Corynebacterium matruchotii fitness enhancement of adjacent streptococci by multiple mechanisms Authors: ¹Eric Almeida^{*}, ²Surendra Puri^{*}, ²Subhashini Elangovan, ²Jiyeon Kim, ¹Matthew 7 Ramsey** * indicates authors contributed equally Institutional Affiliations: ¹The University of Rhode Island, Department of Cell and Molecular Biology, ²The University of Rhode Island, Department of Chemistry, Kingston RI 02881. ** Corresponding author: 120 Flagg Rd. Kingston, RI 02881, 401-874-9505, mramsey@uri.edu Competing Interests: none

21 Abstract

22

23 Polymicrobial biofilms are present in many environments particularly in the human oral cavity 24 where they can prevent or facilitate the onset of disease. While recent advances have provided a 25 clear picture of both the constituents and their biogeographical arrangement, it is still unclear what 26 mechanisms of interaction occur between individual species in close proximity within these com-27 munities. In this study we investigated two mechanisms of interaction between the highly abun-28 dant supragingival plaque (SUPP) commensal Corynebacterium matruchotii and Streptococcus 29 mitis which are directly adjacent in vivo. We discovered that C. matruchotii enhanced the fitness 30 of streptococci dependent on its ability to detoxify streptococcal-produced hydrogen peroxide and 31 its ability to oxidize lactate also produced by streptococci. We demonstrate that the fitness of 32 adjacent streptococci was linked to that of C. matruchotii and that these mechanisms support the 33 previously described "corncob" arrangement between these species but that this is favorable only 34 in aerobic conditions. Further we utilized scanning electrochemical microscopy (SECM) to guan-35 tify lactate production and consumption between individual bacterial cells for the 1st time, revealing 36 that lactate oxidation provides a fitness benefit to S. mitis and not pH mitigation. This study de-37 scribes mechanistic interactions between two highly abundant human commensals that can ex-38 plain their observed in vivo spatial arrangements and suggest a way by which they may help 39 preserve a healthy oral bacterial community.

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42 Introduction

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Over the past decades our knowledge of the human oral microbiome has increased drastically, 44 45 revealing a robust polymicrobial biofilm in supragingival plaque (SUPP) that is present in healthy 46 as well as diseased conditions. While we know a great deal about what bacteria reside in SUPP 47 (Benítez-Páez et al., 2014; Eren et al., 2014; Schoilew et al., 2019; Xiao et al., 2016), we know 48 very little about the interactions between taxa especially in healthy conditions relative to disease. 49 Given that dysbiosis of the healthy microbiota is often a prelude to oral disease, we wish to study 50 interactions within the healthy community to potentially reveal any community members that might 51 help preserve stable community structure and constituency, potentially preventing the onset of 52 disease.

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54 Previous studies have shown the importance of attachment to the development of the oral biofilm 55 (Kolenbrander et al., 2006) and new data has identified and refined the spatial organization of abundant commensal organisms found in SUPP (Mark Welch et al., 2016). Human microbiome 56 57 project (HMP) data and recent microscopy of healthy individuals has revealed that one of the 58 most abundant and prevalent species in SUPP is Corynebacterium matruchotii (Mark Welch et 59 al., 2016; Schoilew et al., 2019; Xiao et al., 2016). It has been correlated with good dental health 60 and hypothesized to be important in the organization of some plaque biofilm structures particularly 61 due to its ability to adhere to Streptococcus species forming a structure referred to as a "corncob" 62 with the Corynebacterium filament being surrounded by streptococci (Mark Welch et al., 2016), a role typically ascribed to Fusobacterium (Foster and Kolenbrander, 2004; Kolenbrander et al., 63 64 2006). Also, C. matruchotii has shown in vitro to be able to co-aggregate with Actinomyces spe-65 cies which are known to be early colonizers during the plague biofilm formation (Esberg et al., 66 2020). It's been hypothesized that C. matruchotii binds to an existing biofilm of Streptococcus and 67 Actinomyces cells for attachment and anchoring to the plaque (Esberg et al., 2020; Mark Welch et al., 2016). The spatial organization of microbes in SUPP has been characterized in the 'hedge-68 69 hog' model (Mark Welch et al., 2016) which visualizes C. matruchotii and its proximity to adjacent 70 Streptococcus species, such as S. mitis at the SUPP perimeter (Mark Welch et al., 2016; Morillo-71 lopez et al., 2021).

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73 Streptococcus species, such as S. mitis, are one of the most abundant species in the oral micro-74 biome (Eren et al., 2014). Streptococcus species have deployed many tactics to compete in their 75 environment such as producing antimicrobial metabolites like H_2O_2 (Redanz et al., 2018) through 76 the activity of pyruvate oxidase (spxB) which takes pyruvate, phosphate, and molecular oxygen 77 and converts them into acetyl phosphate, CO₂, and H₂O₂ (Abranches et al., 2018). This production 78 of H_2O_2 has been shown to affect the oral community composition and it is hypothesized in this 79 community Streptococcus species metabolize oxygen and sugars to produce H_2O_2 and lactate 80 while attached to C. matruchotii (Zhu and Kreth, 2012). Other streptococci are reported to co-81 aggregate with catalase positive organisms to benefit from catalase activity (Jakubovics et al., 82 2008) and crossfeeding on Streptococcus-produced lactate by commensal microbes which en-83 hances their yield has been previously shown (Ramsey et al., 2011). Others have previously hy-84 pothesized that C. matruchotii and adjacent streptococci would also utilize these same mecha-85 nisms in *in vivo* hedgehog structures (Mark Welch et al., 2016). C. matruchotii is in close proximity 86 to many streptococci but not much is known about how it endures these stressors. At low pH 87 streptococci can create an environment suitable for the pathogenic Streptococcus mutans to 88 thrive in the community and cause caries (Kim et al., 2020; Takahashi, 2005; Van Houte et al., 89 1991). If interactions between C. matruchotii and S. mitis create a more stable and healthy plaque 90 formation without enhancing accumulation of H_2O_2 or creation of low pH environments, this rela-91 tionship could strengthen the plaque's pathogen excluding properties known as colonization re-92 sistance (Abt and Pamer, 2014). Despite their co-proximity and abundance in these structures,

93 little is known about how these organisms interact (Mark Welch et al., 2016). Previous studies

94 have not likely appreciated the role *C. matruchotii* plays in bridging early and late colonizers within

95 the plaque (Foster and Kolenbrander, 2004; Kolenbrander et al., 2006) and its importance in the

- 96 structuring of the plaque community. *C. matruchotii*, in close proximity with *S. mitis*, faces the task 97 of detoxifying the streptococcal-produced metabolites being excreted into the environment. This
- paper focuses on how *C. matruchotii* interact biochemically with H_2O_2 and lactate produced by *S.*
- 99 mitis.

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101 We employed a reductionist approach to investigate the relationship between these species in in 102 vitro biofilms. We discovered that S. mitis obtained a significant increase in growth yield with C. 103 matruchotii aerobically and this growth benefit is lost anaerobically where C. matruchotii growth is inhibited by S. mitis. Likewise, when C. matruchotii oxidative stress responses were altered its 104 105 fitness and the coculture benefit to S. mitis yield were reduced. We also observed that C. matru-106 chotii upregulated lactate catabolism genes when in close proximity with S. mitis. Removal of 107 streptococcal-produced lactate by C. matruchotii was a contributor to S. mitis growth benefit and 108 surprisingly this effect was pH-independent. We also utilized scanning electrochemical micros-109 copy to demonstrate that lactate catabolism can deplete local concentrations of this organic acid 110 swiftly in real-time at sub-micron scales, implying that acid removal in coculture can occur in ob-111 served in vivo arrangements between these organisms. These data suggests C. matruchotii has 112 the ability to maintain S. mitis growth in SUPP by aiding in detoxifying reactive oxygen species 113 (ROS) and removing streptococci-produced lactate which likely helps preserve a robust polymi-114 crobial biofilm in vivo.

115

117 Materials and Methods

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Strains and media. Strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in Table S1. *C. matruchotii* (ATCC 14266) and *S. mitis* (ATCC 49456) were grown on Brain Heart Infusion media supplemented with 0.5% yeast extract (BHI-YE) at 37°C in a static incubator with 5% CO₂ or in 5% H₂, 10% CO₂ and 85% N₂ in anaerobic conditions. *E. coli* was grown at 37 °C in standard atmospheric conditions with liquid cultures shaken at 200 RPM. Antibiotics were used at the following concentrations: kanamycin 40 µg/ml for *E. coli* and 10 µg/ml for *C. matruchotii*.

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Colony biofilm coculture/ buffered coculture/ catalase coculture. Overnight cultures of C. 126 127 matruchotii and S. mitis species were grown in Brain Heart Infusion media supplemented with 128 0.5% yeast extract (BHI-YE) at 37°C in a static incubator with 5% CO₂ or in 5% H₂, 10% CO₂ and 129 85% N₂ for anaerobic conditions. Colony biofilm assays were carried out as described previously 130 (Merritt et al., 2005). Briefly, A semi permeable 0.22µm polycarbonate membrane filter (Zheng and Stewart, 2002) was placed on solid BHI-YE media (supplemented with 1.6% agar). Ten ul of 131 132 each culture were spotted on the membrane filters and monocultures were spot with 10µL of BHI-133 YE. The cultures incubated for 48hr and the membranes were placed in a microcentrifuge tube 134 with 1mL of BHI-YE. The tubes were vortexed to resuspend into media and serially diluted and 135 track plated (Jett et al., 1997) to count colony forming units per mL (CFU/mL). S. mitis was 136 counted by using BHI-YE plates and C. matruchotii on BHI-YE plates supplemented with 137 100 µg/ml fosfomycin. Buffered and pH indicator cocultures were carried out with 50mM MOPS 138 and 18mg/mL of phenol red added to BHI-YE. Catalase cocultures were carried out with 100U/mL 139 of catalase added to BHI-YE.

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141 **RNAseq experiment and analysis.** Mono and cocultures were prepared similar to the colony 142 biofilm coculture with the exception that culture membranes were incubated for 24hr and moved 143 to fresh media for an additional 4hr. Membranes were then removed from solid agar and immedi-144 ately placed into RNALater (Ambion) where cells were removed by agitation and pelleted by cen-145 trifugation. Cell pellets were stored in Trizol reagent at -80°C. Experiments were carried out in 146 biological duplicates. RNA extraction, library preparation and sequencing were then carried out 147 by the Microbial 'Omics Core facility at the Broad Institute, RNASeg libraries were generated using 148 previously described methods (Shishkin et al., 2015). Sequence data was aligned using Bowtie2 149 (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012) and read counts per coding sequence were called using HTSeq-150 Count (Anders et al., 2015). Statistical analysis was carried out via DESeg2 (Love et al., 2014) to 151 determine differentially expressed genes. Scripts of this pipeline can be found at 152 https://github.com/dasithperera-hub/RNASeg-analysis-toolkit. Sequence libraries are available 153 through the NCBI short read archive (SRA) under bioproject number PRJNA832032.

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155 Gene deletions. All C. matruchotii gene deletions were carried out with sucrose counterselection using a suicide vector derived from pMRKO (Ramsey et al., 2011), pEAKO2 which contains sacB 156 from pK19mobsacB (Schgfer et al., 1994). Approximately 1000 bp up and downstream flanking 157 158 regions for each gene were used for homologous recombination and fragments were cloned into 159 pEAKO2 via Gibson Assembly (Gibson et al., 2009). C. matruchotii cells will be made as previ-160 ously described (Takayama et al., 2003). Transformations were carried out with 50µL of competent cells and 1µg of DNA electroporated with 0.2cm gap cuvettes at 2.5kV voltage, 400 Ω re-161 162 sistance, and 25µF capacitance. After electroporation, 950mL of prewarmed BHI-YE will be added 163 to the cuvette and the mixture will be moved to a 46°C heat block for 6 minutes. After heat shock, 164 transformations will be shaken at 250 RPM at 37°C for 4hr. Transformations were plated on BHI-165 YE Kan₁₀ plates and incubated for 4 days at 37°C. Mutants were verified through PCR.

Limiting glucose coculture. Cultures were prepared like colony biofilm coculture described above except for being inoculated into 2mL of liquid defined medium. Modified RPMI medium (Gibco) was used as a base and supplemented with 8mM glucose. Cocultures were inoculated for 48 hrs and track plated to determine CFU/ mL.

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Growth curves. Five milliliter cultures of *C. matruchotii* were grown in BHI-YE for 48hr and back diluted in modified RPMI media supplemented with 40mM lactate at an OD₆₀₀ of 0.025. Cultures were incubated statically at 37°C with 5% CO₂. Optical density readings were taken every 4hr over a 72hr period.

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177 Scanning electrochemical microscopy sample preparation. Bacteria were grown overnight in 178 BHI-YE and then washed by centrifugation in defined medium. The defined medium used was an 179 amended version of Teknova EZ RICH (Teknova, M2105). We prepared the medium as described 180 in the manufacturers instructions with the addition of vitamin solution, lipoic acid, folic acid, ribo-181 flavin, NAD+ and nucleotides to final concentrations from that of an oral complete defined medium 182 previously described (Brown and Whiteley, 2007) and glucose at 10 mM. Bacteria were grown to 183 an OD600 of 0.5-0.9 and then diluted to final concentrations of 1.2x107 and 6.0x106 CFU of C. 184 matruchotii and S. mitis respectively in 200 µL of defined medium. This was then incubated at 185 37°C with 5% CO₂ for 1 h. 10 µL of this solution was then added to a poly-lysine coated glass 186 slide and incubated at 37°C for 15 minutes after which medium was removed by micropipette to 187 remove planktonic cells and ensure only attached cells remained. An additional 10uL of pre-188 warmed defined medium was then added to the slide. Samples were then transferred to the SECM 189 instrument for further analysis.

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Scanning electrochemical microscopy acquisition. Scanning parameters and nano-probe design are similar to methods described previously (Connell et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2016; Puri and Kim, 2019). A full description of SECM calibration, sample acquisition and metabolite quantification are provided in the Supplemental Materials.

196 Results

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198 *C. matruchotii* enhances the growth of *S. mitis* in aerobic conditions

199 We performed pairwise coculture experiments aerobically and anaerobically with a colony biofilm 200 model (Merritt et al., 2005) on solid medium to quantify growth yield differences between mono-201 and cocultures of S. mitis with C. matruchotii (Fig. 1). Using this reductionist approach, we 202 observed a 954-fold increase in growth yield of S. mitis in coculture. Unexpectedly, C. matruchotii 203 had no significant difference in growth yield with S. mitis (Fig. 1A). While previous studies have 204 hypothesized that C. matruchotii - Streptococcus interactions occur in aerobic microenvironments 205 within SUPP (Mark Welch et al., 2016; Morillo-lopez et al., 2021), we also performed the same 206 experiment in anaerobic conditions as a comparison (Fig. 1B). Interestingly, the coculture growth benefit for S. mitis was lost while C. matruchotii growth yield decreased ~130-fold. To investigate 207 208 how C. matruchotii enhances S. mitis growth yield in coculture we performed RNAseg to compare mono- vs coculture transcriptome data. 209





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FIG 1 Growth yield measurements of mono vs coculture biofilms. Aerobic (A) and anaerobic (B) CFU counts of *C. matruchotii* (*Cm*) and *S. mitis* (*Sm*) in mono and cocultures. Data are mean CFU counts for $n \ge 3$ and error bars represent 1 standard deviation. * denotes p < 0.05 using a Student's t-test.

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C. matruchotii upregulates genes necessary for L-lactate catabolism and oxidative stress response

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222 C. matruchotii differentially expressed only 22 genes (greater than 2-fold) in aerobic coculture 223 with S. mitis (Table S2). Interestingly, C. matruchotii upregulated the lutABC operon (lutA, 4.37-224 fold; lutB, 3.76-fold; lutC, 3.20-fold), whose gene products in Bacillus subtilis catabolize L-lactate 225 (Chai et al., 2009) using oxygen as a terminal electron acceptor; therefore, in the absence of 226 oxygen, C. matruchotii is no longer able to catabolize L-lactate, as previously shown (Iwami et al., 227 1972). C. matruchotii also significantly upregulates a bacterial non-heme ferritin-encoding gene 228 (2.39-fold) in coculture. This protein has been characterized in *Mycobacterium smegmatis* to 229 sequester ferrous ions as part of the oxidative stress response (Smith, 2004). Given the coculture 230 growth and transcriptome results, we broadly hypothesized that C. matruchotii crossfeeds on S.

mitis-produced lactate while detoxifying *S. mitis*-produced H_2O_2 similar to other microbes in the oral cavity (Jakubovics et al., 2008; Ramsey et al., 2011). Given the fact that *C. matruchotii* cannot utilize L-lactate anaerobically and *S. mitis* is only provided a growth benefit in the presence of oxygen, we believe these data suggest one mechanism by which the biogeography of these species *in vivo* could be influenced by their metabolic interactions.

236 237

238 Lactate utilization by C. matruchotii influences S. mitis growth yield

239 240 The growth enhancement of S. mitis in coculture with C. matruchotii is likely due to several factors 241 including H_2O_2 decomposition and lactate catabolism. It is unclear if the removal of lactate itself 242 or the removal of lactate and subsequent increase in pH is responsible for S. mitis growth yield 243 enhancement. We 1st tested the impact of pH by performing growth experiments in the same 244 medium with increased buffer capacity by adding 50 mM MOPS. Qualitatively, we observed that 245 S. mitis monoculture colonies no longer produced yellow coloration in buffered medium containing 246 the pH indicator dye phenol red (i.e. no longer acidified the environment) compared to the original 247 medium (data not shown). Quantitatively, we observed that S. mitis growth yield had no significant 248 change in monoculture with additional MOPS (Fig. S1) indicating that pH was likely not 249 responsible for S. *mitis* growth yield increases in coculture.

250

251 To determine if removal of lactate by C. matruchotii via catabolism was enhancing streptococcal 252 fitness we constructed a *lutA* gene deletion mutant ($\Delta lutA$) since each gene within the *lutABC* 253 operon had been described to be essential for L-lactate catabolism (Chai et al., 2009). The $\Delta lutA$ 254 strain was significantly impaired in L-lactate utilization showing a diminished growth rate (doubling 255 times of 17.9h for the wt and 27.4h for $\Delta lutA$) and yield aerobically with L-lactate as the sole 256 carbon source (Fig. S2). A full lutABC operon deletion strain was also created and showed similar 257 results (data not shown). In B. subtilis, each gene within the lutABC operon is essential for lactate 258 oxidation and it can no longer use lactate as its sole carbon source (Chai et al., 2009). C. 259 matruchotii possesses two additional annotated L-lactate dehydrogenases which may function 260 bidirectionally allowing it to more slowly oxidize L-lactate without a functional *lutABC* system.

261

262 We next tested the $\Delta lutABC$ mutant in mono vs coculture with S. mitis to determine if impaired 263 lactate utilization led to a decrease in S. mitis yield in coculture with C. matruchotii. Using defined 264 medium in glucose-limited conditions to force the bacteria to compete for the limited carbon 265 source and/or promote cross-feeding on streptococcal produced lactate, we performed mono vs 266 cocultures and determined that both S. mitis and C. matruchotii $\Delta lutABC$ fitness were significantly 267 decreased in coculture (Fig. 2). C. matruchotii *AlutABC* can only poorly catabolize L-lactate and 268 thus poorly cross-feed on S. mitis-produced L-lactate compared to the wildtype. As *\DeltalutABC* and 269 S. mitis are now forced to compete for limited glucose, both exhibit a decreased growth yield. This 270 is in agreement with previous data anaerobically (Fig. 1B), where lactate oxidation by C. 271 matruchotii does not occur. The growth yield increase of S. mitis in coculture is diminished when 272 C. matruchotii cannot oxidize lactate but this does not fully explain the total growth benefit 273 provided, suggesting another mechanism(s) at work.

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276SmCm<ΔlutA</th>277FIG 2 Limiting glucose colony biofilm cocultures. CFU counts of *C. matruchotii* (*Cm*), *C.*278matruchotii ΔlutA, and S. mitis (Sm) in mono and cocultures. Data are mean CFU counts for n≥3279and error bars represent 1 standard deviation. * denotes p< 0.05 using a Student's t-test.</td>

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281 Catalase abundance leads to enhanced streptococcal growth yields282

283 Given that lactate oxidation by C. matruchotii provides only a small portion of the fitness benefit 284 in coculture to S. mitis we next investigated if H₂O₂ detoxification by C. matruchotii also contributes 285 to fitness. Surprisingly, in coculture with S. mitis, C. matruchotii did not upregulate expression of 286 the single catalase (katA) encoded on its chromosome. We observed that catalase was already 287 maximally expressed aerobically and not expressed anaerobically (data not shown). To test if 288 catalase-dependent H₂O₂ detoxification was important both for C. matruchotii fitness in coculture 289 and subsequent S. mitis growth yield enhancement, we generated the catalase gene deletion 290 mutant, C. matruchotii *AkatA*. Interestingly, this mutant had to be generated entirely under 291 anaerobic conditions and does not survive incubation in aerobic or microaerophilic conditions 292 (data not shown), making it impossible to test this mutant in aerobic coculture with S. mitis. 293 Instead, we determined the contribution of catalase to the growth of these species by adding it 294 exogenously. We performed aerobic mono vs cocultures in growth medium amended with 295 100U/mL of bovine catalase.

296

Previous studies (Eisenberg, 1973; Jakubovics et al., 2008; Regev-Yochay et al., 2007) have indicated that streptococcal-produced H_2O_2 is capable of limiting their own growth. We observed that adding exogenous catalase elevated the monoculture growth yield of *S. mitis* 6.42-fold (Fig. 3A). This self-limitation by H_2O_2 production is also observed when comparing monoculture fold changes of *S. mitis* to the non H_2O_2 -producing $\Delta spxB$ mutant (Fig. 3). Interestingly, the growth benefit of *S. mitis* in coculture with *C. matruchotii* dropped from 954-fold to 148-fold when amended with catalase.

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FIG 3 *S. mitis* monoculture enhanced by exogenous catalase. A) CFU counts of *S. mitis* WT (*Sm*) in mono and coculture with *C. matruchotii* (*Cm*) on media containing 100U/mL of catalase vs without. B) CFU counts of *S. mitis* $\Delta spxB$ in mono and coculture with *Cm* on media containing 100U/mL of catalase vs without. * denotes p< 0.05 using a Student's t-test.

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313 *C. matruchotii* requires a functional oxidative stress response to be fit to interact with *S. mitis*

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In coculture with S. mitis, C matruchotii significantly upregulated a gene encoding ferritin, a 316 317 bacterial non-heme protein involved in oxidative stress response (Smith, 2004). We hypothesized that ferritin was needed for *C. matruchotii* fitness with H₂O₂-producing streptococci. To test this. 318 319 we deleted the ferritin encoding gene generating C. matruchotii Δftn and performed cocultures 320 with WT S. mitis and S. mitis $\Delta spxB$ (which is unable to produce H₂O₂) (Redanz et al., 2018). In 321 coculture with WT S. mitis, we observed that the Δftn mutant fitness decreased 7.35-fold (Fig. 4A) 322 and this decrease was not observed in coculture with the S. mitis $\Delta spxB$ strain. S. mitis WT had 323 a 4.6-fold significant decrease in growth yield with C. matruchotii Aftn compared to C. matruchotii 324 WT whereas there was no change in growth yield with S. mitis AspxB with either C. matruchotii 325 strain. This shows that C. matruchotii needs a functional oxidative stress response in order to be 326 fit with its interactions with S. mitis WT. These data indicate that H_2O_2 detoxification is the largest 327 contributor to enhanced S. mitis fitness in coculture but also that other mechanisms, likely C. 328 matruchotii lactate oxidation, further enhance fitness.

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FIG 4 *C. matruchotii* ferritin knockout inhibited when cocultured with *S. mitis*. A) Aerobic CFU counts of *C. matruchotii* WT (*Cm*) and ferritin knockout (Δftn) in mono and coculture with *S. mitis* WT and strain lacking ability to create H₂O₂ ($\Delta spxB$). B) CFU counts of *Sm* and $\Delta spxB$ in mono and coculture with *Cm* and Δftn . Data are mean CFU counts with error bars indicating standard deviation for n≥3. * denotes p< 0.05 using a Student's t-test compared to monoculture.

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Scanning electrochemical microscopy (SECM) reveals oxidation of *S. mitis*-produced lac tate by adjacent *C. matruchotii* at sub-micron scale

342 To investigate lactate production and consumption *in situ* by bacteria as well as the topography 343 of bacterial cells, a submicropipet-supported interface between two immiscible electrolyte solu-344 tions (ITIES) was employed (Figs 5, S3) (Puri and Kim, 2019). With this submicrotip, an etched 345 Ni/Cu electrode in the internal organic electrolyte exerts a bias across the submicroscale liquid/lig-346 uid interface against an electrode in the aqueous solution (Fig. S3A) to yield the amperometric tip 347 current based on the selective interfacial transfer of a small probe ion (Puri and Kim, 2019). The 348 coculture of C. matruchotii and S. mitis was immobilized over a poly L-lysine coated glass plate, 349 and studied by scanning or approaching an 800 nm-diameter pipet tip over the bacteria (Fig. 350 S3C). Further detail is provided in the supplemental materials.

351 352

353 We employed the constant-height mode of submicroscale SECM to successfully image single 354 bacterial cells in coculture (Fig. 5). The high spatial resolution was obtained by using submicropi-355 pet tips, which were characterized by cyclic voltammetry for tetraethylammonium (TEA+) ion 356 transfer (IT) in situ to obtain a diffusion limited current in the bulk solution, $h_{-\infty}$ (120 pA). The sub-357 microtip approached the glass substrate until the tip current decreased to 90 % of $t_{\rm L^{\infty}}$, which is 358 equivalent to the tip-substrate distance, d, of 0.85 µm with the tip radius, a, of 430 nm. Further, a 359 tip was withdrawn 1.75~2.00 µm higher, and scanned laterally at the fixed height while the tip 360 current was monitored to obtain an SECM image (Fig. S3D). Constant-height imaging of cocul-361 tured bacteria for the probe ion TEA was obtained with the gap between the tip and bacteria, d_c 362 = 0.75 μ m, i.e., 1.80 normalized distance to tip radius, (d/a). This SECM image could not resolve 363 each individual bacterial cell. For instance, a lump was identified in 25 µm x 20 µm image based 364 on TEA⁺ IT, which did not resolve any difference between bacterial cells (Fig. 5B). Low tip currents 365 of ~ 80 % of $r_{L^{\infty}}$ for TEA⁺ above these bacteria was obtained due to hindered diffusion of TEA⁺ by adjacent bacteria with membranes near impermeable to this probe ion. As shown in the chrono amperometric responses (shown as raw data in Fig. 5D, cross sections of the SECM image in
 Fig. 5B), currents were monotonically lowered in 1450~1650 s (positive polarity for cationic cur rents).

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The same area in 25 μ m × 20 μ m was imaged based on lactate IT with the gap between the tip and bacteria, $d_c = 0.50 \mu$ m (1.20 d/a), which could resolve individual *S. mitis* and *C. matruchotii* clearly (Fig. 5C). An initial current, ~30 pA above a glass substrate corresponds to 0.26 mM of lactate produced by ensemble of bacteria and diffused to bulk solution near bacteria according to eq 1 below.

 $377 \quad i_{T,\infty} = 4xzFDCa \qquad (eq 1)$

378

where $i_{T,\infty}$ is a current in bulk, *x* is the function of RG ratio (RG is the ratio of outer and inner diameters of a glass pipet, 1.16 for a RG 1.5 tip), *z* is charge of lactate, *F* is Faraday constant (96485 C/mol), *D* is the diffusion coefficient (6 × 10⁻⁶ cm²/s), *C* is a concentration of lactate (0.26 mM), and *a* is the inner radius of a pipet tip (430 nm).

383

384 In this SECM image, high tip currents, 50 pA of 166 % of $i_{T,\infty}$ for lactate are obtained above 385 spherical S. mitis, while low tip currents, 22 ~24 pA of 75~80 % of $i_{L^{\infty}}$ are observed above fila-386 mentous C. matruchotii. Not only distinctive morphologies are clearly distinguished between two 387 different bacteria as shown in optical microscopic image (Fig. 5A), but also the production and 388 consumption of lactate between them are visually confirmed in situ. As shown in chronoam-389 perometric responses (shown as raw data in Fig. 5E, cross sections of the SECM image in Fig. 390 5C), currents were dramatically transposed from an enhanced response over S. mitis to reduced 391 ones over C. matruchotii (negative polarity for anionic currents), implying local increase in lactate 392 produced by S. mitis and local depletion of lactate consumed by C. matruchotii, Notably, this 393 SECM image successfully visualized the chemical interaction between two commensal oral microbes in real time and is the 1st SECM study to our knowledge that measures metabolite ex-394 395 change between two individual bacterial cells. Specifically, S. mitis produces ~0.52 mM lactate 396 locally, which is efficiently depleted by C. matruchotii (Figs. 5, S4) thus verifying a standing gues-397 tion about their commensal relationship that cannot be answered only by optical microscopic im-398 aging. Quantitative analysis of the permeability of the bacterial membrane and the local concen-399 tration of lactate produced by *S. mitis* are discussed in the supplemental materials.

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401 **FIG 5** (A) Optical microscopic image of *C. matruchotii* (blue arrow) and *S. mitis* (white arrows) 402 coculture. Constant-height SECM images based on (B) TEA⁺ IT (obtained with a gap between the 403 tip and bacteria, $d_c = 1.8 d/a$) and (C) lactate IT (obtained at $d_c = 1.2 d/a$), Chronoamperometric 404 responses based on (D) TEA⁺ IT and (E) lactate IT (raw data, cross sections of SECM images in 405 (B) and (C), respectively). The current polarity is set to positive for cationic current response and 406 negative for anionic current response.

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408

410 **Discussion**

411

412 Interactions between commensal bacteria within healthy SUPP are understudied for their role in 413 maintaining plaque homeostasis and host health compared to subgingival plaque and oral dis-414 ease (Foster and Kolenbrander, 2004; Guggenheim et al., 2001; Kolenbrander et al., 2006). While 415 the organisms in SUPP are in close proximity to one another and capable of physical and bio-416 chemical interaction, these mechanisms are largely hypothetical (Mark Welch et al., 2016). Char-417 acterizing the behavior of abundant SUPP commensal organisms can help reveal necessary in-418 teractions that could maintain a healthy microbiome. One set of interactions are those between 419 Corynebacterium matruchotii, and Streptococcus spp in previously described 'hedgehog' struc-420 tures (Mark Welch et al., 2016; Morillo-lopez et al., 2021) where they occur at the presumed 421 aerobic biofilm / saliva margin. This study investigates these interactions and provides novel data 422 on metabolite exchange between individual cells that has broad implications on polymicrobial 423 biofilms beyond the human oral cavity.

424

425 Our data indicates that S. mitis had a significant growth yield increase when cocultured with C. 426 *matruchotii* (Fig. 1A) and this growth benefit was lost anaerobically (Fig. 1B) which aligns with 427 their proximal association only at the aerobic margin of their biofilm structures (Mark Welch et al., 428 2016; Morillo-lopez et al., 2021). H₂O₂-producing Streptococcus and adjacent commensal species 429 have been shown to coexist despite ROS production (Jakubovics et al., 2008). C. matruchotii is 430 uninhibited when cocultured with S. mitis aerobically likely due to catalase production. A C. matru-431 *chotii* $\Delta katA$ was created to test this hypothesis and unexpectedly would only grow anaerobically. 432 To confront this limitation and understand the role catalase has on S. mitis growth benefit, we 433 added exogenous catalase into the medium to observe if there was a less prominent or loss of 434 growth benefit between mono and coculture S. mitis since both now benefit from detoxified ROS. 435 S. mitis monocultures on media containing catalase showed increased growth yield (Fig. 3A), 436 confirming the role of catalase in enhancing S. mitis fitness. However, even with exogenous cat-437 alase there was still a significant increase in S. mitis yield in coculture suggesting that C. matru-438 chotii provides further growth benefits beyond ROS detoxification.

439

440 The fitness of C. matruchotii in S. mitis-induced oxidative stress is influenced by its ability to not 441 only detoxify H_2O_2 but prevent its reaction with free ferrous ions. This was evident by the expres-442 sion of a ferritin-like protein in coculture with S. mitis that has an 82% protein identity with the 443 ferritin encoded in Corynebacterium mustelae. Bacterial ferritin-like proteins have been shown to 444 sequester away iron to avoid the oxidation of ferrous iron to ferric iron (Smith, 2004). Ferritin-like 445 proteins can also bind to DNA for protection from these free hydroxyl radicals (Smith, 2004). Their 446 activity can prevent the production of hydroxyl radicals known to damage DNA and lipids (Winter-447 bourn, 1995). C. matruchotii Δftn showed a significant yield decrease in coculture with S. mitis 448 but this inhibition was not observed with S. mitis $\Delta spxB$. We observed that any decreases in C. 449 matruchotii yield were mirrored by decreases in S. mitis yield as well, linking streptococcal fitness 450 to that of C. matruchotii. We hypothesize that this should also be true for any other adjacent H₂O₂-451 producing streptococcal species. Transcriptional responses of S. mitis to C. matruchotii are part 452 of a separate ongoing study and are not reflected here.

453

C. matruchotii has been shown to only oxidize lactate aerobically and cannot grow on lactate as a sole carbon source anaerobically (Iwami et al., 1972). Of the 22 genes that *C. matruchotii* differentially expresses with *S. mitis* aerobically, three belong to the *lutABC* operon which encodes lactate catabolism genes (Chai et al., 2009). We generated a deletion of the *lut* operon in *C. matruchotii* and found that it could only modestly oxidize lactate (Fig. S2) presumably due to reversible reaction(s) by any/all of 3 other L-lactate dehydrogenases that it encodes. We originally hypothesized that removal of lactate would benefit *S. mitis* by neutralizing the local pH. We tested this by addition of copious amounts of MOPS buffer but observed no significant changes in growth yield vs medium lacking MOPS. Using the pH indicator phenol red, we were unable to observe acidification around cocultured cells in the presence of additional buffer. Unexpectedly, these data suggest that pH modulation is not a factor in coculture growth yield benefit.

465

466 Alternatively, C. matruchotii may aid S. mitis by the removal of lactate itself and in doing so allow 467 for more glucose fermentation by preventing feedback inhibition. This is further supported by total 468 loss of coculture enhancement of S. mitis growth yield observed anaerobically (Fig. 1B). Lactate 469 removal was linked to increased S. mitis growth in our limited glucose experiment which forced 470 C. matruchotii to rely on lactate produced by S. mitis for full growth yield. We saw a significant 471 decrease of C. matruchotii AlutABC when in coculture with S. mitis on limiting glucose media 472 when compared to monoculture and a similar decrease in S. mitis yield (Fig. 2). This shows that 473 C. matruchotii cannot compete for glucose when in competition with S. mitis and likely depends 474 on cross-feeding of lactate when they are in direct proximity.

475

476 Using SECM we were able to directly quantify lactate production by S. mitis and its oxidation by 477 adjacent C. matruchotii in real time (Fig. 5) indicating a sharp decrease in lactate concentration 478 between individual cells. To the best of our knowledge this is the first observation of metabolite 479 exchange between individual bacterial cells by SECM. We believe that existing 'corncob' config-480 urations observed in vivo (Mark Welch et al., 2016; Morillo-lopez et al., 2021) should easily be 481 able to consistently remove lactate from their immediate area. This would allow streptococcal 482 metabolism to continue without inhibition while eliminating a source of acid stress to the host and 483 other adjacent microbiota. This observation supports a mechanism whereby the interaction be-484 tween these two commensals may contribute to the lack of cariogenic activity in a healthy oral 485 biofilm.

486

487 This study has described two mechanisms of interaction between bacteria that exist in direct con-488 tact in vivo. Using a reductionist approach, we were able to ascertain how each mechanism con-489 tributed to fitness of both organisms. Advantages provided to each species when these mecha-490 nisms are intact also reflect the positional arrangement of these species in vivo as anaerobic 491 conditions would not allow for favorable interactions to occur. Additionally, we were able to 492 demonstrate real-time metabolite exchange between these species at sub-micron distances, in-493 dicating that crossfeeding between these organisms is likely occurring between them in vivo. 494 These interactions reveal one way by which structural orientation and species composition be-495 tween commensals may contribute to host health and potentially be one way by which a healthy 496 biofilm composition is maintained in vivo.

497

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