

Simultaneous enzyme grafting on bio-inspired scaffolds for antibacterial protection

Baptiste Arbez, Chloé Retourney, Fabienne Quilès, Gregory Francius,

Henri-Pierre Fierobe, Sofiane El-Kirat-Chatel

▶ To cite this version:

Baptiste Arbez, Chloé Retourney, Fabienne Quilès, Gregory Francius, Henri-Pierre Fierobe, et al.. Simultaneous enzyme grafting on bio-inspired scaffolds for antibacterial protection. Materials Advances, 2024, 5, pp.1171. 10.1039/d3ma00703k . hal-04398415

HAL Id: hal-04398415 https://hal.univ-lorraine.fr/hal-04398415v1

Submitted on 16 Jan 2024 $\,$

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

2 GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



Bio-inspired multienzymatic scaffold

5	Simultaneous enzymes grafting on bio-inspired
6	scaffolds for antibacterial protection
7	Baptiste Arbez ^a , Chloé Retourney ^a , Fabienne Quilès ^a , Gregory Francius ^a , Henri-Pierre Fierobe ^b and
8	Sofiane El-Kirat-Chatel ^{a,c} *
9	
10	^a Université de Lorraine, CNRS, LCPME, F-54000 Nancy, France
11	^b Laboratoire de Chimie Bactérienne (LCB), CNRS, Université d'Aix-Marseille, UMR7283 31 Chemin
12	Joseph Aiguier, 13009 Marseille France
13	^c CBMN, CNRS UMR 5248, IPB, Université de Bordeaux, Pessac, France
14	
15	*Address correspondence to Sofiane El-Kirat-Chatel: sofiane.el-kirat-chatel@u-bordeaux.fr
16	Phone : +33-3 72 74 73 99; Fax : +33-3 83 27 54 44; Address: LCPME, 405 Rue de Vandoeuvre, 54600

17 Villers-lès-Nancy, FRANCE

18 ABSTRACT

Surface bacterial contamination represents a crucial health and industrial concern which requires new 19 20 strategies to be continuously developed. Successful antibacterial surfaces are characterized by a 21 combination of durable and broad-spectrum antimicrobial actions. Herein, we present a bio-inspired 22 strategy mimicking natural cellulosome to simultaneously immobilize multiple enzymes with 23 antibacterial activity onto surfaces. The grafting strategy leverages the strong biomolecular interaction 24 between receptors on a scaffold protein anchored on the substrate and ligands added to the enzymes. 25 As a proof of concept, lysozyme and lysostaphin were chosen to target the bacterial cell wall, and 26 DNase I to degrade DNA released during cell lysis, known to promote bacterial adhesion which can 27 later lead to biofilm formation. The specificity of the ligand/receptor interaction was confirmed by 28 biochemical and AFM-based single-molecule force spectroscopy assays, thus demonstrating successful 29 co-immobilization of the three enzymes on the protein scaffold. Then, the antibacterial protection was 30 evaluated against Staphylococcus aureus, Escherichia coli and Micrococcus luteus by viability tests 31 which revealed long-term antimicrobial protection of the multi-enzymatic scaffold on both Gram-32 positive and Gram-negative bacteria. After 24 hours of contact, the system induced lysis of 71 to 85% of bacteria, and its antimicrobial properties remained effective after 5 days even with several 33 cumulative waves of bacterial contaminations. This work demonstrates the relevance of bio-inspired 34 35 multi-enzymatic scaffolds for antibacterial protection, providing long-term and broad-spectrum action.

36 STATEMENT OF SIGNIFICANCE

With the raise of resistance among pathogenic bacteria, it became crucial to find alternatives to conventional antibiotics. Antimicrobial enzymes present many advantages as they are "re-usable", less associated with resistance issues, non-toxic and can withstand a wide range of contaminations. In this article, we focus on grafting antibacterial enzymes on materials surfaces. We used a bio-inspired approach to simultaneously graft different yet complementary enzymes on a protein scaffold and to achieve broad-spectrum antibacterial effect. The resulting multi-enzymatic scaffold enhanced

- 43 antibacterial effects compared to a strategy where the enzymes were directly grafted on the material's
- 44 surface. This was a proof of concept of antibacterial strategies bio-inspired by cellulosomes as our
- 45 system provided long-lasting protection concurrently against Gram + and Gram bacteria.

46 **1. INTRODUCTION**

Bacterial infections pose a significant threat in both medical and industrial contexts. They represent an ever-growing global scourge which caused the death of 7.7 million patients in 2019, about one eighth of the total number of deaths worldwide ¹. Infections often take the form of surface contaminations forming on medical devices such as wound dressings, urethral and intravascular catheters, prosthetic grafts, prosthetic joints, and shunts ^{2, 3}. This leads to increased mortality and morbidity which causes an important economic burden on health care systems ^{2, 4-6}.

53 Surface contamination starts with the initial adhesion of pioneer bacteria to the substrate which then 54 multiply to form microcolonies and later biofilm, the most predominant and successful lifestyle of bacteria and highly resistant to external stress, including antibiotics ⁷⁻⁹. Antibacterial effect (or contact-55 killing) is often used on surfaces to inactivate pioneer cells and therefore prevent infections by 56 inhibiting bacterial growth and biofilm formation ¹⁰⁻¹². Initially, antibiotics and synthetic/natural 57 58 antimicrobial peptides were considered promising candidates but the emergence of multi-resistant strains has rapidly put a curb on this prospect ^{13, 14}. In this context, antimicrobial enzymes have been 59 60 considered as an interesting alternative as they are less associated with resistance issues. Their activity 61 is "re-usable" *i.e.* they can act several times provided their catalytic site is active which can ensure long-lasting antimicrobial effect. Moreover, some enzymes can withstand broad-spectrum 62 contaminations and are non-toxic ^{12, 13, 15-20}. 63

In this work, we present an antimicrobial strategy based on a multi-enzymatic system bio-inspired by natural cellulosomes, which are cell-associated supramolecular structures or "nanomachines" consisting in several cellulolytic enzymes organized on a protein scaffold ^{21, 22}. Enzymes displayed on cellulosomes have complementary roles that enable efficient degradation and absorption by cellulolytic bacteria of nutrients from cellulose, a highly recalcitrant polysaccharide. Our proposed bioinspired strategy was to mimic the supramolecular organization of natural cellulosomes by simultaneously assembling three enzymes with complementary antimicrobial roles on a protein

71 scaffold grafted on material surfaces. Enzymes were chosen to favor broad-spectrum antimicrobial 72 protection while concurrently preventing the accumulation of lysed cell debris on the surface. The first 73 enzyme is lysozyme which cleaves the β -(1,4) bond between the N-acetyl-muramic acid and the Nacetyl-D-glucosamine residue of the peptidoglycan (PG) chains present in bacterial cell walls ^{23, 24}. This 74 75 enzyme was also reported to act against Gram-negative bacteria through membrane disruption. For 76 instance, it has the capability to permeabilize both the outer and inner membranes of E. coli, achieving this effect with and without the formation of pores, respectively ²⁴⁻²⁷. The second enzyme is 77 78 lysostaphin, an endopeptidase that hydrolyses the pentaglycine chains linking the PG fibrils in the cell 79 wall of staphylococci, a major pathogenic genus ²⁸. The third enzyme is deoxyribonuclease I (DNase I), which aims to degrade the extracellular DNA, an important polymer released during cell lysis by cell 80 wall degrading enzymes, and known to promote microbial adhesion and bacterial cohesion ²⁹. 81

82 Immobilizing antimicrobial enzymes is a crucial and challenging step for antibacterial strategies. 83 Ideally, the grafting technique should preserve the tridimensional conformation of the enzymes to 84 ensure their antimicrobial effects. It should also provide an optimized accessibility of the catalytic site 85 once loaded onto the surface. A wide range of immobilization methods rely on physical adsorption or 86 direct covalent attachment on the substrate which often lead to steric hindrance of randomly 87 orientated enzymes, loss of activity of antimicrobial compounds due to conformational changes and possibly leaching of adsorbed molecules ^{13, 19, 30}. Previously, we demonstrated that strategies based on 88 89 strong-affinity biomolecular ligand/receptor interactions present many advantages for antibacterial 90 and antibiofilm properties as they ensure a controlled orientation of the grafted enzymes ³⁰. This 91 controlled immobilization preserves the orientation and the conformation of the enzymes and thus 92 contributes to optimal and long-lasting antimicrobial properties. Lysozyme, for instance, was successfully grafted on a substrate and showed enhanced antimicrobial effects over several 93 94 consecutive cycles of contaminations when grafted in an ordered manner, via ligand/receptor interactions, rather than randomly orientated ³⁰. Yet, this approach cannot be applied to the 95 96 simultaneous and controlled grafting of several enzymes with complementary activities in order to

97 broaden the antimicrobial protection towards various contaminants. In the strategy proposed herein, 98 chimeric ligand-tagged enzymes were grafted on receptors located on a recombinant protein scaffold, 99 a supramolecular organization similar to those of natural cellulosomes. Cellulosomal enzymes anchored on supramolecular structures found in natural cellulosomes show optimal synergistic activity 100 101 which is significantly enhanced compared to the corresponding free enzymes ³¹. These supramolecular 102 assembly relies on a highly specific and strong ligand/receptor interactions between domains named dockerin and cohesin, respectively ³². The calcium-dependent ligand/receptor pairs in cellulosomes 103 104 were found to be one of the strongest non-covalent biomolecular bonds known in nature where a 105 duplicated calcium-binding loop-helix motif of the ligand interacts with the receptor site ³²⁻³⁶.

106 Here we demonstrated that bio-inspired multi-enzymatic scaffold is an attractive strategy to prevent 107 surfaces from being colonized by biofilm-forming bacteria. Far western blot based on scaffold 108 detection confirmed that all three enzymes displayed functional dockerin modules and were 109 successfully immobilized on the scaffold via ligand/receptor (dockerin/cohesin) binding. Atomic force 110 microscopy (AFM)-based single-molecule force spectroscopy (SMFS) revealed the calcium-dependent 111 nature of the ligand/receptor interactions used to dock the enzymes on the protein scaffold, similarly 112 to natural cellulosome. It also demonstrated a strong binding and the specificity of these interactions. 113 Lastly, viability assays on planktonic bacteria indicated the antimicrobial effect of the multi-enzymatic 114 scaffold over five consecutive cycles of contamination by biofilm-forming bacteria, namely 115 Staphylococcus aureus, Escherichia coli and Micrococcus luteus.

116 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

117 **2.1. Reagents and proteins**

Lysozyme from chicken egg white (>90%, >40 units/mg), recombinant lysostaphin and DNase I (≥2,000 Kunitz units/mg protein) from bovine pancreas were purchased from Sigma and BioVendor (France). Recombinant scaffold protein as well as lysozyme, lysostaphin and DNase I enzymes tagged with ligands were produced and purified by the Protein Production and Purification Plateforme of the 122 Institut de Biologie Moléculaire et Cellulaire (IBMC)-CNRS of the Université de Strasbourg (details123 below).

124 **2.2. Scaffold expression and purification**

BL21 (DE3) *E. coli* strain transformed with pET9d-Scaf6-6xHis plasmid was grown at 37°C and in 2L lysogeny broth medium supplemented with 1,2% glycerol and Carbenincilin until reaching an optical density of 1.5. The temperature was lowered to 20°C and the expression induced by 0.2 mM IPTG during 20 hours.

Bacteria were collected by centrifugation at 5000 g, resuspended in 50 mL of 50 mM NaPO₄ (pH = 7) with 20 μ g/mL DNase I and protease inhibitors mix (Roche), and lysed with a Microfluidizer LM-20 (Microfluidics).

The lysate was clarified by centrifugation at 18000 *g* for 20 min at 4°C, the supernatant collected and incubated with 15 g of micro-crystalline AvicelPH101 cellulose (SIGMA) for 90 min at 4°C under constant agitation. The cellulose was recovered by filtration on 2 μ m glass fiber filter and washed three times with 50 mL of 50 mM NaPO₄ (pH = 7) and twice with 50 mL of 12.5 mM NaPO₄ (pH = 7).

136 Protein was sequentially eluted by three 50 mL volumes of cold water, followed by two sequential 137 50 mL volumes of 1 % triethanolamine, immediately buffered by the addition of 0.1 volume of 500 mM 138 Tris-HCl (pH = 8). Elution fractions were assessed by SDS-PAGE and those containing the protein were 139 pooled and filtered at 0.2 µm. The protein was further purified on an Akta Pure FPLC system with a 140 MonoQ 5/150 GL anion exchange column (Cytiva) equilibrated in 25 mM Tris-HCl (pH = 8), 10 % glycerol 141 and eluted with a gradient 0-1M NaCl, 25mM Tris-HCl (pH = 8) and 10 % glycerol. Fractions containing 142 Scaf6 were pooled and loaded onto a HiLoad 16/60 Superdex S200 size exclusion column (Cytiva) 143 equilibrated in PBS (pH = 7.4). Fraction corresponding to the monomeric protein were pooled and concentrated on a Vivaspin 20 concentrator (MWCO 30kDa; Sartorius) to a final concentration of 144 145 3.5 mg/mL, aliquoted, snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C.

146 **2.3. Tagged-enzymes expression and purification**

BL21 (DE3) *E. coli* strains transformed with pT7 expression vectors bearing 6His-enzymes (lysozymes, lysostaphin, and DNase I) tagged with the ligand motifs were grown at 37°C and in 1L Terrific Broth medium supplemented with kanamycin until reaching an optical density of 2.5. The temperature was lowered to 20°C and the expression induced by 0.5 mM IPTG during 18 hours.

Bacteria were collected by centrifugation at 5000 *g*, resuspended in 100 mL 25mM Tris-HCl (pH = 8), 150 mM NaCl, 0,1% CHAPS, 3mM β -mercapto-ethanol, and lysed with a Microfluidizer LM-20 (Microfluidics).

154 The lysate was clarified by centrifugation at 18000 g for 20 min at 4°C, and the supernatant purified 155 on an Akta Pure FPLC system by binding on a HisTrap HP Ni-NTA affinity column (Cytiva) with 25 mM 156 imidazole. The protein was eluted by a 25 to 500 mM imidazole gradient in 25 mM Tris-HCl (pH = 8), 157 150mM NaCl, 0,1% CHAPS, 3 mM β -mercapto-ethanol. Fractions enriched in tagged enzymes were 158 further purified on a Hi-Load 16/60 Superdex 75 column (Cytiva) equilibrated in PBS (pH = 7.4). 159 Fractions containing monomeric tagged enzymes were pooled and concentrated on an AMICON Ultra 160 4 (MWCO 3kDa, Millipore) to a final concentration of 1.5 mg/mL, aliquoted, snap frozen in liquid 161 nitrogen and stored at -80°C.

162 2.4. Far western blots

Ligand-tagged and non-tagged proteins (20 μL at 0.2 mg/mL) were mixed with 6 μL of denaturing buffer, prior boiling for 5 min. 5-μL of boiled samples were subjected to denaturing polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) using Bio-rad precast gels (gradient 4-15%) and analyzed by far western blot, after transfer on nitrocellulose (GE healthcare), using biotinylated Scaf6 and streptavidin-POD (Roche) as formerly described in ³⁷.

168 **2.5. Surface and AFM tip functionalization**

Silicon wafers and round glass coverslips (Ø12 mm) were coated by plasma sputtering with an under
layer of chromium (~10 nm) and an upper layer of gold (~30 nm). They were then cleaned by UV-ozone
treatment for 15 min, rinsed with ethanol and dried under N₂ flow.

172 Enzymes and scaffolds were covalently attached on self-assembled monolayers (SAMs) of carboxyl-173 terminated alkanethiols. Briefly, gold-coated substrates and gold-coated NPG-D (Bruker) AFM tips 174 were immersed overnight in a solution of 0.1 mM 16-mercaptododecahexanoic acid and 0.9 mM 11-175 mercapto-1-undecanol to form SAMs. They were then rinsed with ethanol and dried under N₂ flow. 176 Next, carboxylic groups were activated by immersion 30 min in a solution of N-hydroxysuccinimide 177 (NHS, 10 mg/mL) and 1-ethyl-3-(3-dimethylaminopropyl)-carbodiimide (EDC, 25 mg/mL). AFM tips and 178 substrates were then rinsed with ultrapure water and immersed in protein solutions (0.2 mg/mL in 179 PBS) for 2 hours. Enzymes-decorated tips and scaffold-coated surfaces were stored in Tris-buffered 180 saline (TBS) supplemented 1 mM CaCl₂ and 1 mM ZnCl₂ (TBS⁺) at 4°C for 4 days maximum before they 181 were used for SMFS. Calcium chloride and zinc chloride were used to ensure calcium-dependent 182 ligand/receptor interactions and zinc-dependent lysostaphin activity.

For bacterial viability experiments, substrates coated with scaffolds were immersed in a solution containing 0.2 mg/mL of tagged lysozyme, tagged lysostaphin and tagged DNase I. Control surfaces were prepared by grafting directly non-tagged enzymes on SAMs activated substrates (without scaffold layer) or by grafting only the scaffold (no enzyme addition). All grafting lasted for 2 hours at 0.2 mg/mL in PBS. Prepared surfaces were rinsed in TBS⁺ and directly used for bacterial viability tests.

188

2.6. AFM imaging and force spectroscopy

All AFM experiments were achieved at $21\pm1^{\circ}$ C in an air-conditioned room, in TBS⁺ buffer using a Bioscope Resolve AFM (Bruker corporation, Santa Barbara, CA). Cantilevers spring constants were determined by the thermal noise method ³⁸. Measurement of scaffold coating thickness was performed by scanning a 1 x 1 μ m² area at high forces and high scan rate and then imaging a larger area (of 5 x 5 μ m²) under small forces and reduced frequencies. To perform SMFS, adhesion maps of

194 32 x 32 force-distance (FD) curves on 5 x 5 μ m² areas were recorded on the scaffold-coated substrates 195 with the enzyme-decorated AFM tips with an applied force of 500 pN, 1 µm/s constant approach and 196 retraction speeds and a contact time of 500 ms. For control experiments, after acquiring adhesion in 197 presence of calcium (TBS⁺), 20 mM of ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA, Carlo Erba Reagents) 198 was added in the buffer and SMFS was performed again to acquire the adhesion in the presence of the 199 chelating agent. The media was then replaced by fresh TBS⁺ and SMFS was performed one last time. 200 Positive control was achieved by performing the AFM measurements with the cellulase Cel9T from R. 201 *cellulolyticum* tagged with its native dockerin.

The adhesion force and rupture length of the last adhesive peaks were extracted from each force curve with Nanoscope Analysis 1.8 (Bruker). Adhesion forces and rupture lengths of the last adhesive peaks for each curve were ordered in bins to form the frequencies histograms displaying adhesion frequencies and rupture frequencies. These histograms were processed with MATLAB R2016b (MathWorks) and designed in figures with Origin 2023 (OriginLab). Results presented for SMFS correspond to the average over three independent experiments of 1024 force-distance curves each.

208

2.7. Bacterial growth and viability tests

209 All bacterial cells were grown routinely at 37°C. Staphylococcus aureus strain 187 (HER 1239) were 210 grown on tryptic soy broth (TSB, Sigma) plates and Micrococcus luteus (ATCC4698) and Escherichia coli 211 (ATCC25922), on lysogeny broth Lennox (LB, Sigma) plates. For viability experiments, a single colony 212 of S. aureus, M. luteus and E. coli was grown in 5 mL of respective broth media under gentle agitation (150 rpm on an agitation plate). Overnight cultures were washed twice in TBS⁺ by centrifugation at 213 214 5000 g for 5 min before being retrieved. For the consecutive challenges, 1.2 mL of bacterial suspension 215 containing $\sim 5 \times 10^7$ bacteria were deposited on functionalized surfaces in 12-well plates and gently 216 agitated at 37°C. Multiple waves of contaminations (challenges) were performed by replacing the 217 bacterial suspension in the plates with fresh suspension containing ~5 x 10⁷ bacteria every 24h for a 218 total of 5 challenges. Samples were pipetted (100 μL) at 0h, 2h, 4h, 6h and 24h of every 24h-challenge

and serially diluted then plated on agar plates before culture at 37°C to determine bacterial viability by colony forming units counting. Results presented for viability tests correspond to the average on four serial dilutions for each time and over four independent experiments. Results are presented with exponential decay fittings on Origin 2023 (OriginLab).

223 2.8. Statistical analysis

All statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism 7.0. Standard deviations of each data group of the adhesion frequency for each enzyme (n=3) were not found significantly different with a Brown-Forsythe test. A one-way ANOVA was therefore used followed by a Tukey's multicomparison test for pair-wise comparison between conditions.

228 3. RESULTS

3.1. Ligand-tagged enzymes bound to the receptors located on the scaffolds

230 To concurrently graft three different enzymes on surfaces, we decided to construct and purify after 231 heterologous expression an interspecific hybrid scaffold made of receptors (cohesin modules) from 232 three different species, namely Acetivibrio thermocellus (formerly known as Clostridium 233 thermocellum), Ruminiclostridium cellulolyticum and Ruminococcus flavefaciens, and separated by 234 spacers of 30 amino acids. Enzymes of interests were tagged with the ligands corresponding to their 235 scaffold receptors, *i.e* lysostaphin, lysozyme and DNase I were tagged with ligands (dockerin modules) 236 from A. thermocellus, R. cellulolyticum and R. flavefaciens, respectively. More precisely, Cel48S 237 dockerin from A. thermocellus was anchored on the C-terminus of lysostaphin to form the tagged 238 lysostaphin; lysozyme tagged enzymes carried Man5K dockerin from R. cellulolyticum on the N-239 terminus; and tagged DNase I was tagged with dockerin from R. flavefaciens on its C-terminus. The 240 cellulase Cel9T from R. cellulolyticum with its native dockerin was used as positive control to confirm binding of native enzyme-ligand to scaffold receptor ³⁹. Enzymes were tagged with ligand of different 241 242 species to ensure that each tagged enzyme had a specific receptor on the scaffold and thus that each enzyme could bind to the scaffold. Far western blots were the first step of our work to evaluate the 243

244 ability of the enzymes to bind to the scaffold. Electrophoresis gel with the tagged and non-tagged 245 lysostaphin, lysozyme and DNase I were transferred onto a membrane and biotinylated scaffold was 246 used to probe the membrane. Bands at 36 kDa, 23 kDa and 41 kDa were revealed and attributed to 247 tagged lysostaphin, tagged lysozyme and tagged DNase I, respectively (Figure 1). No bands were 248 observed when the biotinylated scaffold was used to probe non-tagged enzymes, namely lysostaphin 249 (27 kDa), lysozyme (16 kDa) and DNase I (31 kDa). This confirmed that tagged enzymes specifically 250 bound to the scaffold whereas non-tagged ones were unable to bind to it. Based on these results, it 251 was assumed that, all three tagged enzymes bound to the scaffold and that the receptor located on 252 the scaffolds targeted specifically tagged enzymes.

3.2. Enzymes tagged with ligand interacted specifically with scaffold-coated surfaces

Probing the interaction between the enzymes and scaffold-coated surfaces was a crucial step in order to demonstrate that the surface functionalization strategy led to the immobilization of tagged enzymes through specific interactions between the ligands of the enzymes and the receptors located on the scaffolds.

First, scaffolds were covalently grafted on material surfaces and topography AFM images were performed to confirm the grafting. In order to evaluate the thickness of the coatings, a part of each coating was removed by "scratching" a squared area of $1 \times 1 \mu m^2$ at high forces (> 10 nN) and high frequencies with AFM tips. A coating was considered present on the surface of the material when a scratched square was visible on the image. The depth of the scratched area was considered an estimation of the coating thickness (Figure 2).

Images of surfaces coated only with SAMs revealed a smooth and flat surface on which the coating was not visible even after using the "scratching" AFM technique (Figure 2a). The relatively small size of the molecules composing the SAMs, the typical thickness of carboxylic acid terminated SAMs (few ångströms ⁴⁰) and the covalent nature of the coating made difficult to evidence the SAMs with the "scratching" AFM technique. However, when the scaffold was added on the SAMs-coated surfaces, the 269 resulting coating was observable on the AFM images and was homogeneous throughout the surface 270 (Figure 2b). Its thickness was evaluated at 1.95 ± 0.24 nm which confirmed that the scaffold bounded 271 with the carboxyl groups of the SAMs. When the tagged-enzymes were added on the surface coated 272 with the SAMs and the scaffold, the thickness of the coating increased and reached 7.80 ± 0.67 nm 273 (Figure 2c). This evidenced the binding of the enzymes' ligands onto the scaffold's receptors as the 274 increased thickness of the coating was attributed to the addition of the tagged enzymes. When 275 scanned in contact mode at small forces, the coatings remained stable and no visible topography 276 alterations were observed indicating a strong anchorage of the coatings on the substrate.

AFM imaging and far western blots showed that the enzymes had the ability to bind to the scaffold but to investigate these bonds further, the specificity of the receptor-ligand interactions was assessed by AFM-based SMFS. For that, each enzyme was grafted one at a time on AFM cantilevers which were then used to probe scaffold-coated surfaces (Figure 3).

For each enzyme-decorated AFM tip, adhesion in presence of calcium was first probed on the scaffold coating by recording adhesion maps. To test the calcium-dependency of the receptor/ligand pairs, a calcium chelating agent (EDTA) was added to the buffer to trap free calcium ions and SMFS measurements were subsequently performed a second time. Lastly, EDTA was removed, the buffer containing calcium was added and adhesion was recorded for the last time.

Figures 4, 5 and 6 show the adhesion frequencies and the rupture lengths histograms as well as representative force-distance (FD) curves for ligand-tagged lysostaphin, lysozyme and DNase I and their corresponding negative controls, *i.e.* non-tagged enzymes. For all enzymes, adhesive pixels on adhesion maps were randomly spread and adhesion maps did not show cluster patterns (data not shown). This suggests that the scaffolds were homogeneously grafted on the surfaces which matched the results observed above with the AFM topography images (Figure 2).

Before adding EDTA, representative FD curves showed adhesion peaks for all ligand-tagged enzymes
(Figure 4a, 5a and 6a). In contrast, less adhesion signatures were found on FD curves when EDTA was

294 added with the ligand-tagged enzymes (Figure 4b, 5b and 6b). However, once EDTA was removed, 295 adhesion signatures were restored (Figure 4c, 5c and 6c). Little to no adhesion signature were observed 296 on FD curves of homologous enzymes lacking ligands (Figure 4d, 5d and 6d). Adhesion frequency in 297 presence of calcium for tagged lysostaphin was high since 86% of the FD curves showed an adhesion 298 signature (Figure 4a). Adhesion frequency then dropped to around 42% when EDTA was added (Figure 299 4b) and increased again to 87% after EDTA was rinsed and calcium chloride was added (Figure 4c). In 300 contrast, only 8% of the FD curves showed adhesion signature for non-tagged lysostaphin (negative 301 control, Figure 4d) which we attributed to non-specific adhesion events. In presence of calcium, the 302 average adhesion frequency of tagged lysozyme was 42% (Figure 5a); it decreased to 12% with EDTA 303 (Figure 5b) and increased to 33% when EDTA was removed (Figure 5c). Non-tagged lysozyme (negative 304 control) adhesion frequency was 13% which shows that EDTA was able to completely inhibit 305 ligand/receptor recognition in the case of this tagged lysozyme sample (Figure 5d). Adhesion 306 frequencies of tagged DNase I was 61% in presence of calcium (Figure 6a), 4% when EDTA was added 307 (Figure 6b) and 25% when EDTA was removed (Figure 6c). EDTA was also able to totally inhibit 308 interactions for this sample since only 8% FD curves recorded with non-tagged DNase I presented 309 adhesion peaks (Figure 6d). Adhesion forces and rupture lengths of scaffold-enzymes interactions 310 ranged from 100 to 400 pN and 5 to 150 nm, respectively. Tagged lysostaphin, tagged lysozyme and 311 tagged DNase I mean rupture forces, in absence of EDTA and over three independent experiments of 312 1024 FD curves each, were on average 211±2 pN, 297±4 pN and 246±3 pN, respectively (results are 313 reported as mean ± standard error of the mean).

Figure 7 represents adhesion frequencies for each condition and each enzyme on three independent experiments of 1024 FD curves each. Adhesion frequencies decreased significantly for all enzymes in presence of EDTA which confirmed the calcium-dependent nature of the ligand/receptor interactions. Before EDTA addition, differences were observed in the adhesion frequencies between the taggedenzymes. Tagged lysostaphin reached an average of 87±4% adhesion frequency whilst tagged lysozyme

and DNase I were around 42%±4% and 61%±17%, respectively (Figure 7). Tagged lysostaphin led to the
 most adhesion compared to the other tagged enzymes before and after addition of EDTA.

No significant differences were found between the EDTA condition and the negative control (nontagged enzymes) for tagged lysozyme and tagged DNase I. EDTA was therefore able to entirely inhibit ligand/receptor interactions for these tagged enzymes. As for the interactions between tagged lysostaphin and the scaffold, EDTA was able to inhibit by around half of them. Since tagged lysostaphin resulted in the most adhesion compared to other tagged enzymes, EDTA not being able to inhibit all interactions for tagged lysostaphin was attributed to the high affinity of the ligand/receptor pair and/or to a limited EDTA accessibility to the calcium-binding loop-helix motif of this ligand/receptor.

328 After removal of chelating agent, tagged lysostaphin adhesion frequency was entirely restored as no 329 significant differences were found before adding EDTA and after removal of EDTA (Figure 7). Adhesion 330 frequencies of tagged lysozyme and tagged DNase I were significantly higher before adding EDTA than 331 after which showed that the adhesion was partially restored after the chelating agent was removed. 332 This partial restoration of adhesion was also observed with the positive control achieved with the 333 natural cellulosome cellulase Cel9T from R. cellulolyticum. Adhesion of the positive control was 334 inhibited by EDTA and almost half of the adhesion was restored after removal of EDTA. However, for 335 all enzymes, after EDTA was removed, a significant increase in adhesion frequencies was observed. 336 These results confirmed that in absence of free calcium in the buffer (*i.e.*, when EDTA was added), the 337 ligand/receptors interactions between the tagged-enzyme and the scaffolds were inhibited and 338 therefore that these interactions were calcium dependent.

Non-tagged enzymes displayed very low adhesion, compared to tagged enzymes (Figure 7). This
showed the high specificity of the scaffold-enzymes interactions and this ensured that only the tagged
enzymes were anchored on the scaffold and that substitution with other proteins were highly unlikely.
As a result, very low adhesion observed on non-tagged enzymes were attributed to non-specific
interactions.

344 3.3. Multi-enzymatic scaffold coating improved antimicrobial protection of surfaces

To assess surface protection achieved by our system, antibacterial effect was evaluated over multiple 345 346 waves of contaminations (challenges) with fresh bacteria by standard plating assays. Bacteria were 347 exposed to surfaces coated with the multi-enzymatic scaffolds. To evaluate the relevance of the 348 scaffold in the system, results were compared to samples onto which enzymes were directly grafted 349 without any protein scaffolding. Surfaces only coated with the scaffolds were used as negative 350 controls. Bacterial viability was evaluated after 0h, 2h, 4h, 6h and 24h of exposition. Each 24h, the 351 media was replaced by a fresh suspension of bacteria. The same procedure was repeated over 5 352 consecutive days (Figure 8).

On the control surface, bacterial viability was around 90 to 100 % after 24h for most challenges (Figure 8). Slight decreases (< 10 %) were observed over time for some samples and were attributed to: i) bacteria adhering to the plastic well plate where the surfaces were immerged and thus not being collected when performing viability assays, and/or ii) possible bacterial aggregation that reduce the number of CFU, *i.e.* one CFU could have been corresponding to aggregated bacteria instead of individual cells growing as a colony, thus artificially reducing the survival rate ⁴¹.

359 The multi-enzymatic coating showed broad spectrum antimicrobial effects as both Gram-negative, 360 namely E. coli, and Gram-positive bacteria, S. aureus and M. luteus were killed. Around 83 % of S. 361 aureus, 71 % E. coli and 84 % of M. luteus cells were lysed after the first 24h when in contact with the 362 multi-enzymatic scaffold (Figure 8a, b, c). In contrast, enzymes directly grafted on surfaces without any scaffold support had a milder effect on bacterial lysis. Around 62 % of S. aureus were lysed in contact 363 364 with enzymes grafted directly on the surface after the first 24h (Figure 8a) and around 52 % and 46 % 365 for E. coli and M. luteus, respectively (Figure 8b, c). Multi-enzymatic scaffolds exhibited more 366 antimicrobial effects throughout the five consecutive challenges than enzymes grafted directly on the 367 material surface.

368 The antibacterial effects of multi-enzymatic scaffolds remained unchanged after five consecutive 369 challenges for E. coli and M. luteus. Around 71 % of E. coli bacteria were lysed at the end of the first 370 challenge and 73 % at the end of the fifth challenge for the multi-enzymatic scaffold. M. luteus lysing 371 rate varied from 84 % at 24h to 82 % at the end of the fifth challenge. A slight decrease in bacterial 372 lysing rate was observed with S. aureus with the multi-enzymatic scaffold but the antimicrobial action 373 remained high nonetheless. Around 70% of S. aureus were lysed by the multi-enzymatic scaffold after 374 five consecutive challenges whereas the lysed rate was roughly 83% for the first challenge. A similar 375 decrease in lysing rate was also observed for the unsupported enzymes for S. aureus dropping from 376 62% after 24h to 45% after the fifth challenge.

377 4. DISCUSSION

378 Key features of a successful protective surface reside in a long-lasting and broad-spectrum 379 antibacterial effect. Aside from many crucial advantages in the fight against infections, antibacterial 380 enzymes are known to be long lasting as long as their catalytic site is active in comparisons of other 381 strategies that often relies on a "one-shot" effect ^{12, 13, 15-20}. However, antibacterial enzymes are specific 382 and target a narrow range of pathogens. This presents the advantage of limiting adverse effects by 383 avoiding the lyse of benign commensal microbiome threatened by broad spectrum antibiotics ⁴². But, 384 at the same time, antibacterial surface treatment composed of a single antibacterial enzyme have 385 intrinsically a limited spectrum of action. In order to increase the range of action of the antibacterial 386 surfaces, our bio-inspired strategy in based on the simultaneous grafting of complementary active 387 enzymes. Previous studies showed the relevance of bi- and trifunctional chimeric scaffolds combining different cellulosomal enzymes for the construction of designer cellulosomes ^{31, 43}. The proposed bio-388 inspired strategy was based on a similar approach to simultaneously assemble different yet 389 390 complementary antibacterial enzymes on a recombinant protein scaffold. This allowed a broadspectrum effect and a controlled positioning of each tagged enzyme on the scaffold ³¹. Ligand/receptor 391

pairs, dockerin and cohesin respectively, from different species producing cellulosomes were used to
 anchor concurrently different ligand-tagged enzymes.

394 Dockerin/cohesin pairs are considered to be one of the most stable ligand/receptor interactions known with rupture forces that occurs via a tensile-based mechanism and above 120 pN ^{32, 44}, which is in 395 396 concordance with our SMFS results. We concluded that unfolding of dockerin and cohesin which 397 typically occurs at forces higher than 300 pN and up to 750 pN depending of the cohesin module ⁴⁴⁻⁴⁶, 398 was unlikely since such high forces were not representative of our results. The SMFS conducted in the 399 present study showed that ligand/receptor pairs used to dock the enzymes to the scaffold were 400 calcium-dependent similarly to ligand/receptor pairs in natural cellulosome ^{32, 47, 48}. This excluded the 401 possibility of the tagged enzymes to be docked to the scaffold though unspecific interactions or any 402 other interactions than through the binding of cohesin and dockerin. It also showed the highly specific 403 interaction of our ligand/receptor strategy. The chimeric protein scaffold of our system was therefore 404 not restricted to the anchorage of the lysozyme, lysostaphin and DNase I. As long as other enzymes of 405 interest can be tagged with the ligand, the multienzymatic scaffold could be adapted to different 406 applications to face other contaminants.

407 Discrepancies in adhesion frequencies of ligand and receptor interactions were observed. Tagged 408 lysostaphin led to the highest adhesion frequencies in SMFS when in contact to its corresponding 409 receptor on the scaffold compared to tagged lysozyme and tagged DNase I. These enhanced 410 interaction frequencies might be attributed to species-dependent variations as it was shown that the 411 affinity for the ligand and the receptor of A. thermocellum (used to bind lysostaphin to the scaffold in 412 the present study) was higher than for ligand/receptor pairs of R. cellulolyticum and R. flavefaciens 413 (used to dock lysozyme and DNase I, respectively, to the scaffold in our work) ³¹. These variations in 414 adhesion frequencies between tagged enzymes might also be explained by differences in accessibility 415 between the ligand-tag and the receptor site and/or by a variation in steric hindrances due to the 416 different positions of the receptors in the amino acid chain of the scaffold. The discrepancies observed

in rupture lengths might also have been originated from species-dependent variations, lengths of theenzymes, steric hindrances and the positioning of the receptors in the amino acid chain of the scaffold.

419 The prerequisite for long-lasting antibacterial coatings is the constant degradation of bacteria and the 420 elimination of contaminants that can accumulate and promote biofilm formation over time. One of 421 the major advantages of using enzymes as antimicrobial agents is that they are "reusable" and they 422 continuously degrade bacteria as long as their catalytic site remains active. The proposed strategy 423 combined cell wall degrading enzymes as well as DNase I which degraded DNA, an important cohesive 424 component of the adhesion of microbial colonies and biofilm and the major polymer that would be 425 released during cell lysis after cell wall degradation. S. aureus (Gram-positive), E. coli (Gram-negative) 426 and *M. luteus* (Gram-positive) were chosen to assess the antimicrobial properties of the surfaces 427 coated with the multi-enzymatic scaffolds. S. aureus and E. coli are some of the most etiologic agents in nosocomial infections ^{2, 49, 50}. Despite its typical low virulence, *M. luteus* can increase *S. aureus* 428 429 pathogenesis by acting as a "proinfectious agent" and present risks of contaminations ⁵¹⁻⁵⁵. Previous 430 studies evidenced that grafting enzymes directly on surfaces resulted in a non-oriented distribution of the enzymes ^{29, 56-60}. Supported enzymes were shown to have optimized antimicrobial activity since the 431 432 orientation of their catalytic sites is improved as well as their 3D conformations ³⁰. As expected in our 433 system, when enzymes were not supported by a scaffold, antimicrobial properties were evidenced to 434 some extend but they were enhanced when enzymes were anchored on the supporting scaffold. The 435 reduced efficacy of the unsupported enzymes was attributed to the randomness of their orientation 436 on the substrate and the possible modification of their conformation leading to some of them being 437 denatured and inactivated. The fact that consecutive challenges did not appear to alter significantly 438 the enzymes ability to lyse bacteria whether supported or unsupported confirmed (i) the long-term 439 "re-usable" antibacterial effect of the enzymes and (ii) the long-term properties of DNase I preventing 440 the accumulation of lysed bacteria that are known to promote bacterial adhesion which can later lead 441 to biofilm formation. The relevance of the use of a multi-enzymatic scaffold was confirmed throughout 442 all the consecutive challenges since enzymes organized on the protein scaffold exhibited a higher antimicrobial response compared to the enzymes grafted directly on the surfaces. The enzymes
organization and immobilization on a molecular scaffold allowed a controlled orientation and better
accessibility to their target and resulted in an improved protection.

446 5. **CONCLUSIONS**

447 Cellulosomes rely on a supramolecular organization to enhance enzymatic efficiency and degrade 448 recalcitrant biopolymers. Our bio-inspired multi-enzymatic scaffold relied on a similar organization to 449 lyse bacteria in order to protect surfaces from bacterial colony formation. Single-molecule force 450 spectroscopy evidenced that enzymes were anchored on the scaffold through highly specific 451 ligand/receptor interactions to from a supramolecular structure analogous to natural cellulosomes. 452 The simultaneous use of complementary enzymes on the scaffold provided broad-spectrum protection 453 concurrently against Gram + and Gram - bacteria. Our system exhibited substantial antimicrobial 454 activity against planktonic biofilm forming bacteria, namely S. aureus, E. coli and M. luteus, by lysing 455 71 % to 84 % of bacteria within the first 24 hours. The "re-usable" nature of the lysozyme and 456 lysostaphin as well as the properties of DNase I ensured long term antimicrobial effects after 5 457 consecutive 24h challenges. The scaffold improved the protective antimicrobial activity compared to 458 unsupported enzymes. This was attributed to an optimized orientation and spatial conformation of 459 enzymes attained with the multi-enzymatic scaffold. Enzymes were anchored on the scaffold through 460 highly specific ligand/receptor interactions that enabled a controlled organization and positioning of 461 the enzymes. Our system had great adaptability potential as it offered the possibility to tailor enzymes 462 cocktails to the contamination risk of specific applications. Furthermore, considering the rapidly 463 expanding repertoire of specific cohesin/dockerin devices described in the literature, gathering a larger number of different antimicrobial enzymes/proteins should be straightforward, whereas elongation or 464 465 reduction of the inter-cohesins linkers in the scaffold could help gaining efficiency.

466 CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

467 Conflicts of interest: none.

468 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

The authors would like to thank Nicolas Baumberger and Laurence Herrgott from the Protein Production and Purification Plateforme of the Institut de Biologie Moléculaire et Cellulaire (IBMC)-CNRS of the Université de Strasbourg for the protein expression and purification. We would like to acknowledge the spectroscopy and microscopy Service Facility SMI of LCPME (Université de Lorraine-CNRS– <u>http://www.lcpme.ul.cnrs.fr</u>). This work was supported by the French National Agency for Research ANR JCJC, grant ANR-20-CE06-0001.

475 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

BA, FQ, GF, HPF and SEKC designed the research and wrote the manuscript; BA, CR, FQ, HPF and SEKC
contributed to the acquisition, analysis, and interpretation of the data. BA, FQ, HPF and SEKC revised
the paper and all authors approved the final version.

479 **REFERENCES**

480 1. K. S. Ikuta, L. R. Swetschinski, G. R. Aguilar, F. Sharara, T. Mestrovic, A. P. Gray, N. D. Weaver, 481 E. E. Wool, C. Han and A. G. Hayoon, *The Lancet*, 2022, **400**, 2221-2248. 482 2. M. Shirtliff, J. G. Leid and M. Shirtliff, The role of biofilms in device-related infections, Springer, 483 2009. 484 3. S. Percival, Journal of British Surgery, 2017, 104, e85-e94. 485 4. E. M. Padegimas, M. Maltenfort, M. L. Ramsey, G. R. Williams, J. Parvizi and S. Namdari, Journal 486 of shoulder and elbow surgery, 2015, 24, 741-746. 487 5. A. Premkumar, D. A. Kolin, K. X. Farley, J. M. Wilson, A. S. McLawhorn, M. B. Cross and P. K. 488 Sculco, The Journal of Arthroplasty, 2021, 36, 1484-1489. e1483. 489 6. M. Assefa and A. Amare, *Infect Drug Resist*, 2022, **15**, 5061-5068. 490 7. H.-C. Flemming and J. Wingender, Nature reviews microbiology, 2010, 8, 623-633. 491 M. Otto, Bacterial biofilms, 2008, DOI: <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-540-75418-3</u>, 207-228. 8. 492 9. K. Sauer, P. Stoodley, D. M. Goeres, L. Hall-Stoodley, M. Burmølle, P. S. Stewart and T. 493 Bjarnsholt, Nature Reviews Microbiology, 2022, 20, 608-620. 494 H.-C. Flemming, Water Res., 2020, 173, 115576. 10. 495 11. D. Campoccia, L. Montanaro and C. R. Arciola, Biomaterials, 2013, 34, 8533-8554. 496 12. I. Francolini and G. Donelli, FEMS Immunology & Medical Microbiology, 2010, 59, 227-238. 497 13. K. Glinel, P. Thebault, V. Humblot, C.-M. Pradier and T. Jouenne, Acta Biomater., 2012, 8, 1670-498 1684. 499 S. Tambe, L. Sampath and S. Modak, J. Antimicrob. Chemother., 2001, 47, 589-598. 14. 500 15. D. Alves and M. Olivia Pereira, *Biofouling*, 2014, **30**, 483-499. 501 16. A. K. Muszanska, H. J. Busscher, A. Herrmann, H. C. van der Mei and W. Norde, Biomaterials, 502 2011, **32**, 6333-6341. 503 17. A. Shah, J. Mond and S. Walsh, Antimicrob Agents Chemother, 2004, 48, 2704-2707. 504 J. J. Swartjes, P. K. Sharma, T. G. van Kooten, H. C. van der Mei, M. Mahmoudi, H. J. Busscher 18. 505 and E. T. Rochford, Curr Med Chem, 2015, 22, 2116-2129. 506 C. Von Eiff, B. Jansen, W. Kohnen and K. Becker, Drugs, 2005, 65, 179-214. 19. 507 X. Wu, K. Fraser, J. Zha and J. S. Dordick, ACS Appl Mater Interfaces, 2018, 10, 36746-36756. 20. R. H. Doi and A. Kosugi, Nature reviews microbiology, 2004, 2, 541-551. 508 21. 509 22. E. A. Bayer, L. J. Shimon, Y. Shoham and R. Lamed, Journal of structural biology, 1998, 124, 510 221-234. 511 23. V. M. Dillon, 2014. 512 24. M. Derde, V. Vié, A. Walrant, S. Sagan, V. Lechevalier, C. Guérin-Dubiard, S. Pezennec, M. F. 513 Cochet, G. Paboeuf and M. Pasco, *Biopolymers*, 2017, 107, e23040. 514 25. M. Derde, V. r. Lechevalier, C. Guérin-Dubiard, M.-F. o. Cochet, S. Jan, F. Baron, M. Gautier, V. 515 r. Vié and F. o. Nau, J. Agric. Food Chem., 2013, 61, 9922-9929. 516 26. A. Pellegrini, U. Thomas, R. von Fellenberg and P. Wild, J Appl Bacteriol, 1992, 72, 180-187. 517 27. A. Pellegrini, U. Thomas, P. Wild, E. Schraner and R. von Fellenberg, Microbiol. Res., 2000, 155, 518 69-77. 519 28. J. K. Kumar, Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol., 2008, 80, 555-561. 520 29. J. J. Swartjes, T. Das, S. Sharifi, G. Subbiahdoss, P. K. Sharma, B. P. Krom, H. J. Busscher and H. 521 C. van der Mei, Advanced Functional Materials, 2013, 23, 2843-2849. 522 A. Beaussart, C. Retourney, F. Quilès, R. D. S. Morais, C. Gaiani, H.-P. Fiérobe and S. El-Kirat-30. 523 Chatel, J. Colloid Interface Sci., 2021, 582, 764-772. 524 31. H.-P. Fierobe, F. Mingardon, A. Mechaly, A. Bélaïch, M. T. Rincon, S. Pages, R. Lamed, C. Tardif, 525 J.-P. Bélaïch and E. A. Bayer, J. Biol. Chem., 2005, 280, 16325-16334. 526 32. S. W. Stahl, M. A. Nash, D. B. Fried, M. Slutzki, Y. Barak, E. A. Bayer and H. E. Gaub, Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 2012, 109, 20431-20436. 527

- 528 33. S. D. Jeon, J. E. Lee, S. J. Kim, S. W. Kim and S. O. Han, Biosensors Bioelectron., 2012, 35, 382-529 389. 530 34. K. Sakka, Y. Sugihara, S. Jindou, M. Sakka, M. Inagaki, K. Sakka and T. Kimura, FEMS Microbiol. 531 Lett., 2011, **314**, 75-80. M. A. Jobst, L. F. Milles, C. Schoeler, W. Ott, D. B. Fried, E. A. Bayer, H. E. Gaub and M. A. Nash, 532 35. 533 *Elife*, 2015, **4**, e10319. 534 36. A. L. Carvalho, F. M. Dias, T. Nagy, J. A. Prates, M. R. Proctor, N. Smith, E. A. Bayer, G. J. Davies, 535 L. M. Ferreira and M. J. Romão, Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 2007, 104, 536 3089-3094. 537 J. Ravachol, R. Borne, I. Meynial-Salles, P. Soucaille, S. Pages, C. Tardif and H. P. Fierobe, 37. 538 Biotechnol Biofuels, 2015, 8, 114. 539 J. L. Hutter and J. Bechhoefer, *Review of scientific instruments*, 1993, **64**, 1868-1873. 38. 540 J. Ravachol, R. Borne, C. Tardif, P. de Philip and H.-P. Fierobe, J. Biol. Chem., 2014, 289, 7335-39. 541 7348. 542 40. M. Carot, V. Macagno, P. Paredes-Olivera and E. Patrito, The Journal of Physical Chemistry C, 543 2007, 111, 4294-4304. 544 41. P. Herman-Bausier, S. El-Kirat-Chatel, T. J. Foster, J. A. Geoghegan and Y. F. Dufrêne, MBio, 545 2015, **6**, e00413-00415. 546 42. A. Langdon, N. Crook and G. Dantas, *Genome medicine*, 2016, **8**, 1-16. 547 H. P. Fierobe, E. A. Bayer, C. Tardif, M. Czjzek, A. Mechaly, A. Belaich, R. Lamed, Y. Shoham and 43. 548 J. P. Belaich, J. Biol. Chem., 2002, 277, 49621-49630. 549 44. M. Gunnoo, P. A. Cazade, A. Galera-Prat, M. A. Nash, M. Czjzek, M. Cieplak, B. Alvarez, M. 550 Aguilar, A. Karpol and H. Gaub, Advanced materials, 2016, 28, 5619-5647. 551 45. A. Galera-Prat, S. Moraïs, Y. Vazana, E. A. Bayer and M. Carrión-Vázquez, J. Biol. Chem., 2018, 552 **293**, 7139-7147. 553 A. Valbuena, J. Oroz, R. Hervás, A. M. Vera, D. Rodríguez, M. Menéndez, J. I. Sulkowska, M. 46. 554 Cieplak and M. Carrión-Vázquez, Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 2009, 106, 555 13791-13796. 556 47. S. Pagès, A. Bélaïch, J. P. Bélaïch, E. Morag, R. Lamed, Y. Shoham and E. A. Bayer, Proteins: 557 Structure, Function, and Bioinformatics, 1997, 29, 517-527. 558 48. M. T. Rincón, J. C. Martin, V. Aurilia, S. I. McCrae, G. J. Rucklidge, M. D. Reid, E. A. Bayer, R. 559 Lamed and H. J. Flint, J. Bacteriol., 2004, 186, 2576-2585. G. Sharma, S. Sharma, P. Sharma, D. Chandola, S. Dang, S. Gupta and R. Gabrani, J. Appl. 560 49. 561 Microbiol., 2016, 121, 309-319. A. Reisner, M. Maierl, M. Jörger, R. Krause, D. Berger, A. Haid, D. Tesic and E. L. Zechner, J. 562 50. 563 Bacteriol., 2014, 196, 931-939. 564 51. E. Boldock, B. G. Surewaard, D. Shamarina, M. Na, Y. Fei, A. Ali, A. Williams, E. J. Pollitt, P. 565 Szkuta and P. Morris, Nature microbiology, 2018, 3, 881-890. 566 52. R. Peces, E. Gago, F. Tejada, A. Laures and J. Alvarez-Grande, Nephrology, dialysis, 567 transplantation: official publication of the European Dialysis and Transplant Association-568 *European Renal Association*, 1997, **12**, 2428-2429. 569 53. U. Dürst, E. Bruder, L. Egloff, J. Wüst, J. Schneider and H. Hirzel, Zeitschrift fur Kardiologie, 570 1991, 80, 294-298. 571 54. G. Rodriguez-Nava, A. Mohamed, M. A. Yanez-Bello and D. P. Trelles-Garcia, IDCases, 2020, 20, 572 e00743. 573 55. H. Seifert, M. Kaltheuner and F. Perdreau-Remington, Zentralblatt für Bakteriologie, 1995, 282, 574 431-435. 575 56. D. Alves, A. Magalhães, D. Grzywacz, D. Neubauer, W. Kamysz and M. O. Pereira, Acta 576 Biomater., 2016, 44, 313-322. 577 57. G. Yeroslavsky, O. Girshevitz, J. Foster-Frey, D. M. Donovan and S. Rahimipour, Langmuir, 2015, 578 **31**, 1064-1073.
 - 24

- 579 58. A. Caro, V. Humblot, C. Méthivier, M. Minier, L. Barbes, J. Li, M. Salmain and C.-M. Pradier, J.
 580 Colloid Interface Sci., 2010, 349, 13-18.
- 581 59. A. Caro, V. Humblot, C. Méthivier, M. Minier, M. Salmain and C.-M. Pradier, *The journal of physical chemistry B*, 2009, **113**, 2101-2109.
- 583 60. M. Minier, M. Salmain, N. Yacoubi, L. Barbes, C. Méthivier, S. Zanna and C.-M. Pradier, *Langmuir*, 2005, **21**, 5957-5965.



Figure 1. Far western blot using biotinylated scaffold (and Streptavidin-POD) to probe the membrane.
Tagged lysostaphin, tagged lysozyme, tagged DNase I (left channels) were identified at 36 kDa, 23 kDa
and 41 kDa, respectively. Non-tagged lysostaphin, lysozyme and DNase I (right channels) did not lead
to any interaction with biotinylated scaffold as no bands were identified.



596 Figure 2. Topography of surfaces coated with (a) self-assembled monolayers (SAMs) only (b) SAMs and 597 scaffold and (c) SAMs, scaffold and the three tagged enzymes. AFM height images (5 x 5 μ m²; z values 598 represented by the LUT with a difference of 40 nm between the maximum and the minimum values). 599 A square of $1 \times 1 \mu m^2$ was first scanned at high forces (> 10 nN), then, the same area was imaged (5 x 600 5 μ m²) with smaller forces. No scratched area was observed with the SAMs-coated surface. The AFM 601 image revealed smooth and homogenous coatings of the surface with the scaffold and the scaffold 602 coupled with the tagged enzymes. Scratched areas were observed and the thickness of the scaffold 603 coating and scaffold+enzymes coating were evaluated at 1.95 ± 0.24 nm and 7.80 ± 0.67 nm, 604 respectively by taking a vertical section (showed below the AFM images) along the dashed line drawn 605 on the AFM image.



Figure 3. (a) Principle of enzyme grafting on scaffold-coated surfaces via the ligand-receptor
interaction. (b) Principle of single-molecule force spectroscopy to probe the interaction and specificity
between ligand-enzymes and receptors.



Figure 4. Adhesion frequency histograms with representative force curves (left) and corresponding rupture length histograms (right) extracted from adhesion maps ($5x5 \ \mu m^2$) recorded on scaffoldcoated surfaces with AFM cantilever decorated with tagged lysostaphin. Schematics on the right represent the different conditions: adhesion was consecutively recorded on one sample (a) in a calcium rich buffer before adding EDTA, (b) in presence of EDTA and (c) after removal of EDTA and addition of

- 618 TBS⁺ containing calcium. (d) Negative control adhesion was recorded in TBS⁺ with tips decorated with
- 619 lysostaphin lacking dockerin ligand.



Figure 5. Adhesion frequency histograms with representative force curves (left) and corresponding rupture length histograms (right) extracted from adhesion maps ($5x5 \ \mu m^2$) recorded on scaffoldcoated surfaces with AFM cantilever decorated with tagged lysozyme. Schematics on the right represent the different conditions: adhesion was consecutively recorded on one sample (a) in a calcium rich buffer before adding EDTA, (b) in presence of EDTA and (c) after removal of EDTA and addition of

- 627 TBS⁺ containing calcium. (d) Negative control adhesion was recorded in TBS⁺ with tips decorated with
- 628 lysozyme lacking dockerin ligand.



630

Figure 6. Adhesion frequency histograms with representative force curves (left) and corresponding rupture length histograms (right) extracted from adhesion maps ($5x5 \ \mu m^2$) recorded on scaffoldcoated surfaces with AFM cantilever decorated with tagged DNase I. Schematics on the right represent the different conditions: adhesion was consecutively recorded on one sample (a) in a calcium rich buffer before adding EDTA, (b) in presence of EDTA and (c) after removal of EDTA and addition of TBS⁺

- 636 containing calcium. (d) Negative control adhesion was recorded in TBS⁺ with tips decorated with DNase
- 637 I lacking dockerin ligand.



Figure 7. Adhesion frequency for each enzyme obtained by scanning the scaffold by SMFS with enzyme-decorated AFM tips. Boxes represent the 25%-75% percentiles, error bars represent mean \pm 1.5 SD and horizontal bars represent the median of each group. Each box represents 3072 forcedistance curves (n=3). Statistical analysis was performed with a one-way ANOVA followed by a Tukey's multicomparison test for pair-wise comparison. *: p < 0.05, **: p < 0.01, ***: p < 0.001, ****: p < 0.0001.



Figure 8. Viability of (a) *S. aureus*, (b) *E. coli* and (c) *M. luteus* exposed to surfaces coated with the scaffold alone (in black), with the three enzymes directly on the surface without any scaffolds (in blue) and with the multi-enzymatic scaffolds *i.e.* the three enzymes docked on the scaffolds (in red). Challenge represent consecutive waves of bacterial contamination. Each challenge started with the replacement of the media with fresh bacterial suspensions. Data was fitted with exponential decays.