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1 Identification of *V. parvula* and *S. gordonii* adhesins mediating co-

aggregation and its impact on physiology and mixed biofilm structure.

5 Louis Dorison¹, Nathalie Béchon^{1, 3}, Camille Martin-Gallausiaux², Susan Chamorro-

- Rodriguez¹, Yakov Vitrenko⁴, Rania Ouazahrou⁴, Romain Villa², Julien Deschamps⁵,
 Romain Briandet⁵, Simonetta Gribaldo², Jean-Marc Ghigo¹, and Christophe Beloin^{*1}
- ⁹ ¹ Institut Pasteur, Université Paris Cité, Genetics of Biofilms Laboratory, CNRS
 ¹⁰ UMR6047, 75015 Paris, France
- ² Institut Pasteur, Université Paris Cité, Evolutionary Biology of the Microbial Cell La boratory, CNRS UMR6047, 75015 Paris, France.
- ³ Present address: Department of Molecular Genetics, Weizmann Institute of Science,
 Rehovot 7610001, Israel
- ⁴ Institut Pasteur, Université Paris Cité, C2RT, Biomics Technology Plateform, 75015,
 Paris, France
- ¹⁷ ⁵ Université Paris-Saclay, Institut national de recherche pour l'agriculture, l'alimenta-
- 18 tion et l'environnement (INRAE), AgroParisTech, Micalis Institute, Jouy-en-Josas
- 19 78350, France

22 *Corresponding authors:

- 23 christophe.beloin@pasteur.fr (ORCID: 0000-0002-0344-3443)
- 25 Keywords: Veillonella, Streptococcus, adhesin, dental plaque, trimeric autotrans-
- 26 porter, aggregation, coaggregation.

ABSTRACT

The dental plaque is a polymicrobial community where biofilm formation and co-aggregation, the ability to bind to other bacteria, play a major role in the construction of an organized consortium. One of its prominent members is the anaerobic diderm Veillonella parvula, considered as a bridging species, which growth depends on lactate produced by oral Streptococci. Understanding how V. parvula co-aggregates and the impact of aggregation has long been hampered due to the lack of appropriate genetic tools. Here we studied co-aggregation of the naturally competent strain V. parvula SKV38 with various oral bacteria and its effect on cell physiology. We show that V. parvula requires different trimeric autotransporters of the type V secretion system to adhere to oral *Streptococci* and *Actinomyces*. In addition, we describe a novel adhesin of Streptococcus gordonii, VisA (SGO 2004), as the protein responsible for co-aggre-gation with *V. parvula*. Finally, we show that co-aggregation does not impact cell-cell communication, which is mainly driven by environmental sensing, but plays an im-portant role in the architecture and species distribution within the biofilm.

92 INTRODUCTION

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Bacterial attachment to other bacteria is a key step in the formation of bacterial biofilm. This adhesion is termed auto-aggregation when the adhesion occurs with a genetically identical bacteria and co-aggregation when different species or strains are involved. While auto-aggregation is known to enhance stress resistance, antibiotic tolerance, and virulence, the specific role of co-aggregation remains largely understudied¹, except in the contexts of the dental plaque and certain aquatic environments^{2–4}.

100 The dental plaque is an important polymicrobial biofilm whose perturbation can lead to the development of caries and periodontitis^{5,6}. The formation of the dental 101 102 plaque is a stepwise process which begins with the adhesion to the teeth surface of early colonizers comprised of oral streptococci, including Streptococcus gordonii, S. 103 104 oralis and S. mitis and Actinomyces spp.. Then, bridging species such as Veillonella 105 and Fusobacterium co-aggregate with the early colonizers forming an adhesion substrate for late biofilm commensal colonizers but also the opportunistic pathogens Por-106 107 phyromonas gingivalis, Treponema denticola and Tannerella forsythia². Co-aggregation is mostly driven by adhesins $^{7-12}$, few of which have been identified, including P. 108 gingivalis major and minor fimbriae^{13,14}, which interacts with *S. gordonii* SspB adhesin 109 and GADPH, and the *F. nucleatum* autotransporters RadD and Fap2 ^{9,11,15}. However, 110 most of the molecular actors of oral biofilm co-aggregation mechanisms are currently 111 112 unknown.

Veillonella are strict anaerobic diderm firmicutes and seven Veillonella species 113 can be found in the dental plaque¹⁶ where they rely on lactate produced by oral strep-114 tococci as a carbon source¹⁷. Oral Veillonella species possess extensive aggregative 115 properties contributing to their colonization of the oral environment⁷ in which the phys-116 117 ical proximity resulting from aggregation with their different partners likely facilitates their metabolic integration in the oral biofilm. For instance, V. parvula (previously V. 118 atypica) strain PK1910 induces the expression of the S. gordonii amylase amyB in a 119 distance-dependent manner, possibly to increase lactic acid production^{18,19}. V. atypica 120 was also shown to produce a catalase protecting *F. nucleatum* from reactive oxygen 121 species produced by *S. gordonii*²⁰. 122

123 While *Veillonella* adhesive properties have been first characterized more than 124 30 years ago ^{21,22}, the underlying molecular actors of co-aggregation and its

physiological consequences remained elusive until recently. Indeed, it was recently 125 126 shown that V. atypica OK5 possesses eight trimeric autotransporter adhesins (TAA) belonging to the type Vc secretion system family. One of them, Hag1, mediates adhe-127 sion to oral bacteria and buccal cells²³. On the other side, several oral Veillonella spe-128 cies, including V. atypica OK5, co-aggregate with S. gordonii Hsa adhesin²⁴. However, 129 a more extensive mechanistic characterization of the Veillonella adhesin repertoire 130 131 was hampered due to the lack of genetic tools described for this genus. V. parvula 132 strain SKV38 is a recently described naturally competent isolate that is readily genet-133 ically engineered²⁵. We have recently shown that it possesses nine TAAs, named VtaA to -I, and 3 classical monomeric autotransporters, named VmaA to -C. Both VtaA and 134 135 a gene cluster coding for 8 TAA adhesins were shown to be important for surface adhesion and biofilm formation²⁵. 136

137 Here, we investigated the capacity of *V. parvula* SKV38 to co-aggregate with common oral bacteria and studied the physiological impact of this co-aggregation. We 138 139 found that, in addition to mediating auto-aggregation, VtaA is also involved in co-aggregation with S. oralis while two other adhesins encoded in an adhesin cluster, VtaE 140 141 and VtaD, are involved in co-aggregation with S. gordonii and Actinomyces oris. We 142 also identified a novel adhesin of S. gordonii, VisA (SGO_2004), as the possible interacting partner of *V. parvula* VtaE/VtaD. Analysis of the transcriptomic profiles of both 143 144 bacteria in coculture with or without aggregation suggested a very limited impact of 145 aggregation on gene expression. Furthermore, we showed that absence of co-aggregation results in spatial segregation of the two species biofilms, suggesting that co-146 aggregation would be necessary to generate the architecture of a healthy dental 147 plaque biofilm. In conclusion, this study contributes to provide a better mechanistic 148 understanding of co-aggregation between oral bacteria, one of the key organization 149 150 principles driving dental plaque formation.

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161 **RESULTS**

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V. parvula uses specific adhesins to interact with *S. oralis*, *S. gordonii* and *A. oris*.

165 In order to identify potential ligands of V. parvula SKV38 adhesins, we used our 166 model V. parvula SKV38 strain to perform co-aggregation assays with different 167 bacterial members of the dental plague. V. parvula SKV38 co-aggregated with several 168 Streptococcus gordonii strains, Streptococcus oralis ATCC10557 and Actinomyces 169 oris CIP102340. It did not, however, co-aggregate with Streptococcus mitis CIP 104996, Streptococcus parasanguinis CIP104372T, Fusobacterium nucleatum ATCC 170 25586 and Streptococcus mutans NG8, UA159, CBSm8 and CBSm38 and only very 171 weakly with S. mutans UA140 (Figure 1A, Figure S1). We decided to further investigate 172 the determinant of co-aggregation between V. parvula SKV38 and S. oralis ATCC 173 174 10557, S. gordonii DL1 and A. oris CIP102340. To identify which of the 12 V. parvula adhesins were involved in the co-aggregation with these different partners, we used 175 176 previously constructed single deletion mutants of each of these adhesins²⁵ and 177 performed co-aggregation assays by mixing independent cultures of each of the three tested oral bacterial strain and the 12 V. parvula adhesin mutants in aggregation buffer. 178 179 Deletion of *V. parvula* trimeric autotransporter VtaA abolished co-aggregation with S. oralis, while deletion of the trimeric autotransporter VtaE abolished co-aggregation with 180 181 S. gordonii and strongly reduced co-aggregation with A. oris (Figure 1B-E and S2). A double mutant lacking both VtaA and VtaE showed reduced co-aggregation with A. 182 183 oris compared to a $\Delta v taE$ single mutant, suggesting that VtaA is a secondary adhesin 184 involved in the co-aggregation with A. oris (Figure 1G). Microscopy observation of V. 185 parvula incubated with S. oralis, S. gordonii and A. oris confirmed the observed coaggregation phenotypes (Figure S2). Moreover, use of P_{Tet}-vtaA or P_{Tet}-vtaE 186 187 constructs, in which the chromosomal vtaA and vtaE genes are placed under the control of an aTc inducible promoter, allowed us to recapitulate the aggregative 188 phenotype in an aTc-dependent manner (Figure 1C-E). Both the P_{Tet} -vtaA and the P_{Tet} -189 *vtaE* strains partially co-aggregated with *S. oralis* and *A. oris*, even in absence of aTc, 190 suggesting a leakage of the used P_{Tet} promoter. While deletion of *vtaE* completely 191 abolished co-aggregation with S. gordonii when mixed after independent growth, it only 192 193 partially abrogated co-aggregation with S. gordonii when cocultured overnight (Figure

194 1F), suggesting that another *V. parvula* adhesin could contribute to co-aggregation. 195 Consistently, we identified VtaD as being this secondary adhesin, since any residual co-aggregation between S. gordonii and V. parvula disappeared in the $\Delta vtaCDEF$ and 196 $\Delta vtaDE$ mutants (Figure 1F). vtaD is the gene located immediately upstream of vtaE 197 and VtaD has a high similarity to VtaE (81%), which may explain why both 198 199 corresponding proteins possess similar binding activities. However, vtaD encodes a shorter adhesin than VtaE (2071 residues opposed to 3141 residues), mostly lacking 200 part of the repetitive sequences found in *vtaE* stalk (Figure S3 and S4). Interestingly, 201 202 deletions of vtaC or vtaF in the $\Delta vtaE$ background increased the aggregative 203 phenotype of V. parvula with S. gordonii (Figure 1F) suggesting that these other 204 adhesins may interfere with the VtaD-dependent co-aggregation process.





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207 Figure 1: VtaA and VtaE are the adhesins responsible for co-aggregation with

210 plaque after 7h, as measured by the % of decrease of optical density between 0 and 7h. SD and single

- points for 3-5 replicates are shown. See Figure S1 for auto-aggregation of each strain. (B) Aggregation
- of V. parvula SKV38 WT and each single autotransporter mutant with S. oralis ATCC 10557, S. gordonii

²⁰⁸ S. oralis, S. gordonii and A. oris.

^{209 (}A) Co-aggregation of independent cultures of both *V. parvula* SKV38 and various members of the dental

213 DL1 and *A. oris* CIP102340 after 7h. SD and single points for 3 replicates are shown. The indicated p-214 values were calculated by comparing all conditions to the partner + *Vp* WT using a Brown-Forsythe and 215 Welch ANOVA followed by Dunnett correction. (C-E and G) Co-aggregation curves of *V. parvula* WT, 216 $\Delta vtaA$, $\Delta vtaE$, $\Delta vtaE\Delta vtaA$ and P_{Tet} -vtaE or P_{Tet} -vtaA with 0, 100 or 250 ng/µl of aTc. Curves represent 217 the mean and SD of 6-17 replicates. (F) Representative pictures of co-aggregates after coculture be-218 tween *S. gordonii* WT and *V. parvula* WT and different adhesin mutants; red arrow bars indicate the 219 relative size of the aggregated fraction.

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222 The Hag1 trimeric autotransporter has been shown to be involved in the adhesion of *V. atypica* OK5 to human oral epithelial cells²³. Interestingly, the genes 223 224 encoding VtaA and Hag1 are located at the same locus on the genome of V. parvula 225 SKV38 and V. atypica OK5, respectively, with the difference that Hag1 is preceded by another trimeric adhesin. Comparison of this locus among different Veillonella revealed 226 227 that this locus always contains adhesins, although the number of adhesin and their identity differs between strains, even within the same species (Figure S5). This feature 228 is reminiscent of *V. parvula* SKV38²⁵ cluster of adhesin that is also present in a locus 229 230 that consistently hosts diverse adhesins across Veillonella species.

231 Apart from its importance in the dental plaque, V. parvula is also present throughout the gastrointestinal tract. We wondered whether some of its adhesins are 232 233 involved in adhesion to oral or intestinal cells, rather than other bacteria. In contrast to 234 the known strong interaction between V. atypica and host cells²³, we observed only a moderate adhesion of V. parvula SKV38 to TR146 oral and Caco-2 intestinal epithelial 235 cells using microscopy (Figure S6 A-C). We then tested whether the major adhesins of 236 237 *V. parvula* were involved in this interaction using a $\Delta vtaCDEF \Delta vtaA$ mutant.. Deletion of the large adhesin group did not reduce adhesion to either cell type. Finally, we 238 239 examined whether the other adhesins of V. parvula SKV38 could impact Caco-2 cell adhesion, and showed that there were no significant differences in adhesion (Figure 240 S6D). 241

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Identification of VisA (SGO_2004), a new S. gordonii adhesin mediating coaggregation with V. parvula.

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248To further characterize the molecular actors of co-aggregation, we focused on249the pair *V. parvula / S. gordonii* and took advantage of a recently published collection

of 27 *S. gordonii* DL1 surface proteins deletion mutants²⁶, corresponding to all 26 LPXTG cell wall anchor domain-containing proteins plus two mutants of the Amylasebinding protein A (AbpA) and B (AbpB). We first investigated co-aggregation between wild-type *V. parvula* and all *S. gordonii* mutants and we identified two mutants, $\Delta padA$ (SGO_2005) and Δ SGO_2004, presenting either a reduced ($\Delta padA$) or total loss of coaggregation (Δ SGO_2004) with *V. parvula* (Figure 2A-B). *padA* and SGO_2004 are part of an operon (Figure 2D) and the observed loss

of aggregation in the $\Delta padA$ mutant could be due to a polar effect on the downstream 257 258 SGO 2004 gene²⁷. To test for this hypothesis, we inserted a P_{Tet} inducible promoter with the pVeg RBS ²⁸ upstream of SGO 2004, while retaining or deleting the padA 259 260 gene. In both cases, co-aggregation was fully recovered in presence of aTc (Figure 2C), demonstrating that SGO 2004 alone is the protein responsible for S. gordonii co-261 262 aggregation with V. parvula. SGO 2004 is a gene of previously unknown function cod-263 ing for an 807 amino acid protein composed of a flexible chain of disordered/poorly 264 predicted 3 short alpha helixes, 7 G5-domains and an LPXTG domain (Figure 2D-E). Homologues of this protein are found in other, sometime distant, Streptococci, next to 265 266 a padA homologue (Figure S7). Considering its newly identified role, we renamed this 267 new aggregation-mediating adhesin VisA, for Veillonella Interacting Streptococcal protein A. 268

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270 S. gordonii VisA directly interacts with V. parvula VtaE and VtaD

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272 To determine whether co-aggregation mediated by V. parvula VtaE and VtaD and 273 S. gordonii VisA resulted from direct or indirect interactions, we purified the VisA region containing its 7 G5 domains (residues 138-698 with a C-terminal His-tag, see Figure 274 275 2D) in E. coli and used the purified protein to assess potential direct interactions with V. parvula. When used at a concentration above 1µg/mL, VisA_{G5} was sufficient to 276 277 induce aggregation of V. parvula on its own (Figure 3A). Confirming our previous observations, a $\Delta v taE$ mutant retained a partial aggregation phenotype, while a $\Delta v taD$ -278 *vtaE* mutant did not, and $\Delta vtaE\Delta vtaC$ and $\Delta vtaE\Delta vtaF$ mutants displayed an 279 280 intermediate phenotype (Figure 3B). Moreover, immunofluorescence using an anti-His 281 antibody detecting VisA_{G5} incubated with V. parvula WT, $\Delta vtaE$ or $\Delta vtaD-vtaE$ showed that while VisA_{G5} could be detected at the surface of V. parvula WT (Figure 3C) or 282

283 $\triangle vtaE$ (Figure 3D), no signal could be seen for the $\triangle vtaD-vtaE$ mutant (Figure 3E).

Altogether, these results suggested that VisA binds to V. parvula surface via a direct

- 285 interaction with VtaE or VtaD.
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Figure 2: VisA (SGO_2004) is a novel adhesin interacting with *V. parvula*.

(A) Co-aggregation of *V. parvula* SKV38 with *S. gordonii* DL1 WT and mutants for each LPXTG-con taining protein and *abpA-B*, as measured by the % of decrease of optical density between 0 and 7h. SD

and single points for 4-5 replicates are shown. The indicated p-values were calculated by comparing all conditions to the partner + Vp WT using a Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA followed by Dunnett correction. Co-aggregation curves of *S. gordonii* WT, $\Delta visA$, $\Delta padA$ (B) and P_{Tet} -visA or P_{Tet} -padA (C) with or without 250 ng aTc. Curves represent the mean and SD of 6-13 replicates. (D) Genetic organization of the SGO_2004/2005 locus. VWF_A: Von Willbrand factor A (IPR002035), Fim_isopep_form_D2: Fimbrial isopeptide formation D2 domain (IPR026466), G5 domain (IPR011098). (E) AlphaFold structural model of VisA without the signal peptide.



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299 Figure 3: VisA binds directly to *V. parvula* by interacting with VtaE and VtaD.

300 (A) Auto-aggregation curves of *V. parvula* SKV38 with various concentrations of VisA_{G5}. (B) Aggregation 301 curve of *V. parvula* SKV38 or indicated adhesin mutants with 4 µg/mL of VisA_{G5}. For (A) and (B), curves 302 represent the mean and SD of 3 replicates. (C-E) Brightfield images and their corresponding immuno-303 fluorescence images targeting the His-tag of VisA_{G5} after incubation of *Vp* WT, $\Delta vtaE$ and $\Delta vtaDE$ with 304 10 µg/mL of VisA_{G5} protein. Scale bar is 15 µm. The (C) right panel represents an enlargement of WT + 305 VisA_{G5} immunofluorescence image (indicated by the white square) and scale bar is 5 µm.

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309 Co-aggregation in co-culture produces no significant alteration on the

- 310 transcriptomic profiles of V. parvula and S. gordonii
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While previous studies have compared the transcriptional responses of 312 *Veillonella* and *S. gordonii* co-incubations compared to monoincubation^{18,19,29}, they did 313 not specifically evaluate the potential contribution of co-aggregation. Having identified 314 the adhesins involved in V. parvula / S. gordonii co-aggregation, we set out to compare 315 the transcriptional responses of these two strains in mono- and cocultures with and 316 without co-aggregation or auto-aggregation. Here we used the rich medium BHIP (BHI 317 318 + 100 mM pyruvate), in which both bacteria could grow without metabolic co-319 dependency.

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321 V. parvula transcriptional profiles of each condition grouped mainly by the 322 presence of *S. gordonii* and then by their strain type. In principal component analysis 323 (PCA), calculated using normalized transcripts counts, samples were strongly 324 separated on the first principal component by their coculture status, thus indicating that the main determinant of the observed V. parvula response is the presence of its 325 326 bacterial partner S. gordonii (Figure 4A). The PCA analysis on the second and third axis revealed a clustering by V. parvula mutant (Figure S8), suggesting that the 327 328 residual differences between conditions are associated with the nature of the V. parvula 329 mutants.

In order to identify potential coculture-specific response, we searched for genes 330 up or downregulated (log2Fold above 1 or below -1) in at least one condition compared 331 332 to V. parvula WT monocultures. The resulting Upset plot (Figure 4B) represents the common dysregulated genes for different combinations of conditions. This plot shows 333 that the core V. parvula coculture transcriptomic response in all conditions was 334 335 composed of 68 genes (Figure 4B green bar and supplementary data S1). The most upregulated gene was FNLLGLLA 00352 (around 4.5 log2Fold increase compared to 336 337 the monoculture), coding for an uncharacterized major facilitator superfamily-type (MFS) transporter, an inner membrane transporter of an unknown small molecule. We 338 339 also found a strong upregulation of genes coding for enzymes of the histidine and arginine biosynthesis pathways (Figure 4C). Interestingly, vtaB, encoding an 340 341 uncharacterized trimeric autotransporter and a gene cluster encoding a prophage were 342 also induced, albeit at lower levels. Many genes associated with stress response were 343 slightly upregulated (genes coding for the chaperones GroEL and GroES, their 344 regulators CtsR and HcrA, ClpC and ClpE) (supplementary data S1). Pyruvate 345 metabolism appeared to be remodeled in coculture by up- and downregulation of many 346 pyruvate-associated genes (Figure 4C, supplementary data S1). Concerning lactate 347 consumption, the malate/lactate antiporter *mleN* was slightly up-regulated, while genes 348 related to the L- and D-lactate dehydrogenases were downregulated (*lutA-lutC*, 349 *FNLLGLLA_01898* and *fucO*). Genes involved in iron or other metal uptake through 350 the inner membrane were also both up- and downregulated.

351 We also compared specifically all coculture conditions compared to V. parvula 352 ∆*vtaADE* with *S. gordonii* (Figure 4D). Overall, only a few *V. parvula* genes involved in 353 purine metabolism were upregulated specifically wen aggregating in cocultures, either 354 through co-aggregation or auto-aggregation (Figure 4B and D, blue bar, supplementary 355 data S1). By contrast, 22 genes were specifically dysregulated in coculture in absence 356 of any type of aggregation among which genes involved in NADH regeneration through 357 xanthine to urate conversion were slightly downregulated (Figure 4B, orange bar, 358 supplementary data S1). 359

360 On the other hand, there were very few changes on *S. gordonii* transcriptome 361 when cocultured with *V. parvula*. The only upregulated genes in all cocultures 362 conditions (Figure 5AB, green bar, supplementary data S2) are part of the Bfb PTS 363 system (SGO_1575-82) already described as induced when co-aggregating with *A.* 364 *naeslundii*³⁰. The only downregulated gene (SGO_1314) encoded a ZnuA-like metal 365 binding lipoprotein (Figure 5C). No gene expression changes were found specifically 366 associated to co-aggregation (Figure 5D).

Altogether, these results indicate that (i), *V. parvula* transcriptional response to coculture is associated with changes in metabolism and stress (ii) *S. gordonii* has a minimal transcriptional response, (iii) . aggregation has only a limited effect on both bacteria, without contribution of auto- or co-aggregation.

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374 Figure 4: Transcriptomic response of V. parvula to S. gordonii is mostly related

375 to coculture.

376 A) Principal component analysis (PCA) of all V. parvula samples (4 biological replicates for 10 377 conditions). Colors and shape represent the different conditions. The two circles separate monoculture 378 samples from coculture samples. Green symbols indicate samples able to auto-aggregate in coculture, 379 blue shades samples unable to auto-aggregate. B) Upset plot (a Venn diagram alternative) showing the 380 number of differentially expressed genes (defined by an absolute log2fold change > 1) shared for each 381 condition compared to V. parvula WT monoculture. The green bar indicates the core response to 382 coculture, the orange bar the core answer to coculture without any aggregation and the blue bar the 383 response to any aggregation in coculture. C) Volcano plot of the coculture of V. parvula and S. gordonii 384 WT compared to V. parvula in monoculture. Genes corresponding to identified key functions are 385 differentially colored. D) Upset plot for each condition compared to V. parvula $\Delta vtaA\Delta vtaDE$ and S. 386 gordonii coculture., the blue bar shows the response to any aggregation in coculture.

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Figure 5: Transcriptomic response of *S. gordonii* to *V. parvula* is limited to the upregulation of a PTS system and downregulation of a metal binding lipoprotein.

A) Principal component analysis (PCA) of all S. gordonii samples (4 biological replicates for 10 conditions). Shades of green represent all *S. gordonii* ∆visA conditions, shades of blue cocultures of *S.* gordonii WT and red the monoculture of S. gordonii WT. B) Upset plot (Venn diagram alternative) showing the number of differentially expressed genes (defined by an absolute log2fold change > 1) shared for each condition compared to S. gordonii WT or $\Delta visA$ monocultures (indicated by the $\Delta visA$ column). The green bar indicates the core response to coculture and the blue bar the core differences between S. gordonii WT and *\DeltavisA*. C) Volcano plot of the coculture of V. parvula and S. gordonii WT compared to S. gordonii in monoculture. Genes of the PTS system are colored in red. D) Upset plot for each coculture condition compared to S. gordonii + V. parvula $\Delta vtaA\Delta vtaDE$ coculture.

411 Co-aggregation strongly affects the structure of mixed *V. parvula/S. gordonii*412 biofilms.

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414 To assess the impact of co-aggregation on mixed biofilm formation, we imaged either mono-species or mixed biofilms of V. parvula and S. gordonii formed in 96 well 415 416 plates for 24h using confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM). To differentiate both bacteria, S. gordonii was stained using the monoderm specific dye BacGO³¹ while 417 Syto61 was used to stain all bacterial (Figure S9A-B). Comparison of co-aggregating 418 mixed biofilms (Vp WT + Sg WT) with mixed biofilms without co-aggregation (Vp 419 420 $\Delta v taDE + Sg \Delta v isA$, $Vp \Delta v taDE + Sg WT$ and $Vp WT + Sg \Delta v isA$) showed that, in absence of co-aggregation, the two partner bacteria were found in distinct patches 421 422 (Figure 6A). This was confirmed by the measurement of roughness (capturing the variations of height over the biofilm) of the streptococcus biofilm in mixed biofilms 423 424 (Figure 6B, figure S9C-D). However, co-aggregating biofilms presented a more 425 homogenous distribution of the two bacterial populations (Figure 6A). Volume 426 measurements were variable but suggested that co-aggregation results in a higher overall biofilm volume and an increased S. gordonii biofilm (Figure S9E-F). Measures 427 428 of total biofilm formation by crystal violet assay did not show an increase in biofilm formation when co-aggregating (Figure S9G). Coaggregation therefore seems to 429 430 strongly impact on the organization of the two species in mixed biofilms which could profoundly modulate the behavior of these species in vivo. 431



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434 Figure 6: Confocal microscopy of mixed biofilms. A) Representative section images of 435 mixed biofilms, scale bar is 60 µm. Lower and side bands correspond to the orthogonal projections 436 on the z-x and z-y axis respectively. B-C) Measured biofilm roughness parameter for the BacGO 437 and the Syto61 dyes. Each point (9-12 per condition) represents the average roughness 438 measurement of four images per well. Experiment done in three biological independent replicates 439 and three technical replicates. P-values, indicated by asterisk (*: p< 0,05, *** : p< 0,0005) were 440 calculated using a Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's correction for multiple testing. For all plots, Vp is 441 V. parvula, ΔDE is V. parvula $\Delta vtaD$ -vtaE, Sg is S. gordonii and $\Delta visA$ is S. gordonii $\Delta visA$. Presence 442 (or absence) of auto- and co- aggregation is indicated by the + (or -) symbols. 443

445 **DISCUSSION**

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Interactions between bacteria and their environment, whether abiotic or biotic, 447 play a key role in determining the nature and evolution of bacterial lifestyles and we 448 449 previously characterized the V. parvula adhesins involved in its biofilm formation capacities. In this study, we investigated the molecular determinants at the origin of the 450 451 co-aggregation mechanisms between *V. parvula* and different members of the dental plaque and identified three V. parvula and one new S. gordonii adhesins involved in 452 453 co-aggregation and studied the impact of such co-aggregation on partner physiology and co-biofilm structure. 454

455

456 Adhesion strategies in Veillonella

We showed that the previously identified *V. parvula* VtaA adhesin interacts with *S. oralis* and *A. oris* while VtaE is responsible for co-aggregation with *A. oris* and *S. gordonii*, in which the highly homologous, but truncated VtaD has a secondary contribution (Figure 7).



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462 Figure 7: The multiple roles of *V. parvula* adhesins.

463 Model of the interactions mediated by the different *V. parvula* adhesins.

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Contrary to what has been described for *V. atypica*, where a single adhesin,
Hag1, is responsible for all aggregative phenotypes²³, the different adhesive functions
in *V. parvula* are located on different proteins. Comparison of the predicted structures
of Hag1 with VtaE, VtaD and VtaA shows that Hag1 head section is much more
developed than the other adhesins, which could explain its pleiotropic role (Figure
S3B). In addition, Hag1 is almost twice the size in residues (7187 residues) compared

to Hag2 (3838 residues), the second longest adhesin in V. atypica OK5. In V. parvula 471 472 SKV38, all major adhesins, including VtaA (3041 residues), VtaE (3142 residues), VtaC (2811 residues) and VtaF (3193 residues) are of similar size. One hypothesis is 473 that Hag1, because of its long size, could mask other adhesins at the cell surface thus 474 explaining the concentration of activities on the only surface accessible adhesin. By 475 contrast, in V. parvula SKV38, activities are distributed across multiple co-expressed 476 477 surface adhesins. VtaD and VtaE head domains are very similar, but VtaE is estimated 478 to be around 100 nm longer than VtaD (Figure S3A) and we observed that more 479 discrete aggregative phenotypes are associated with VtaD compared to VtaE, which 480 could be due to masking of VtaD by VtaE. Additionally, the fact that the double mutants 481 $\Delta v ta E \Delta v ta F$ and $\Delta v ta E \Delta v ta C$ aggregate faster with the purified S. gordonii VisA_{G5} than 482 the simple $\Delta v taE$ mutant is also in favor of the hypothesis that a shorter VtaD adhesin 483 is partially masked by the longer VtaC and VtaF adhesins. This masking interference 484 between adhesins has been commonly observed as a possible regulatory mechanism of the surface structures ^{15–16}. Therefore, selection pressure on adhesion could either 485 apply towards ensuring that the main adhesins do not mask each other by remaining 486 487 of similar size, still allowing some potential interference relief of shorter adhesins (V. 488 parvula case) or towards accumulating all functions on the tallest adhesin (V. atypica 489 case).

Here we identified VtaA as an adhesin promoting co-aggregation with *S. oralis*, whereas we previously showed that VtaAit promotes auto-aggregation in BHI³⁴. This auto-aggregation does not happen after growth in SK medium, which was used to grow *V. parvula* for co-aggregation assays. This switch from an auto-aggregative to a coaggregative behavior depends on environmental conditions. This could be an efficient mean to rapidly adapt to abrupt changes of environment without affecting the quantity of a single adhesin at the cell surface.

Different *Veillonella* species occupy different niches within the oral microbiome. *V. parvula* is strongly associated with the dental plaque while *V. atypica* and *V. dispar* are found on soft surfaces. *Veillonella* HMT 780 has a strong specialization for keratinized gingiva¹⁶. It would be interesting to know if differential colonization sites stem from different co-aggregation capacities. This site specialization has been associated to certain genes (e.g., thiamine biosynthesis genes) but no difference in the number of adhesins between sites could be seen¹⁶. However, older studies have shown that *Veillonella* isolates from different origin within the mouth presented site specific co-aggregation capacities⁷. Revisiting the concept of strain-specific coaggregation with a modern genetic approach leveraging genome sequencing and genetic manipulation, could help us decipher whether *Veillonella* adhesins specificity to different bacteria is related to the site specificity.

We found that *V. parvula* binds weakly to human epithelial cells. This differs to what has been described in *V. atypica*²³. Therefore, different species of *Veillonella* might show different adhesion capacity to host cells, maybe linked to their isolation niche or their adhesin repertoire. We cannot discount that technical differences in our assay explain that difference. We used cancer cell lines, whereas Zhou *et al.* used buccal cells from a human buccal swab. In addition, the buccal cells were not thoroughly washed after adhesion as in our present protocol.

516

517 VisA, a novel adhesin of S. gordonii

518 Like V. parvula, S. gordonii DL1 seems to use different adhesins to bind to 519 different partners. For instance, it binds to certain Veillonella species, including V. 520 atypica OK5, through Hsa, a sialic-acid binding protein also involved in platelet activation^{24,32,33}. Here, we showed that Hsa is not involved in S. gordonii co-521 aggregation with V. parvula SKV38 (Figure 2A) and we have identified a second and 522 new adhesin, VisA (SGO 2004), responsible for this interaction. Our results also 523 524 suggest that VisA interacts directly with VtaE and VtaD. The use of purified VisA G5 domains demonstrated that they are the portion of VisA recognized by V. parvula. G5 525 domains are structural folds that are part of the stalk of monoderm surface proteins 526 and are often found associated to an enzymatic active site³⁵. For instance, SasG from 527 Staphylococcus aureus or Aap from Staphylococcus epidermidis promote auto-528 529 aggregation through interaction between the G5-E domain repeats forming their B domain and have been described to undergo a zinc mediated dimerization³⁶. While 530 531 VisA does not seem to induce auto-aggregation of S. gordonii, the purified protein migrated exclusively at a size corresponding to a dimer in denaturing western blot 532 533 (something also observed for trimeric autotransporters), suggesting that it also 534 possesses the ability to dimerize even without the E-linker domain (Figure S10).

Interestingly, the locus encompassing genes encoding VisA-like proteins, PadA 536 537 and a thioredoxin reductase is conserved in distant pathogenic Streptococci (Figure S7). PadA, in interaction with Hsa, is known to bind to platelets triggering their activa-538 tion³³. While in laboratory condition VisA (formerly known as SGO 2004) does not play 539 a role in platelet interaction²⁷, its conservation could suggest otherwise in vivo. S. oralis 540 ATCC 10557 also possesses homologues of PadA (HRJ33 07090) and VisA 541 (HRJ33 07095). However, V. parvula adhesins responsible for co-aggregation with 542 543 the S. gordonii and S. oralis species are not the same, which strongly indicates that S. 544 oralis likely uses a protein different from VisA to co-aggregate with V. parvula. The S. 545 oralis VisA homologue possesses only five G5 domains while S. gordonii VisA has 546 seven domains. The protein could be too short in S. oralis and masked by other surface components or not expressed. This could explain that VisA does not contribute to S. 547 548 oralis co-aggregation with V. parvula.

549 Taken together, these results further illustrate the versality in the use of various 550 adhesins to co-aggregate both for Streptococci and Veillonella species.

551

552 What drives the response to coculture in oral bacteria?

553 Although limited, modifications of gene expression during coculture of V. parvula and S. gordonii were observed. For S. gordonii, the main answer to coculture with V. 554 555 parvula was the upregulation of a PTS system encoded by the bfb operon (SGO 1575-1582). This system was found upregulated in S. gordonii when co-aggregating with 556 Actinomyces oris³⁰ and one gene of the operon downregulated when co-aggregating 557 with Fusobacterium nucleatum³⁷. The *bfb* operon is associated with biofilm formation 558 as deletion of several genes led to a decrease in adhesion and biofilm formation while 559 the operon promoter was 25% more active in biofilms³⁸. An increase of arginine 560 561 concentration could be at the origin of the induction of this S. gordonii PTS system. Indeed, arginine is known to be important for S. gordonii biofilm formation and arginine 562 563 restrictions result in strong downregulation of the *bfb* operon in monoculture³⁹. Coaggregation of S. gordonii with A. oris resulted in downregulation of arginine 564 565 biosynthesis and upregulation of the *bfb* operon through the uptake of *A. oris* -produced arginine. One of the upregulated pathways in Veillonella when cocultured with S. 566 567 gordonii is arginine biosynthesis. Therefore, one can hypothesize that V. parvula would favor S. gordonii biofilm formation by producing arginine. We have, however, not 568

detected any decrease in the arginine biosynthesis pathway in *S. gordonii* or changes
in expression of arginine dependent regulators *argC*, *argR* or *argC*.

Globally, coculture did not result in major changes in gene expression in our 571 experiments performed in anaerobic conditions using a rich and buffered media without 572 metabolic dependency. Auto-aggregation and co-aggregation themselves had a 573 574 negligible impact on the observed responses by both bacteria. The induction of the alpha-amylase amyB gene expression in S. gordonii caused by a an unknown diffusible 575 signal produced by *V. parvula*^{18,19} was not observed in our experiments. This may be 576 577 due to our specific conditions that did not allow production of the signal by *V. parvula*. 578 Other examples of oral bacteria responding weakly to co-aggregation are F. nucleatum interacting with S. gordonii³⁷ and S. mutans interacting with V. parvula^{40,41}. These 579 580 results suggest that oral bacteria do not actually sense attachment to other bacteria 581 but rather changes in nutrient availability and environment conditions such as pH or 582 oxidative stress. Auto-aggregation and biofilm lifestyle is known to induce large 583 metabolic changes in common aerobic bacteria, inducing genes involved in stress response and anaerobic metabolism in *E. coli*⁴² which seem mostly driven by oxygen 584 gradients, as shown in aggregates of P. aeruginosa 43. 585

586 While anaerobic conditions could explain the limited response caused during coculture and interactions between V. parvula and S. gordonii, the exposure to oxygen 587 588 could strongly impact the response to co-aggregation of anaerobic bacteria. Indeed, in 589 another study looking at S. gordonii and V. parvula co-transcriptomes, Mutha et al. 590 reported broad changes in Veillonella including a predominant response to oxidative stress with 39 out of 272 regulated genes associated with it while S. gordonii samples 591 presented high inter-variability²⁹. No common gene regulation could be detected 592 between our results and their results, possibly due to different experimental settings, 593 594 as they looked at response from short (30 min) aerobic co-aggregation in saliva while we looked at transcriptional responses after 6 h of anaerobic coculture. The aerobic 595 596 conditions used during this short co-aggregation period could explain the strong V. parvula response to oxidative stress exacerbated by S. gordonii. 597

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599

601 Could the proximity within the biofilm enhance synergistic or antagonistic 602 interactions?

We hypothesized that co-aggregation could influence localization of the two bacteria within the biofilm. Indeed, co-aggregation was necessary to promote colocalization of the two bacteria. Proximity within the biofilm would be essential to *Veillonella parvula* as it can favor the uptake of lactate by bringing it closer to the producer Streptococci, which would also protect it from oxidative stress by consuming the O₂ locally. It could also favor signal transduction as demonstrated for the distance dependent induction of *S. gordonii amyB*.

610 Without co-aggregation, both bacteria were distant from each other in the 611 biofilm. This could be explained by a passive clonal development but also by an active prevention of biofilm colonization by non-aggregating partners. This could have a 612 613 strong effect in vivo by limiting the entry of non-co-aggregating members (including S. 614 *mutans*) into the dental plaque biofilm while permitting the presence of cooperative 615 partners in close vicinity. A similar mechanism has been demonstrated in Vibrio cholerae, where deletion of *rbmA*, the gene encoding RbmA, a matrix protein involved 616 617 in mother-daughter cell cohesion, resulted in higher penetration by invaders as cells were less tightly packed in the biofilm⁴⁴. Additionally, mixed biofilms between RbmA 618 producers and deficient strains resulted in patchy structures reminiscent of our 619 620 observation.

Mixed biofilms have often been described to increase stress resistance 621 compared to single species biofilms. For instance, synergistic biofilm formation by four 622 marine bacteria promoted protection to invasion by the pathogen *Pseudoalteromonas* 623 tunicata and increased resistance to hydrogen peroxide and tetracycline compared to 624 monospecies biofilms⁴⁵. The resistance in a three-species biofilm was due to 625 protective capacity of one of the resident members⁴⁶. We hypothesize that, while mixed 626 biofilms are already more stress-resistant, co-aggregation between members could 627 628 further increase stress resistance.

629

In conclusion, we have shown that *V. parvula* uses specific sets of multiple trimeric autotransporters to specifically interact with other members of the oral dental plaque. While these adhesive capacities are not necessary for intercellular communication, they reduce distance between members of the biofilm. The co-

aggregation phenomena are likely to contribute to the highly organized process of
dental plaque formation by modulating the successive addition of interacting bacterial
species.

637

638 MATERIAL AND METHODS

639

640 Growth conditions

Bacterial strains are listed in TABLE S1. Streptococcus spp. and A. oris were 641 642 grown in brain heart infusion (BHI) medium (Bacto brain heart infusion; Difco). V. parvula was grown in BHI supplemented with 0.6% sodium dl-lactate (BHIL) or SK me-643 644 dium (10 g liter-1 tryptone [Difco], 10 g liter-1 yeast extract [Difco], 0.4 g liter-1 disodium phosphate, 2 g liter-1 sodium chloride, and 10 ml liter-1 60% [wt/vol] sodium dl-645 lactate; described in Knapp et al.⁴⁷), in which it does not auto-aggregate. Bacteria were 646 647 incubated at 37°C under anaerobic conditions in anaerobic bags (GENbag anaero; bioMérieux no. 45534) or in a C400M Ruskinn anaerobic-microaerophilic station. Esch-648 erichia coli was grown in lysogeny broth (LB) (Corning) medium under aerobic condi-649 tions at 37°C. When needed, 20 mg/L chloramphenicol (Cm), 200 mg/L erythromycin 650 (Ery), 300 mg kanamycin (Kan) or 2.5 mg/L tetracycline (Tet) was added to V. par-651 vula cultures, 5 mg/L Ery was added to S. gordonii cultures and 25 mg/L Cm or 652 100 mg/L ampicilin (Amp) was added to *E. coli* cultures. All chemicals were purchased 653 654 from Sigma-Aldrich unless stated otherwise.

655

656 Veillonella parvula natural transformation

From plate, cells were resuspended in 1 mL SK medium adjusted to an optical 657 658 density at 600 nm (OD₆₀₀) of 0.4 to 0.8, and 15 µL was spotted on SK agar petri dishes. On each drop, 1-5 µL (75 to 200 ng) linear double-stranded DNA PCR product was 659 added. The plates were then incubated anaerobically for 24-48 h. The biomass was 660 resuspended in 500 µL SK medium, plated on SK agar supplemented with the corre-661 662 sponding antibiotic, and incubated for another 48 h. Colonies were streaked on fresh selective plates, and the correct integration of the construct was confirmed by PCR 663 664 and sequencing.

666 Veillonella parvula mutagenesis and complementation.

V. parvula site directed mutagenesis was performed as described by Knapp and 667 al⁴⁷ and Béchon et al²⁵. Briefly, upstream and downstream homology regions of the 668 target sequence and the V. atypica kanamycin (aphA3 derived from the pTCV-erm⁴⁸ 669 plasmid under the V. parvula PK1910 gyrA promoter) or tetracycline resistance cas-670 sette were PCR amplified with overlapping primers using Phusion Flash high-fidelity 671 PCR master mix (Thermo Scientific, F548). PCR products were used as templates in 672 673 a second PCR round using only the external primers, resulting in a linear dsDNA with 674 the antibiotic resistance cassette flanked by the upstream and downstream sequences. vtaE chromosomal complementation was done by inserting in the promoter region the 675 previously described Veillonella P_{Tet} promoter²⁵ associated with an erythromycin re-676 sistance cassette. Primers used in this study are listed in Table S2 in the supplemental 677 678 material.

679

680 Streptococcus gordonii natural transformation

681 25 μL of an O/N culture, 100 μL of heat inactivated horse serum (Sigma), 900 682 μL of THY Broth, 2 μL of competence specific peptide (1 mg/mL, 683 DLRGVPNPWGWIFGR, synthetized by GenScript) and 1-5 μL of linear double-684 stranded DNA PCR product were mixed in a microcentrifuge tube, incubated anaero-685 bically for 5 to 8 hours at 37°C and plated on selective agar medium for 1 to 3 days. 686 Colonies were streaked on fresh selective plates, and the correct integration of the 687 construct was confirmed by PCR and sequencing.

688

689 Streptococcus gordonii complementation.

690 In order to create a markerless mutant of SGO 2004 with a P_{Tet} promoter, we took advantage of the described IDFC2 cassette⁴⁹, containing an erythromycin re-691 sistance and a mutant pheS gene encoding the A314G missense mutation providing 692 693 sensitivity to p-chlorophenylalanine (4-CP). Briefly, the IFDC2 cassette and homology regions before and after the promoter of SGO 2004 was amplified from an S. gordonii 694 strain containing IDFC2. PCR products were used as templates in a second PCR round 695 using only the external primers, which generated a linear dsDNA with the IFDC2 cas-696 697 sette flanked by the upstream and downstream sequences. Streptococcus gordonii

698 DL1 WT was transformed with this construct and selected for insertion of the cassette699 with erythromycin.

In a second time, the IDFC2 cassette was replaced by the P_{Tet} promoter of pRPF185 plasmid fused with the pVeg RBS⁵⁰ by creating a construct with similar homologies regions than for the IFCD2 cassette or by using an homology region upstream of *padA* to create the $\Delta padA, pTet-SGO_2004$ mutant. After transformation of *S. gordonii* IDFC2-DL1 with either construct, counter selection was done on BHI + *p*-CI-Phe plates and selected mutants verified by sanger sequencing and for sensibility to erythromycin.

707

708 Aggregation assay

709 Overnight cultures were centrifuged for 5 min, 5000 g and resuspended in aggregation buffer²³ (1 mM Tris- HCl buffer, pH 8.0, 0.1 mM CaCl₂, 0.1 mM MgCl₂, 150 710 711 mM NaCl) to a final OD₆₀₀ of 1. 400 µL of each culture for co-aggregation or 800 µL 712 for auto-aggregation were added to a microspectrophotometer cuvette (Fisherbrand) 713 and left to sediment on the bench in the presence of oxygen, so no growth should occur. The OD₆₀₀ was measured every hour in a single point of the cuvette using a 714 715 SmartSpec spectrophotometer (Bio-Rad). OD₆₀₀ were then normalized to the initial 716 OD_{600} by the formula.

717

718 Purification of SGO_2004 G5 domains

The portion of SGO 2004 coding for G5 domains (residues 138-698) was am-719 plified from *S. gordonii* and the pET22b-HIS vector was linearized by PCR. The PCR 720 products were then purified and annealed by Gibson reaction. The plasmid was dia-721 lyzed and transformed in electrocompetent E. coli DH5-alpha. After verification of the 722 construct by sequencing, the plasmid was purified and transformed in E. coli 723 724 BL21(DE3)-pDIA17. After growth to OD₆₀₀ 0.4, cells were induced with 0.1 mM IPTG 725 and grown for 3h at 37°C before harvesting. Cell pellet was frozen O/N then resus-726 pended in Buffer A (30 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 300 mM NaCl, 30 mM Imidazole) and lysed by sonication. Debris were pelleted by ultracentrifugation (50 000 g, 30 min) and 727 728 supernatant run through a HisTrap 5 mL column on an AKTA Explorer (GE) against a 729 gradient of imidazole (30-300 mM). The purified protein was assessed for purity by SDS-Page followed by SafeStain SimplyBlue[™] (ThermoFisher) staining and western 730

blot against the HIS-tag (Figure S10) and dialyzed twice against 30 mM Tris-HCl pH
7.5, 300 mM NaCl using a SnakeSkin[™] 3500 Da (ThermoFisher).

733

734 Immunofluorescence of surface bound VisA_{G5}

735 V. parvula was grown overnight in SK and washed two times in PBS. VisA_{G5} 736 was preincubated 1 hour in the dark at 0.1 mg/mL with 1/10 of an anti-His Tag monoclonal antibody coupled with Alexa Fluor[™] 488 (MA1-135-A488, Invitrogen). 50 µL of 737 bacteria at OD₆₀₀ 1 was incubated for 2 hours with 5 µL of the fluorescent VisA_{G5} and 738 739 subsequently mounted on a slide. Cells were imaged using a Zeiss Axioplan 2 micro-740 scope equipped with an Axiocam 503 mono camera (Carl Zeiss, Germany). Epifluo-741 rescence images were acquired using the ZEN lite software (Carl Zeiss, Germany) and 742 processed using Fiji (ImageJ).

743

744 **RNA extraction**

600 µL of anaerobic media BHIP (BHI + 100 mM sodium pyruvate) in a 1.5 mL 745 tube was inoculated with each of the bacteria at OD₆₀₀ 0.05 and incubated for 6h an-746 aerobically. Resulting culture was mixed with 1.2 mL of RNAprotect Bacteria reagent 747 (QIAGEN), vortexed and incubated at RT for 5 min, before centrifugation (10 000 rpm. 748 4°C) for 5 min. Supernatant was removed and pellet kept at -80°C before RNA extrac-749 tion. For lysis, pellets were washed with 700 µL of PBS and resuspended in 200 µL of 750 751 lysis buffer (15 mg/mL Lysozyme, 100 µL / mL Proteinase K) before incubation for 3h 752 at 37°C with constant shaking (750 rpm). Each sample was then added to a matrix B lysis tube with 800 µL of TRIzol and lysed using a FastPrep (2 times S. mutans pre-753 754 registered protocol). 800 µL of 100% ethanol was added and samples were centrifuged to pellet debris (8000 g, 2min). Lysate was transferred to a column from the kit Direct-755 756 zol RNA Miniprep plus (Zymol) and the rest of the extraction was done following the 757 providers manual.

758

759 RNA sequencing

Libraries were prepared using Illumina Stranded Total RNA Prep from 440 ng of
 RNA. RiboZero kit Microbiome kit (Illumina) was used to eliminate ribosomal RNA. The
 subsequent steps were as follows: RNA fragmentation, cDNA synthesis (incorporating
 uracils into the second strand), adapter ligation, indexing by PCR with 17 cycles
 (amplifying only the first strand), purification of unbound adaptors and primers on AMP

beads (Beckman Coulter). The resulting stranded libraries comprised fragments from 200 to 1000 bp with peaks lying between 390 and 470 bp as visualized on a 5300 Fragment Analyzer (Agilent Technologies). No low-molecular peaks corresponding to unbound adaptors and primer dimers were observed. Libraries were pooled and sequenced on a NovaSeq X 10 B flow cell (Illumina) producing 1200 millions 150x150bp pair-end reads. As a result, each sample was represented by 18-55 million reads.

Ribofinder was used to verify the efficiency of ribodepletion: only around 5% of reads 771 772 mapped to ribosomal RNA. Taxonomy analysis using Kraken module confirmed the 773 presence of S. gordonii and V. parvula RNA according to the co-infection design. In 774 coinfection samples, reads from the two species were present in more or less equal 775 proportions. The RNA-seq analysis was performed with Sequana⁵¹. In particular, we 776 used the RNA-seq pipeline (v0.19.2, (https://github.com/sequana/seguana rnaseg)) 777 built on top of Snakemake v7.32.4⁵². Reads were trimmed from adapters and lowquality bases using fastp software v0.22.0⁵³, then mapped to the reference genome 778 779 using Bowtie2 v2.4.6⁵⁴. Genomes and annotations were downloaded from NCBI website using Veillonella parvula SK38 (GenBank LR778174.1) and S. gordonii DL1 780 781 (GenBank CP000725.1) genome references. FeatureCounts 2.0.1⁵⁵ was used to produce the count matrix, assigning reads to features using annotation 782 aforementioned. Statistical analysis on the normalized count matrix was performed to 783 identify differentially regulated genes. Differential expression testing was conducted 784 using DESeq2 library 1.34.0⁵⁶ scripts, and HTML reporting was made with the Sequana 785 RNA-seq pipeline.Parameters of the statistical analysis included the significance 786 (Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-values, false discovery rate FDR < 0.05) and the 787 788 effect size (fold-change) for each comparison.

789

790 Confocal Laser Scanning Microscopy

Biofilms were formed in a 96 well plate (PhenoPlate, PerkinElmer) by inoculating 150 μ L of anaerobic media BHIP (BHI + 100 mM sodium pyruvate) with overnight culture of each species at OD₆₀₀ 0.05 for each of them. After one hour of adhesion, media was replaced to remove planktonic bacteria and incubated for 24 hours. Biofilm was stained by addition of 50 μ L of BHIP media containing both the BacGO (1 μ M final concentration) and the Syto61 dies (5 μ M final concentration). Three images set at defined positions within each well were acquired on an Opera Phenix Plus High 798 Content Screening System running with Harmony software v.5.1 (Revvity, formerly 799 known as PerkinElmer), using the following modalities: 20x water/NA 1.0, Z-stack, 40 planes, 2 μ m step between planes, for the Syto61 dye: λ_{exc} : 640 nm / emission filter 800 650-760 nm), for the bacGO dye: λ_{exc} : 561 nm / emission filter 571-596 nm. Resulting 801 images were analyzed using BiofilmQ 1.0.1⁵⁷. Images were first denoised by convolu-802 tion (dxy = 5, dz = 3) and top hat filter (dxy = 25), then segmented in two classes using 803 an OTSU thresholding method with a sensitivity of 0.15 for the Syto61 channel and 804 805 0.25 for the BacGO channel. Images were then declumped in 10-pixel wide cubes and 806 Surface properties (range 30 pixel) and Global biofilm properties calculated (supple-807 mentary data S3). Illustrative images were generated with Imaris 9.0.

808

809 Data availability

- 810811 Supplementary data are available at
- 812 https://github.com/ldorison/Coaggregation_streptococcus_Veillonella-
- 813 814

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833

834 Contribution

- 835 L.D., C.M.G. and C.B. designed the experiments. L.D., S.C., C.M.G., N.B., R.V., Y.V.
- 836 and R.O. performed the experiments. L.D. and C.B. wrote the paper, with contributions

837 from C.M.G., J.-M.G., N.B., R.O. and Y. V. and S.G. All authors read and approved the

838 manuscript.

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842 843

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