), formation of single and dual-species
156 biofilms was assessed by CV (crystal violet) staining (for quantification of biomass
157 formed), CFUs (colony forming units) counts (for cultivable cells counts) and DAPI (4'-
158 6-Diamidino-2-phenylindole) staining (for total cells counts), as described below.

159

160

161 ***Cultivability assessment***

162 The number of cultivable biofilm cells was determined by CFUs. Briefly, at each time
163 point the biofilm was washed twice in 0.85% (v/v) sterile saline to remove loosely
164 attached cells. Subsequently, 200 µl of 0.85% (v/v) sterile saline were transferred into
165 each well of a 96-well plate. Biofilm was sonicated during 4 min (70 W, 35 kHz,
166 Ultrasonic Bath T420, Elma, Germany) and then resuspended by pipetting up and down
167 three times. The sonication step was previously optimized to ensure that all cells were
168 detached from the wells of the microtiter plate, while avoiding cell disruption (data not

169 shown). Subsequently, 100 μl of the disrupted biofilm were serially diluted (1:10) in
170 saline solution, and plated in triplicate on TSA. The plates were incubated at 37°C for 12-
171 16 h (*E. coli*), 24 h (*D. tsuruhatensis*) and 48 h (*A. xylosoxidans*). For dual-species
172 biofilms, different selective agar media were used for a better discrimination between the
173 two species. MacConkey agar (Liofilchem, Italy) was used to assess *E. coli* counts.
174 MacConkey agar is a selective/differential medium, based on lactose fermentation,
175 commonly used to discriminate *Enterobacteriaceae*. *D. tsuruhatensis* and *A. xylosoxidans*
176 presented a slow growth in this medium, but were easily distinguished due to their non-
177 lactose fermenting phenotype. The other media used include: Cetrimide agar (Liofilchem,
178 Italy) for *A. xylosoxidans* and Simmons Citrate agar (ammonium dihydrogen phosphate
179 1 g l⁻¹ [Merck, Germany]; di-potassium hydrogen phosphate 1 g l⁻¹ [Merck, Germany];
180 sodium chloride 5 g l⁻¹ [Merck, Germany]; tri-sodium citrate 2 g l⁻¹ [Sigma, USA];
181 magnesium sulfate 0.2 g l⁻¹ [Merck, Germany]; bromothymol blue 0.08 g l⁻¹ [Sigma,
182 USA]; agar 13 g l⁻¹ [Merck, Germany]) for *D. tsuruhatensis* discrimination. None of these
183 two media were able to recover *E. coli* cells. Afterwards, selective agar plates were
184 incubated at 37°C during 12-16 h (*E. coli*), 48 h (*A. xylosoxidans*) and 72 h (*D.*
185 *tsuruhatensis*). The number of cultivable bacterial cells in biofilms was determined and
186 expressed per area of well in contact with AUM (Log CFU cm⁻²).
187 As a control test, the selective medium recovery capacity for each microorganism was
188 compared with TSA. With this purpose, one of the experiments in pure culture for each
189 species was performed in the corresponding selective/differential medium and in TSA.
190 No significant differences between the CFU counts in TSA and in the
191 selective/differential media used, were found (data not shown).

192

193

194 ***Biomass quantification by the CV Assay***

195 Biomass of single and dual-species biofilms was quantified by the CV staining method
196 (Stepanovic et al. 2000). Briefly, the washed biofilm was fixed with 250 μl of 99% (v/v)
197 ethanol for 15 min. Subsequently, ethanol was removed and plates were allowed to air-
198 dry. Then, fixed biofilms were stained with 250 μl of CV (Merck, Germany) for 5 min.
199 The wells were then washed three times with water. The plates were air dried and the dye
200 bound to the adherent cells was resuspended by adding 200 μl of 33% (v/v) glacial acetic
201 acid (Merck, Germany). Finally, plates were placed in agitation up to two minutes and

202 the O.D. measured at 570 nm using a microtiter plate reader (Spectra Max M2, Molecular
203 Devices).

204

205 ***DAPI staining***

206 To assess total bacteria cell counts in single and dual-species biofilms, 100 µl of the
207 sonicated cell suspensions were filtered in a black Nucleopore polycarbonate membrane
208 (Ø 25 mm) with a pore size of 0.2 µm (Whatman, Japan). Subsequently the membrane
209 was stained with DAPI (0.2 mg ml⁻¹) (Merk, Germany) and let for 10 min in the dark.
210 Then, the membrane was placed in a microscope slide. Finally, a drop of immersion oil
211 (Merk, Germany) was added and the membrane covered with a coverslip. Cells were
212 analysed using a Leica DM LB2 epifluorescence microscope connected to a Leica
213 DFC300 FX camera (Leica Microsystems GmbH, Germany). The optical filter
214 combination for optimal viewing of stained preparations (Chroma 61000-V2), consisted
215 of a 545/30 nm excitation filter combined with a dichromatic mirror at 565 nm and
216 suppression filter 610/75. For image capture, Leica IM50 Image Manager, was used. For
217 each sample, a total of 15 fields with an area of 6.03×10⁻⁵ cm² were counted and the
218 average was used to calculate the total cells per cm².

219

220 ***Determination of bacterial growth rates***

221 The growth rate for each species at 37°C on AUM was determined. For this, cells were
222 grown overnight (16-18 hours). Subsequently, cells were diluted in order to obtain a final
223 O.D. (620 nm) of 0.1, incubated at 37°C, 150 rpm. O.D. at 620nm was measured at
224 different time points until the stationary stage was reached.

225

226

227

228 ***Siderophores production***

229 Siderophore production by the studied microorganisms was assessed by using the chrome
230 azurol S (CAS) solid medium assay, prepared as described by Schwyn and Neilands
231 (Schwyn & Neilands 1987). Following incubation at 37°C for 24 h, plates were analysed
232 for the presence of growth and orange halos.

233

234 ***Antimicrobial activity of biofilm supernatants***

235 The presence of antimicrobial activity on biofilm supernatants was assessed on lawns of
236 *E. coli* and the two species of atypical microorganisms. In order to collect the biofilm
237 supernatants, single- and dual-species biofilms were prepared according to the
238 methodology described above. After 72 h, supernatants were recovered, filtered (0.22 µm
239 filter, Frilabo, Portugal) and kept at -20°C. In order to test for possible contaminations,
240 10 µl of these supernatants were placed on TSA for 24 h at 37°C. Lawns of each of the
241 microorganisms were laid onto TSA, using cotton swabs and allowed to air-dry. Then, 10
242 µl of each supernatant were applied onto the lawns, and left to air-dry. Afterwards, the
243 plates were incubated for 24 h at 37°C. The formation of halos is indicative of the
244 presence of antimicrobial activity.

245

246 ***Determination of the fitness and malthusian parameter***

247 The fitness of *E. coli* relative to the atypical species ($W_{E. coli}$), determined for each dual-
248 species biofilms, was estimated as the ratio of the malthusian parameters (m) of each
249 population (Lenski et al. 1991). The malthusian parameter is defined as the average rate
250 of increase and was calculated for both species over the time,

$$251 \quad m = \ln [N (t_{\text{final}}) / N (t_{\text{initial}})] / t_{\text{final}} \quad (1)$$

252 where N is the value of CFUs cm⁻² present in the biofilm at initial time and final time
253 points. The relative fitness of *E. coli* was determined as,

$$254 \quad W_{E. coli} = m_{E. coli} / m_{\text{atypical species}} \quad (2)$$

255 resulting in a fitness of 1 when competing species are equally fit.

256 For pre-colonization experiments, in order to understand the effect of a pre-colonized
257 surface on the initial adhesion of a second species, the malthusian parameter of the added
258 microorganism was calculated after 48 hours of its addition.

259

260 ***Statistical analysis and data accommodation***

261 Results were compared using One-Way analysis of variance (ANOVA) by applying
262 Levene's test of homogeneity of variance and the Tukey multiple-comparisons test, using
263 SPSS software (SPSS - Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, Chicago, USA). All
264 tests were performed with a confidence level of 95%. All raw data derived from this study
265 are stored at the BiofOmics platform (<http://biofomics.org>) (Lourenco et al. 2012).

266

267

268 **Results and discussion**

269 ***Single- and dual-species biofilm experiments***

270 It is now known that CAUTIs-associated biofilms often involve more than one microbial
271 species, causing what can be defined as a polymicrobial disease (Frank et al. 2009; Hola
272 et al. 2010; Macleod & Stickler 2007). As *E. coli* is one of the main pathogens involved
273 in these infections (Hedlund et al. 2001; Niveditha et al. 2012; Ronald 2002; Svanborg &
274 Godaly 1997), it would be expectable that the biofilm forming ability of this
275 microorganism would surpass the ones exhibited by atypical microorganisms. Actually,
276 the assessment of the bacteria growth rate in AUM has shown that atypical
277 microorganisms were found to be slow-growing (values of growth rates: 0.374 h^{-1} for *D.*
278 *tsuruhatensis*; 0.3107 h^{-1} for *A. xylosoxidans*) when compared to *E. coli* (0.4838 h^{-1}).

279 Interestingly, this behavior was not observed for single-species biofilms, either in terms
280 of biofilm biomass (Figure 1a), cultivable cells (Figure 1b) or total cells (Supplemental
281 material - Figure S1). In fact, higher biomass values were observed for *A. xylosoxidans*,
282 which reached an O.D. of ~ 5 at 192 h, when compared with *D. tsuruhatensis* and *E. coli*
283 (O.D. ~ 1.4 and ~ 2.4 at 192 h, respectively). Moreover, for *A. xylosoxidans* values, this
284 biomass difference was statistically significant at 192h ($p < 0.05$).

285 Regarding cultivability, no significant differences were found for *E. coli*, *A. xylosoxidans*
286 or *D. tsuruhatensis*, with CFU counts ranging between Log 6.61 and Log 7.25 CFUs cm^{-2}
287 ($p > 0.05$) (Figure 1b).

288 All species presented similar values for total cells for the different time points (between
289 Log 6.76 and Log 7.50 cells cm^{-2}) (Supplemental material - Figure S1) and, as expected,
290 the CFU counts were always lower than the DAPI counts. In general, the averages of cells
291 detected by cultivability (Figure 1c) for *E. coli* and *A. xylosoxidans* were high, but for *A.*
292 *xylosoxidans*, the loss of cultivability was observed over time (77.2% at 24 h *versus*
293 36.6% at 192 h, $p > 0.05$). For *D. tsuruhatensis*, the obtained percentages were always
294 lower than those observed in the other two species (34.2% at 192 h, $p > 0.05$).

295 Regarding the species interaction in dual-species biofilms, to better summarize the results
296 (Supplemental material - Figure S2) and visualize the influence of the atypical species in
297 *E. coli* biofilm formation, we have determined the relative fitness of *E. coli* in dual-species
298 biofilms (Figure 2). In the presence of *D. tsuruhatensis* and *A. xylosoxidans*, the fitness
299 of *E. coli* slightly increases over the time, reaching a value of 1.12 ($p < 0.05$) and 1.07,

300 respectively, after 192 hours. These conclusions can be observed in more detail in the CV
301 and cultivability graphs (Supplemental material - Figure S2). CV assays for dual-species
302 biofilms show that when *E. coli* is co-cultured with the atypical microorganisms the total
303 biomass profiles tend to be more similar to the one of *E. coli* single-species biofilm
304 (Figure S2a-b). In fact, the data of cultivability assays in dual-species biofilms confirm
305 that *E. coli* ability to form biofilms does not seem to be influenced by the presence of the
306 other species (Figure S2e-f). In addition, dual-species biofilms present similar values for
307 total cells for the different time points (Supplemental material - Figure S3) and, as
308 expected, the CFU counts were always lower than the DAPI counts. However, it should
309 be mentioned that the observations here described might be limited to the inoculum
310 concentrations used in this study. To clarify this issue, the influence of initial inoculation
311 level (10^6 CFUs ml⁻¹ vs. 10^8 CFUs ml⁻¹) on the biofilm formation, was evaluated
312 (Supplemental material - Figure S4). No significant differences were found for *E. coli*
313 ($p > 0.05$ for each point); which indicates that initial inoculum concentration does not seem
314 to have influence in *E. coli* attachment and accumulation over time (Figure S4a). On the
315 other hand, for *D. tsuruhatensis* and *A. xylosoxidans* single-species biofilm formed at an
316 initial concentration of 10^6 CFUs ml⁻¹, lower cultivability values were observed for up to
317 24 h and up to 48 h, respectively. It reflects a delay on its biofilm formation. However,
318 it does not affect the final biofilm concentration, which reached the same values
319 (Supplemental material - Figure S4b-c).

320 It is well known that, in multispecies biofilms, the interactions may encourage the
321 coexistence (synergistic interaction) or confer advantage to one species, inhibiting the
322 growth of others (antagonistic interaction) (Elias & Banin 2012; Harrison 2007; Hibbing
323 et al. 2010). In order to explain the possible interaction between *E. coli* and atypical
324 species in dual-species biofilm, four additional features were analyzed: antimicrobial
325 activity of biofilm supernatants in single- and dual-species biofilms, siderophores
326 production, growth rate of each species and effect of a pre-formed biofilm on *E. coli*
327 biofilm formation.

328

329 ***Antimicrobial activity of biofilm supernatants and siderophores production***

330 An important factor in determining the dominant species within a mixed biofilm is the
331 antimicrobial compounds production, which might provide an advantage to the producer
332 species by interfering or killing the neighbor microorganisms (Hibbing et al. 2010).
333 However, in the present work, examination of antimicrobial compounds in biofilm

334 supernatants, either from single- or dual-species biofilms, suggested that none of the
335 microorganisms secreted compounds able to clearly influence the growth of the others. It
336 might be possible that antimicrobial compounds are present in very low concentrations,
337 as it usually happens for most part of secondary metabolites; which would also appears
338 as a negative result. Also, some other molecules, that interfere with non-essential
339 processes (e.g. quorum sensing molecules), are not detected in this type of assay.
340 Nonetheless, the complete absence of any inhibitory signal suggests that the observed
341 decrease of the atypical microorganisms when co-cultured with *E. coli*, is probably not
342 due to the production of antimicrobial compounds by *E. coli*.

343 Other type of competitive interaction can be observed in mixed biofilms, in which one
344 microorganism can sequester a limited and essential nutrient, facilitating its dominance
345 over the other species (Hibbing et al. 2010). An example of this competitive behavior
346 involves the iron sequestration by the production, release and uptake of siderophores
347 (Griffin et al. 2004; Hibbing et al. 2010; Joshi et al. 2006; Smith et al. 2006; Weaver &
348 Kolter 2004). Siderophores are molecules secreted under low iron availability and are
349 used by microorganisms to sequester the iron available in the medium (Andrews et al.
350 2003; Hibbing et al. 2010; Ratledge & Dover 2000). The importance of iron acquisition
351 has been reported for the survival of uropathogenic *E. coli* during CAUTIs development
352 (Jacobsen et al. 2008; Snyder et al. 2004). Considering the low iron concentration in urine
353 and its importance for the microorganisms growth and survival during CAUTIs (Jacobsen
354 et al. 2008; Shand et al. 1985), this nutrient is expected to be consumed by
355 microorganisms with high ability to produce or utilize siderophores, limiting it to the
356 other microorganisms. CAS agar results indicated that *E. coli* produces high levels of
357 siderophores. *A. xylosoxidans* and *D. tusuruhatensis* produced siderophores at lower
358 levels (Figure 3). Thereby, when *E. coli* is co-cultured with these atypical species in AUM
359 it can sequester, at a higher extent, iron molecules providing this microorganism with
360 an advantage in iron-depleted conditions, such as the CAUTIs.

361

362 ***Pre-colonization assays***

363 Dual-species biofilm experiments suggested that *E. coli* predominates over the co-
364 cultured species. However, nothing is known about the ability of this bacterium to adhere
365 to a pre-colonized surface by the two atypical species. To confirm whether *A.*
366 *xylosoxidans* or *D. tusuruhatensis* biofilms affect *E. coli* colonization, 24 h biofilms of *A.*
367 *xylosoxidans* or *D. tusuruhatensis* were formed and then *E. coli* was added. These

368 experiments were performed with different inoculum concentrations (10^8 CFU ml⁻¹ and
369 10^2 CFU ml⁻¹) to see if the inoculation level has influence in the adhesion of a second
370 species to the biofilm.

371 The addition of *E. coli* to a pre-formed biofilm does not lead to significant changes of
372 total biomass compared to experiments with synchronized addition of species
373 (Supplemental material - Figure S5). When *E. coli* is added to 24 h biofilms of the atypical
374 microorganisms, the biomass profile is similar to experiments with synchronized addition
375 of species, no matter the inoculation proportion between the two species. Also, in dual-
376 species biofilms, the concentration of initial inoculum does not seem to have a great
377 influence on biomass production over time (Supplemental material - Figure S5 and S6).
378 To better understand the possible role that a pre-colonized surface has on the rate at which
379 species adhere and grow, the malthusian parameter of the microorganism added to a pre-
380 formed biofilm was determined. This parameter reflects the average rate of increase of
381 each species (Lenski et al. 1991).

382 Interestingly, the results show that when a low initial concentration (10^2 CFUs ml⁻¹) of
383 any of the microorganisms is added to a pre-formed biofilm, the population of this species
384 increases more rapidly when compared with the corresponding single-species biofilm
385 (Figure 4 and Supplemental material - Figures S7 and S8). Several biofilms found in both
386 environmental and clinical settings are recognized as multispecies structures (Hall-
387 Stoodley et al. 2004), and this fact suggests that this diversity provides some advantages
388 for these communities. In fact, it is known that diversity generally protects communities
389 from unstable environmental conditions and, thus, it is likely that bacteria favor the
390 development of multispecies structures (Donlan & Costerton 2002). Why the apparent
391 induction of multispecies populations happens in the specific case of our study remains
392 unclear. It may be, for instance, that the maintenance of atypical species, even in low
393 densities, might be beneficial for *E. coli* if any environmentally-challenging condition
394 occurs. Alternatively, or in addition, some of these atypical microorganisms are able to
395 degrade certain components of plastics (Patil et al. 2006; Wan et al. 2007), which means
396 that the products of their metabolism might be able to feed *E. coli*, explaining why *E. coli*
397 benefit when is co-cultured with atypical microorganisms. However, despite the
398 suitability of the 96-well microtiter plates to simulate the conditions found in catheter-
399 associated urinary tract biofilms (Moreira et al. 2013), the results of the present work
400 should be replicated using catheter-like materials (eg silicones, latex rubber, etc.). This

401 would allow to confirm if these atypical microorganisms are able to degrade certain
402 components of catheters under conditions found in biofilms associated with CAUTIs.

403 Taken together, this data seems to indicate that species behavior in dual-species biofilm
404 is also dependent on the population size and physical space available. When cellular
405 concentrations in biofilm are low, competition was not observed; instead, species might
406 benefit from the presence of another colonizer (Figure 4). In fact, the adhesion of a second
407 colonizer added at low concentration was accelerated. In opposition, when cellular
408 concentrations reach higher values, the population of atypical species slight decreases
409 (Supplemental material - Figure S2 c and d; and Figure S7 d), which suggests that
410 competition has taken place.

411 A good example of multispecies biofilm advantages is provided in the work of Lopes *et*
412 *al.* (2012). They have studied the role of two novel microorganisms isolated from cystic
413 fibrosis specimens. When *P. aeruginosa* was co-cultured with atypical microorganisms
414 (*Inquilinus limosus* and *Dolosigranulum pigrum*), an increase in the tolerance of the dual-
415 species biofilms to most antibiotics was observed (Oliveira *et al.* 2012). In another study,
416 Sibley *et al.* (2008) reported that an avirulent species in combination with *P. aeruginosa*
417 isolated from cystic fibrosis flora has the ability to enhance the pathogenicity of this
418 microorganism and, consequently, to influence the outcome of the infection (Sibley *et al.*
419 2008). In addition, other studies also reported the importance of atypical pathogens (eg
420 *Burkholderia cepacia*, *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia*, *A. xylosoxidans*) in clinical
421 outcome of cystic fibrosis (de Vrankrijker *et al.* 2010; Waters 2012).

422 Concerning the *D. tusuruhatensis* and *A. xylosoxidans*, they have been isolated from
423 diverse clinical sources (Amoureux *et al.* 2012; Ciofu *et al.* 2013; Duggan *et al.* 1996;
424 Igra-Siegman *et al.* 1980; Lambiase *et al.* 2011; Preiswerk *et al.* 2011; Waters 2012),
425 including CAUTIs (Frank *et al.* 2009). Thus, it is expected that these unusual species
426 interact with the disease causing agents and have an important role on biofilm architecture
427 and physiology.

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429

430 **Conclusions and future work**

431 By combining the results obtained in this work, a schematic representation of the dual-
432 species biofilm formation showing the main factors involved on the predominance and
433 coexistence of *E. coli* with atypical species is proposed (Figure 5).

434 *E. coli* presented a greater ability to form biofilm in conditions mimicking catheter-
435 associated urinary tract infections, whatever the pre-existing microbiota, which helps
436 explain the high prevalence of *E. coli* in CAUTIs. Nonetheless, despite the probable non-
437 pathogenic nature of the two atypical species, they were also good biofilm producers on
438 abiotic surfaces. Additionally, *E. coli* coexistence with the two atypical species within
439 dual-species biofilm structures was proved; and, actually, pre-colonization with these
440 species seems to promote the pathogen adhesion.

441 Results also suggest that species behavior in dual-species biofilm might be dependent on
442 the population size and space to grow. Since diversity within the biofilm population
443 usually represents higher chances to persist in detrimental conditions, coexistence seems
444 to be preferred. But, for mature stages of biofilm formation, competition might take place
445 and then the higher fitness of *E. coli* in this environment becomes evident. In fact, the
446 high *E. coli* rate growth in AUM, in association with high levels of siderophores
447 production, helps explaining the *E. coli* ability to outcompete atypical species.

448 In the future, further insights into the resistance profile of these structures might provide
449 an adequate treatment for each patient with an accurate selection of antibiotic and dosage
450 necessary to treat a particular infection originated from a mixed biofilm (Frank et al.
451 2009).

452

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458 *tsuruhatensis* BM90 and *Achromobacter xylosoxidans* B3 species, respectively.

459

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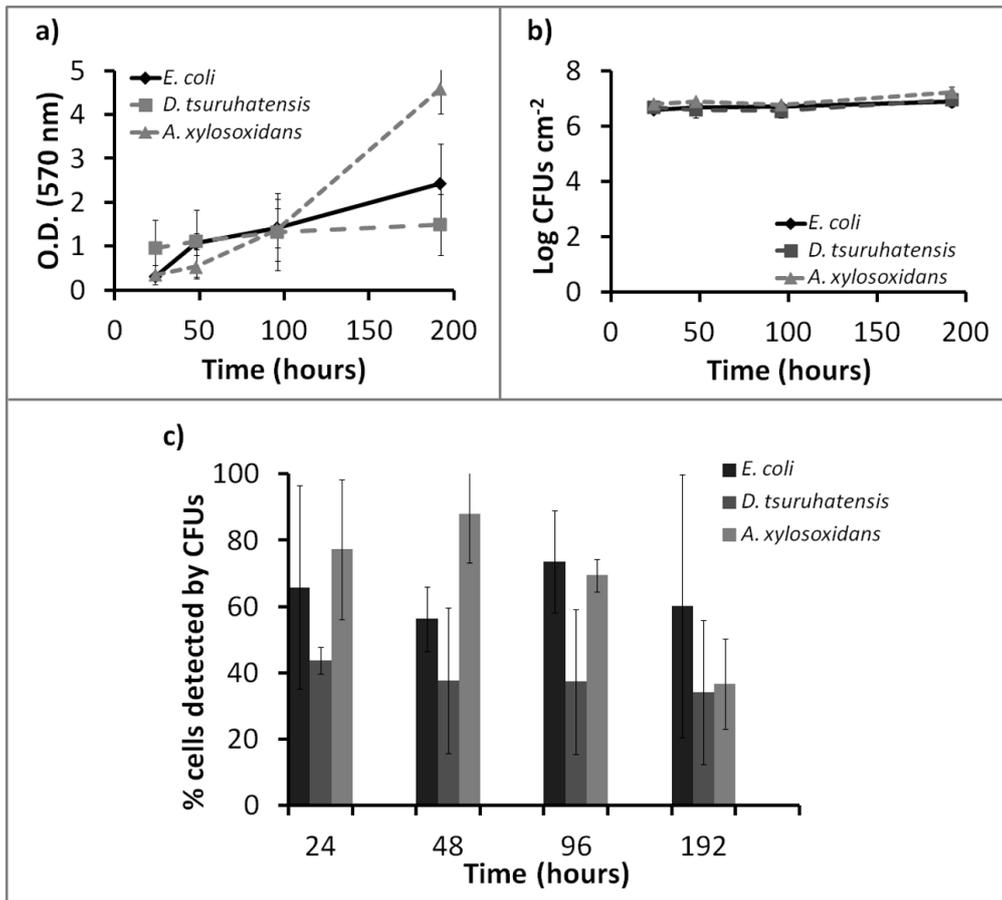
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586 **Figure 1.** Biofilm formation for single-species biofilms. Values for total biomass (a),
 587 cultivability (b) and percentages of cells detected by cultivability (c) are presented for all
 588 species. Three independent experiments were performed for each condition. Error bars
 589 represent standard deviation.

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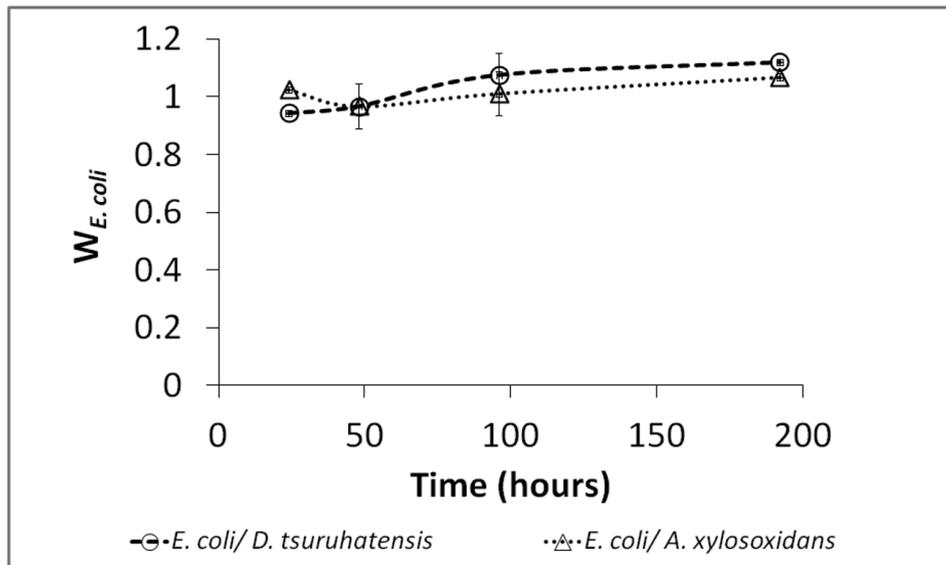
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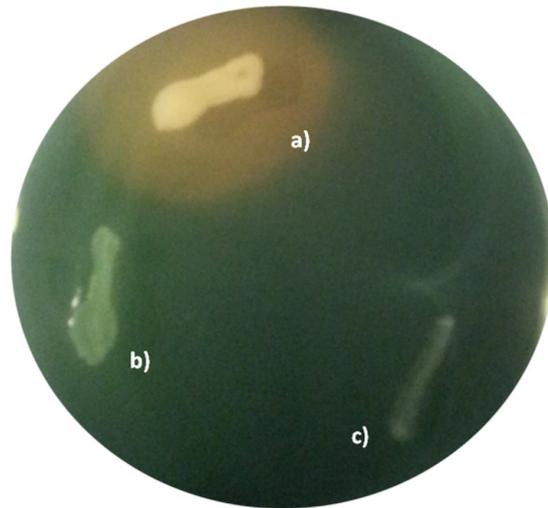
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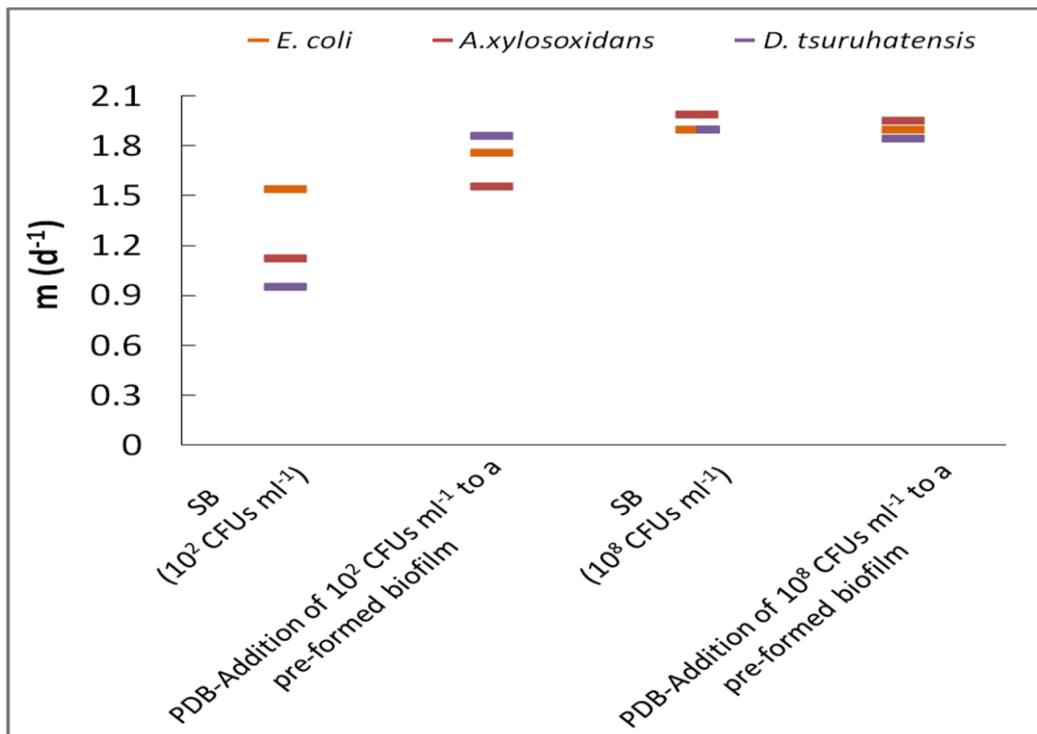
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Figure 2. Relative fitness of *E. coli* in dual-species biofilms. Fitness of *E. coli* was determined in the presence of atypical species (*D. tsuruhatensis* and *A. xylosoxidans*) with simultaneous addition of the bacteria at the same initial concentration (10^8 CFUs ml⁻¹). Data are means of three independent experiments and error bars represent standard deviation.



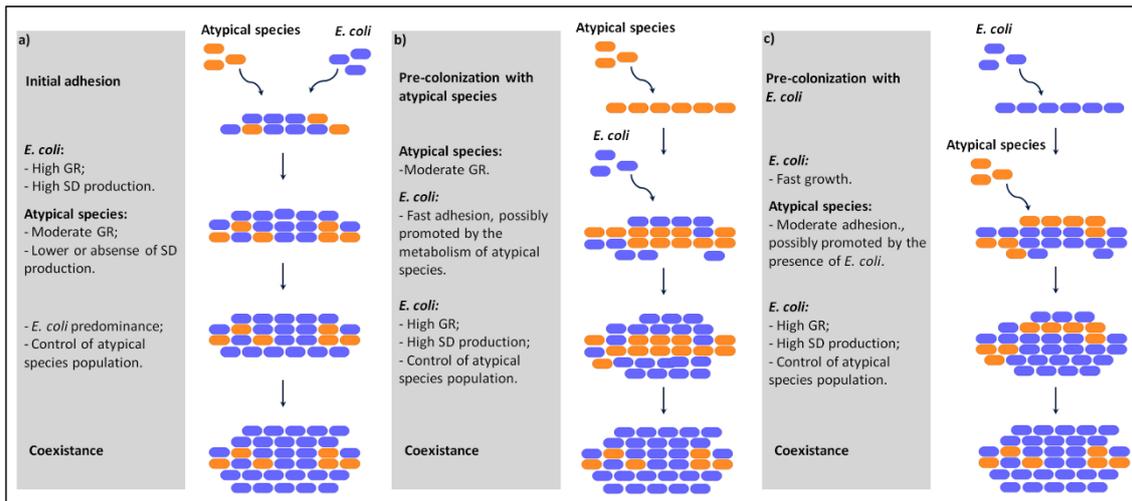
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Figure 3. Screening for siderophores production using CAS agar plates. On CAS agar, an orange halo surrounding the colony indicates that *E. coli* produces high levels of siderophores (a). The presence of growth without an orange halo indicates that *D. tsuruhatensis* (b) and *A. xylosoxidans* (c) produce siderophores at less extent.



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Figure 4. Values of the malthusian parameter for pre-colonization experiments. The malthusian parameter of the second microorganism added to a pre-formed biofilm was determined between time 0 and 48 hours. Values of the malthusian parameter for single-species biofilm of each microorganism was determined for comparative purpose. SB – Single-species Biofilm; PDB – Pre-colonization Dual-species Biofilm.



644

645 **Figure 5.** Schematic representation of the dual-species biofilm formation showing the
 646 main factors involved on the predominance and coexistence of *E. coli* with atypical
 647 species. Representation of the interaction between *E. coli* and atypical microorganisms in
 648 dual-species biofilm with simultaneous addition of the species (a); in dual-species biofilm
 649 subjected to a pre-colonization step with the atypical species, followed by the addition of
 650 the *E. coli* (b); and in dual-species biofilms subjected to a pre-colonization step with the
 651 *E. coli*, followed by the addition of the atypical species (c). Regardless of the initial
 652 conditions, the dual-species biofilm tends to a final state of coexistence where *E. coli*
 653 predominates over the atypical species (GR – growth rate; SD – siderophores).

654