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Gérémy Clair, Julia Esbelin, Sabine Mallea, Isabelle Bornard, Frederic Carlin. The spore coat is essential for Bacillus subtilis spore resistance to pulsed light, and pulsed light treatment eliminates some spore coat proteins. International Journal of Food Microbiology, 2020, 323, pp.108592. 10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2020.108592. hal-02862233

HAL Id: hal-02862233 https://hal.inrae.fr/hal-02862233v1

Submitted on 22 Aug2022

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- 1 The spore coat is essential for *Bacillus subtilis* spore resistance to pulsed light, and pulsed light
- 2 treatment eliminates some spore coat proteins
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17 Abstract

Microbial surface contamination of equipment or of food contact material is a recurring problem in the 18 19 food industry. Spore-forming bacteria are far more resistant to a wide variety of treatments than their vegetative forms. Understanding the mechanisms underlying decontamination processes is needed to 20 21 improve surface decontamination strategies against endospores potentially at the source of foodborne 22 diseases or food-spoilage. Pulsed light (PL) with xenon lamps delivers high-energy short-time 23 pulses of light with wavelengths in the range 200 nm-1100 nm and a high UV-C fraction. Bacillus 24 subtilis spores were exposed to either PL or to continuous UV-C. Gel electrophoresis and 25 western blotting revealed elimination of various proteins of the spore coat, an essential outer structure that protects spores from a wide variety of environmental conditions and inactivation 26 treatments. Proteomic analysis confirmed the elimination of some spore coat proteins after PL 27 28 treatment. Transmission electron microscopy of PL treated spores revealed a gap between the 29 lamellar inner spore coat and the outer spore coat. Overall, spores of mutant strains with 30 defects in genes coding for spore coat proteins were more sensitive to PL than to continuous UV-C. This study demonstrates that radiations delivered by PL contribute to specific damage to 31 32 the spore coat, and overall to spore inactivation.

33 Keywords

34 Decontamination, UV, proteins, proteomics, microscopy

36

37 **1. Introduction**

38 The pulsed light (PL) technology inactivates harmful or food spoiling microorganisms 39 contaminating surfaces and clear liquids. PL delivered by commonly used xenon lamps consists of short (typically < 250 ms) and intense flashes of white light (200 nm–1100 nm wavelengths) 40 41 rich in ultraviolet (200 nm-400 nm wavelengths) (Garvey and Rowan, 2019; Gomez-Lopez and 42 Bolton, 2016; Gomez-Lopez et al., 2007). PL delivers short-time light pulses that are several 43 thousand times more intense than UV-C delivered by a continuous source. The ability of PL to 44 kill microorganisms is well documented (Kramer et al., 2017). Nevertheless, understanding 45 intrinsic PL mechanisms leading to inactivation of resistant forms of bacteria, such as endospores, could improve PL technology and expand applications. 46

47 Spores of bacteria are markedly more resistant than vegetative cells to adverse conditions that 48 prevail in natural or industrial environments (Setlow, 2007). This resistance favours spore 49 dispersion and transfer to food processing facilities. Elimination of bacterial spores in industrial environments contributes to prevention of foodborne poisonings or food spoilage. Technologies 50 have been developed over years either to inactivate bacterial spores or to decontaminate 51 52 surfaces in contact with foods, such as processing equipment or packaging material (Carlin, 53 2011; Setlow, 2014; Soni et al., 2016; Wells-Bennik et al., 2016). Chemical biocides, such as 54 chlorine derivatives, peracetic acid or hydrogen peroxide, are highly efficient against bacterial 55 spores (Gopal et al., 2015; Maillard, 2011). Nevertheless, residues left after biocide application 56 are suspected of detrimental effects on environment or health (Carrasco and Urrestarazu, 2010; 57 Russell, 2003). UV-technologies are an alternative to chemical biocides for surface treatment

58	and inactivation of spore-forming bacteria. Continuous UV-C technology (low-pressure mercury
59	lamps emitting at 254 nm) requires relatively long exposure (typically few minutes) for spore
60	inactivation. Pulsed light (PL) is capable of achieving similar spore inactivation as continuous UV-
61	C (Gomez-Lopez et al., 2007; Koutchma et al., 2009; Levy et al., 2012) with much shorter
62	exposure times (Garvey et al., 2014) and therefore of accelerating high-flow industrial chains. PL
63	achieves up to 6 log-reduction on spores of many bacterial species with only one or two light
64	pulses (Levy et al., 2012). Application of PL on plastic polymers does not seem to generate
65	chemical residues or migrants (Castillo et al., 2013).
66	Resistance of spores lies in their specific structural organization. Spores are made of the
67	concentric layers of the coat and cortex surrounding the spore core. Spore core is characterized
68	by low water content, high content in dipicolinic acid and chelated divalent metal ions, and
69	small acid soluble proteins (SASPs) bond to DNA. DNA repair during outgrowth along with
70	SASPs, low water content of spore core and pigments allow spores to resist to UV treatments
71	(Nicholson et al., 2000; Setlow, 2014). In <i>Bacillus subtilis</i> the spore coat mainly consists of an
72	assembly of at least 70 proteins organized in a multi-layered structure (McKenney et al., 2013).
73	From the inside out, spore coat layers are the inner spore coat, the outer spore coat and the
74	crust (Imamura et al., 2011; McKenney et al., 2013). Several morphogenetic proteins, including
75	SpoIVA, SpoVID, SafA, CotE and CotXYZ, participate in the assembly of coat layers (McKenney
76	and Eichenberger, 2012; Ozin et al., 2000; Roels et al., 1992; Zheng et al., 1988).
77	Spore coat has a major role in protection against oxidative damage caused by oxidizing agents

(Moeller et al., 2011; Riesenman and Nicholson, 2000), or also caused by UV-A (Pattison and 78

Davies, 2006), and possibly, as shown in our previous work, against damage caused by PL 79

80 (Esbelin et al., 2016). For instance, spores of a CotE defective mutant (lacking some spore coat external layers) or chemically decoated spores were more sensitive to PL than wild-type (WT) or 81 than untreated spores, while difference was marginal after exposure to a continuous UV-C 82 source. More generally, spore coat proteins are not identified as major factors of resistance to 83 84 UV-C (Nicholson et al., 2000; Setlow, 2014). This difference in sensitivity to PL and to monochromatic UV-C source (emitting mostly at 254 nm) could be due to a wider range of UV 85 86 wavelengths emitted by PL and to higher irradiance (more than 1000 W/cm² with PL compared to 1×10^{-3} W/cm² with low-pressure mercury lamps). Our work is aimed at understanding the 87 88 origin of damage caused by different UV-technologies on bacterial spores. Specifically our objectives were to determine (i) whether PL has a specific degradation effect on coat proteins of 89 Bacillus subtilis using both biochemical and proteomic approaches and (ii) whether there is a 90 specific role of spore coat proteins in resistance to PL using several *B. subtilis* strains with 91 92 mutations in genes coding for coat proteins.

93

94 **2. Materials and Methods**

95 **2.1.** *Bacillus subtilis* strains used and preparation of spores

Origin and properties of *B. subtilis* strains 1A1 and PY79, wild-type background initially *B. subtilis*168, and derived mutants strains are detailed in Table 1. Strains were routinely cultivated on
Luria-Bertani (LB) (Biokar, Beauvais, France) agar supplemented with antibiotic concentrations
recommended by donator (See Table 1) to ensure strain purity. Then, one colony was picked,
grown overnight at 30°C in LB and 200 µl were plated on double-strength Schaeffer sporulation

101 (2xSG) agar without antibiotics (Nicholson and Setlow, 1990). Plates were incubated for 7 days 102 at 30°C before spore harvest. Spore suspensions were independently prepared (at least three 103 replicates of each strain) and resistance of each suspension to PL and UV-C was tested. Spores 104 were purified by repeated washing as previously described (Levy et al., 2011). Spore preparations were checked to be free (< 5 %) of growing cells, germinated spores and cell debris 105 106 using phase contrast microscopy under 1000x magnification (Olympus BX50, Rungis, France). Purified spores were suspended in demineralized sterile water, heat-treated at 70°C for 10 min 107 108 to inactivate vegetative cells and stored in the dark at 4°C until use. Spore counts were determined by spreading 100 µl volumes of appropriate decimal serial dilutions on duplicate LB 109 agar plates incubated at 30°C for 48 h. All spore suspensions contained 10⁸ to 10⁹ spore cfu/ml 110 and were checked at regular time intervals for retaining phase-brightness. 111

112 Table 1. *Bacillus subtilis* strains used in the present work

B. subtilis strain (designation)	Genoype	Properties	Origin (donor) Reference
1A1 (wild-type, WT)	168, trpC2	Wild-type strain	BSCG ^a	
1A184 (<i>cotA</i>)	cotA1 trpC2	Deletion in <i>cotA</i> coding for a spore coat protein. Brownish pigmentation	BSCG	(Hullo et al., 2001)
1L45 (gerE)	(φ105J45) - (gerE36)+ trpC2	Incomplete spore coat structure	BSCG	(Moir, 1981)
1S105 (<i>cotE</i>)	cotE∆∷cat trpC2	Spores lacking the outer spore coat layer	BSCG	(Zheng et al., 1988)
1S46 (spoIVA)	pheA12 spoIVA178	SpoIVA is a global spore coat morphogenic protein	BGSC	(Coote, 1972)
AH1910 (<i>spoVID</i>)	trpC2 metC3 spoVID : : pJMXE	SpoVID is the basement morphogenic protein of the spore coat structure	A.O. Henriques	(Costa et al., 2006)
AOB68 (safA)	trpC2 metC3 safA : : pOZ83	SafA is a morphogenic protein involved in assembly of inner spore coat layer	A.O. Henriques	(Ozin et al., 2000)
MTB902 (<i>cotB</i>)	trpC2 cotB : : pMutin3	CotB is an outer spore coat component	H. Takamatsu	I
1S103 (<i>cotC</i>)	cotC::cat trpC2	CotC is an outer spore coat component	BGSC	(Donovan et al., 1987)
1S104 (<i>cotD</i>)	trpC2 cotD::cat	CotD is a spore spore coat component	BGSC	(Donovan et al., 1987)
1S107 (cotF)	trpC2 cotF::cat	CotF is an inner spore coat component	BGSC	(Cutting et al., 1991)

<i>B. subtilis</i> strain (<i>designation</i>)	Genoype	Properties	Origin (donor) Reference
1A1 (wild-type, WT)	168, trpC2	Wild-type strain	BSCG ^a	
MTB907 (<i>cotG</i>)	trpC2 cotG : : pMutin3	CotG is a spore coat protein that participates to the assembly of CotH (and CotB) protein in the outer spore coat layer	H. Takamatsu	(Kuwana et al., 2004)
MTB908 (<i>cotH</i>)	trpC2 cotH : : pMutin3	CotH is an outer spore coat component	H. Takamatsu	(Kuwana et al., 2004)
1588 (<i>spoVIA</i>)	spoVIA513 trpC2	SpoVIA is an outer spore coat component	BGSC	(Jenkinson, 1981)
PE594 (PY79)	Strain PY79	Wild Type strain. Prototrophic derivative of <i>B. subtilis</i> 168	P. Eichenberger	
PE618 PY79- <i>ΔcotE</i>	trpC2 cotE : : cat	CotE is a morphogenic protein involved in assembly of the outer spore coat layer	P. Eichenberger	(Arrieta-Ortiz et al., 2015; Zheng et al., 1988)
PE620 ΔcotXcotYZ	trpC2 Δ(cotXcotYZ) : : Neo	CotX, Y and Z proteins compose the outermost spore coat layer, the crust	P. Eichenberger	(McKenney and Eichenberger, 2012)

^aBacillus Genetic Stock Center (BGSC) (Colombus, OH)

115

116 **2.2. Evaluation of spore resistance**

Methods used for evaluation of spore resistance were similar to the ones used in previous work 117 118 (Esbelin et al., 2016; Levy et al., 2012). Briefly spores were diluted to a A_{600} of 1.0 (10⁸) 119 spores/ml), heat-treated for 10 min at 70°C, then cooled and kept on ice to prevent germination during experiments. For UV and PL resistance, volumes of 100 µl of 6-7 decimal serial dilutions 120 of spore suspensions were spread with a rake on LB agar plates of 9 cm diameter. Treatments 121 immediately followed inoculum spreading. The number of spores on plates was therefore 122 123 comprised between approx. 10⁷ and 1 spore cfu/plate. Phase-contrast microscopy at 1000x magnification did not reveal any spore that turned phase-dark and therefore having germinated 124 within 2.5 min, i.e. longer than time between spreading and exposure. The distribution of 125 126 spores on the agar surface was homogeneous and spore shielding was not detected. PL and continuous UV-C exposure of inoculated agar plates were performed within 30 s - 2 min 127 128 following spreading. LB agar plates were placed under radiation sources. Inoculated plates were incubated at 30°C for at least 48 h prior to colony counting to ensure that all survivors had 129 130 formed visible colonies. Untreated samples were used as controls.

131 **2.3. Pulsed light and continuous UV-C devices**

PL resistance of *B. subtilis* spores was tested with a previously described lab-scale equipment
(Claranor, Avignon, France) (Levy, 2010; Levy et al., 2012). This device delivers pulses (duration
250 μs) of polychromatic light (wavelengths between 200 nm and 1100 nm) produced by a
xenon flashlamp containing 18.5 % of fluence corresponding to UV (wavelengths between 200

136 nm and 400 nm) under a charging voltage of 2500 V. The emission spectrum of the xenon lamps 137 is shown in supplementary Fig 1. The UV-C proportion in PL was determined with 138 spectrophotometric methods (Claranor, unpublished data). PL fluence varied from 0.3 J/cm² to 10.8 J/cm² (from 0.3 J/cm² to 1.8 J/cm² for survival curves) according to the number of delivered 139 flashes (one to 16 at 1 s interval) and the distance to the lamp (between 8 cm and 25 cm). 140 141 Unflashed samples were used as controls. UV-C resistance was measured by using a UV-C 142 chamber equipped with three low-pressure mercury lamps (2.5 cm-diameter and 43.5 cm-long) (model TUV-T8, 15 W, Philips, The Netherlands) placed in parallel at approx. 45 cm from the 143 target and emitting short-wave radiations with a peak at 253.7 nm according to manufacturer's 144 specifications. The irradiation strength of 1.07 mW/cm² was measured with a radiometer 145 (model VLX-3W, Vilber Lourmat, Marne-la-Vallée, France). Tested UV-C fluence ranged from 146 0.027 to 0.88 J/cm² (from 0.027 J/cm² to 0.15 J/cm² for survival curves) and were obtained by 147 times of treatment ranging from 25 s to 13 min 48 s (to 2 min 30 s for survival curves). Viability 148 149 reduction was expressed as $log_{10} N_0/N$ as a function of the applied fluence, where N_0 is the initial count of the spread suspensions in cfu/plate and N the number of survivors in cfu/plate. 150

151 **2.4. SDS PAGE of coat protein extracts**

152 Samples (100 μ l) of purified spores (at A₆₀₀ = 3.0) of wild-type strain 1A1 were mixed with 14 ml 153 of sterile demineralized distilled water and poured into Petri dishes of 9 cm diameter giving a 3 154 mm deep water layer. Spores were then exposed to either PL (fluence between 1.8 J/cm² to 10.8 J/cm²) or UV-C (fluence between 0.15 J/cm² and 0.88 J/cm²). Exposed spores were 155 156 transferred to a new test tube and harvested by centrifugation (7000 X g for 5 min at 4° C). 157 Spore pellets were suspended again in 40 μ l of SDS PAGE loading buffer (Biorad, Munich, Germany) and boiled for 5 min, mixed vigorously for 1 min and boiled again for 5 min. Samples 158 were briefly centrifuged and 15 µl (approximately 40 µg of total proteins) were fractionated 159 using a large format 1-D electrophoresis systems (protean II Biorad) on a 12 % acrylamide gel 160 containing SDS (SDS PAGE, sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis). Gels 161 were stained with Coomassie brilliant blue R-250, and then destained. 162

163 **2.5. Western blot**

Samples were resolved by SDS-PAGE and electro-transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes using the iBlot Dry Blotting System according to standard procedures (Invitrogen, Illkirch, France). Membranes were probed with the appropriate antibody. Blotted membranes were developed with a 1:15000 dilution of peroxidase-conjugated goat anti-rabbit immunoglobulin G (Sigma, Saint-Quentin Fallavier, France) and an enhanced chemiluminescence substrate (SuperSignal West Femto Chemiluminescent Substrate).

170 2.6. Proteomic analysis

171 For proteomics, a 100 μ l sample of each spore suspension was treated as follows. The spores 172 were rinsed by suspension in 5 mL of cold sterile demineralized water and agitation with an orbital shaker for 5 min at 4°C to remove loosely attached proteins. The spore pellet was 173 obtained by centrifugation of the suspension at 3500 x g and the supernatant was discarded. 174 This procedure was twice repeated. The spores were then suspended in 1X NuPAGE LDS sample 175 176 buffer (Invitrogen) supplemented with DTT (at 100 mmol/l final concentration) (Sigma) for 177 protein solubilisation and loaded onto the different wells of one 4–12 % gradient NuPAGE gel (Invitrogen). The gel was operated with MES buffer, run at 150 V (Invitrogen) for 5 min resulting 178 179 into a short gel migration (5-8 mm). For each sample, the whole protein content from each well was excised. Their protein contents were then treated with DTT and iodoacetamide and then 180 proteolysed with trypsin and proteasMAXTM (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) and analysed by LC-181 182 MS/MS as previously described (Clair et al., 2012). Briefly, digested peptides were loaded and 183 desalted on line on a reverse-phase precolumn (C18 PepMap 100 column, LC Packings). 184 Peptides were separated using a 90 min gradient from 5 % to 60 % solvent B (0.1 % HCOOH / 80 % CH₃CN) in solvent A (0.1 % HCOOH / 100 % H₂O), at a flow rate of 0.3 μl/min and analysed 185 186 with an LTQ-Orbitrap XL mass spectrometer (ThermoFisher, Illkirch, France) in data-dependent mode using the TOP7 strategy. 187

188 **2.7. Proteomic data analysis**

The generated raw files were analysed in MaxQuant (Cox et al., 2014) as previously described (Clair et al., 2016). Briefly, the false discovery rate was set at 0.01 at the spectral, peptide and protein levels. Proteins were identified with at least two tryptic or semi-tryptic peptides of a minimum length of six amino acids by searching against the UniProt *Bacillus subtilis* strain 168

193 database (UniProtKB, downloaded in 2018). Carbamidomethylation was set as fixed 194 modification and N-terminal acetylation and oxidation of methionine. The match between run algorithm was used and the unmodified intensities (note: LFQ intensities were not used, as they 195 comprise some global normalization steps that would have impaired the cumulative intensity 196 values). Normalization and statistical test were performed with the 'stat' package of R. The 197 intensities were then log₂ transformed and median centred normalized within a given sample 198 group (e.g. the samples treated with 1.8 J/cm² were median centred between them but not 199 against untreated control samples). Only proteins with measured intensities in at least 2-3 200 201 replicates of a given condition were considered for quantification and missing values were imputed using the minimal normalized intensity of the table divided by two. Two-tailed 202 distribution heteroscedastic Student's t-tests were used to identify proteins with lower 203 abundance in treated samples. 204

205

206 2.8. Transmission Electron Microscopy

Freshly prepared spores were centrifuged at $3500 \times g$ during 5 min and fixed for 2 h at room temperature with 2.5 % glutaraldehyde (v/v) in a 0.1 mol/l sodium cacodylate buffer (pH 7.1) containing 0.5 mg/ml ruthenium red. Spores were washed by three centrifugations (5 min at $3500 \times g$) in 0.2 mol/l sodium cacodylate and fixed for 1 h at room temperature with 2 % osmium tetroxide. Next, samples were washed three times with water. After centrifugation, pellets were embedded in 3 % (wt/v) agar and submitted to successive agitated dehydration baths with increasing concentrations of ethanol (30 %, 50 %, 70 %, 90 %, and 100 %). Ethanol 214 was replaced with propylene oxide and sequentially exchanged with araldite resin. Samples 215 were polymerized for 48 h at 60°C. Thin sections (60 - 80 nm thick) were obtained with an 216 ultramicrotome (Leica) and stained with 32 % uranyl acetate and lead citrate and were observed by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) (TE Microscope FEI-Philips CM10). Thin sections of 217 at least 100 spores of one batch of spores were carefully examined with TEM by two 218 experimenters to detect possible differences in structures between control unexposed and PL-219 exposed spores of *B. subtilis* strain 1A1 (fluence 7.1 J/cm² delivered in 8 flashes). Representative 220 micrographs of the observed differences were selected. 221 222 2.9. Statistical analysis 223 224 Parameters describing inactivation of spores as a function of PL or UV-C fluence were calculated for each survival curve. Fluence leading to 3-fold log reduction (F_3) (Albert and Mafart, 2005) 225

226 was estimated using non-linear mathematical functions and Microsoft[®] Excel[®] 2010 solver

function. *R_{max}* was the observed log₁₀-reduction at the highest tested fluence. TMean values and

- standard error (SE) of the mean were calculated from data obtained from at least three
- independent experiments (different dates, different cells cultures and spore preparations). The
- 230 significance of differences between strains 1A1 or PY79 and derivative mutants was determined
- by a Student's t-test using the Microsoft[®] Excel data Analysis tool.

234 **3. Results**

235 **3.1. Elimination of** *B. subtilis* spore coat proteins by PL

236 Spores of *B. subtilis* strain 1A1 were exposed to increasing fluence emitted by PL or a continuous 237 UV-C source (λ = 254 nm). Spores were rinsed in cold water to remove loosely attached proteins. Coat proteins were extracted, then separated by SDS-PAGE (see section 2.4). A fluence 238 239 of 1.8 J/cm² delivered by PL caused a 2-3 log reduction in spore counts; PF fluence of 7.1 J/cm² 240 or 10.8 J/cm² caused a log-reduction greater than 6. A UV-C fluence of 0.15 J/cm² delivered by the continuous UV-C source caused a 4-log reduction; UV-C fluence of 0.59 J/cm² or 0.88 J/cm² 241 242 caused a log-reduction greater than 6. Controls were spore coat proteins extracts from 243 unexposed spores. Number and intensity of electrophoresis gel bands of proteins of molecular weight (MW) between 10 kDa and 50 kDa remained unchanged whatever UV-C fluence. In 244 contrast, intensity of bands of almost all 10 kDa - 50 kDa MW proteins decreased as PL fluence 245 246 increased (Supplementary Fig 2).

Proteins of spores treated by PL at a fluence of 1.8 J/cm² or by UV-C at a fluence of 0.15 J/cm²
were analysed by western blotting using antibodies targeted against spore coat proteins CotA,
CotSA, CotC, CotE, CotH, and CotJ of MW comprised between 25 kDa and 70 kDa (Fig 1 and
supplementary Fig 3). The intensity of bands of untreated and UV-C treated spores was highly
similar for all tested coat proteins. In contrast, binding to their specific antibodies of spore coat
proteins from PL-exposed spores showed diverse patterns. Strikingly, while the applied PL
fluence resulted in a lower reduction in spore counts than the applied UV-C fluence, there was a

254 total disappearance on western blots of immunoreactive bands of anti-CotA and anti-CotSA 255 antibodies against the PL-exposed spore protein extract. Binding of anti-CotC and anti-CotE 256 antibodies was slightly lower for the PL-exposed spore coat protein extract than for the ones of the control. Binding with anti-CotJC and anti-CotH antibodies on PL-exposed and control spore 257 protein extract was highly similar. Nevertheless, cotH abundance was lower in PL-treated spores 258 (Fig. 2). Overall, these differences in patterns of immunoreactive bands of coat proteins from 259 260 spores exposed to PL or UV-C suggests that (i) PL has a stronger effect than UV-C on coat proteins located within the spore, and (ii) that effects of PL may be markedly different for 261 262 diverse epitopes/proteins (Fig 1). The disappearance of bands on electrophoresis gels or of some bands on western blots could be either due to (i) a detachment of coat proteins from 263 spore as direct consequence of treatment and elimination by washing steps or (ii) of 264 degradation of proteins, at least of site binding antibody. 265

266

267 **3.2.** Proteomic analysis of proteins extracted from *B. subtilis* spores treated by PL

To evaluate in depth how PL treatment affects coat proteins, proteome of coat of *B. subtilis* spores exposed to PL at fluence of 1.8 J/cm² or 7.1 J/cm² (the latter resulting in a log reduction greater than 6) was analysed and compared to coat proteome of non-exposed spores. Same amount of either treated or untreated (control) spores was rinsed in cold water to remove potentially detached proteins. Then coat proteins were extracted and loaded on a SDS page gel. After a short migration of proteins in the gel, the whole protein content from each well was sampled as a sole band and digested with trypsin. Resulting peptides were analysed by LCMS/MS (See section 2.6).

276 When only 2.9 % of genes are known to code for spore coat proteins (Abhyankar et al., 2015; 277 Abhyankar et al., 2016; Lai et al., 2003; McKenney et al., 2010; McKenney and Eichenberger, 278 2012), over 79 % of the 34,936 spectra attributed to *B. subtilis* proteins (i.e. 27,644 spectra) 279 were belonging to proteins previously identified as located in spore coat, therefore demonstrating that the preparation protocol efficiently enriched for coat proteins 280 (Supplemental datasets 1-2). These spectra were attributed to 1,157 B. subtilis peptides 281 (Supplemental dataset 3). In order to determine whether the global amount of detected 282 283 peptides was affected by PL treatment, peptide intensities attributed to B. subtilis proteins were summed within each sample and compared. As shown in Fig 2A, summed peptide intensities 284 were more than 2-fold lower in treated samples than in untreated control (Student's t-test p-285 value < 0.05). Furthermore, the proportion of the signal attributed to peptides not resulting 286 from trypsin digestion (i.e. non-tryptic peptides) was significantly increased (Student's t-test p-287 288 value < 0.01) in treated samples (Fig 2B). Altogether, these results suggest that PL reduces the amount of spore coat proteins likely by cleaving amino acid bonds. In total 149 Bacillus subtilis 289 290 proteins were identified (i.e. with at least two peptides and a false discovery rate < 1 %). Proteins intensities were log₂ transformed and normalized within each treatment group (to 291 292 avoid an artificial increase for treated samples of protein amount). The proteomics profile data 293 were classified by applying a principal component analysis (PCA) (Fig 2C). First principal 294 component (PC1) explained 49 % of the overall variance and showed a clear discrimination of 295 PL-treated and untreated samples. Neither second component nor third component of PCA

296 explaining 18.0 % and 12.5 % of the variance respectively (data not shown) distinguished the 297 two treatments. The abundance of 59 proteins was significantly lower in treated samples than in controls (Student's t-test, p-value < 0.05) (Fig 2D and Supplemental dataset 4). These 59 298 proteins include 38 proteins known to be part of spore coat. In most instances, the two applied 299 PL fluences reduced abundance of the same proteins. As expected from western blots, CotA, 300 CotSA, CotC and CotE were reduced in abundance in treated samples and abundance of CotJC 301 302 was not significantly affected by PL (Supplementary Fig 4). Conversely, while western blot analysis suggested that abundance of CotH in spores was not affected by PL, proteomics 303 304 measurement indicates the opposite, as indicated in section 3.1. This discrepancy either could result from a lack of specificity of the CotH antibody, or from a degradation, revealed by 305 proteomic analysis of CotH, that does not affect the epitope targeted by the anti-CotH antibody. 306 Interestingly, among spore coat proteins reduced in abundance were some proteins belonging 307 308 to diverse layers of coat including crust component CotY, outer coat proteins CotE, CotA and 309 CotS (McKenney et al., 2013), or inner coat proteins SafA (Ozin et al., 2000) and YaaH (Imamura 310 et al., 2010). Overall proteome analysis suggests a global degradation or detachment after PL 311 treatment of proteins composing spore coat.

312

313 3.3. Inactivation of spores of *B. subtilis strains* 1A1 or PY79 and of isogenic mutants with 314 defects in genes coding for spore coats

Fig 3 shows typical survival curves of WT strain and derivative mutants exposed to PL. Survival
curves were sigmoidal in most instances. The log₁₀ reduction at the highest tested UV-C fluence

317 was comprised, for spores of all strains, between 2.6 and 5.7. The log_{10} reduction was 1.9 at the 318 highest tested PL fluence with spores of *B. subtilis* strain 1A1 and between 1.4 and 5.3 for spores of its isogenic strains (data not shown). The log₁₀ reduction was 4.8 at the highest tested 319 PL fluence with spores of *B. subtilis* strain PY79 and between 3.2 and 6.0 for spores of its 320 isogenic strains (Fig 4). Curves fitted with the model of Albert and Mafart (Albert and Mafart, 321 322 2005) satisfactorily followed experimental data for both PL and continuous UV-C treatments and 323 spores of all tested strains, as illustrated for instance in Fig 3. Fluence leading to a three-fold log reduction (F₃) and maximal log₁₀ reduction for the highest tested fluence (R_{max}) were estimated 324 325 for each survival curve (Fig 4). Typical inactivation patterns were observed. Spores of some strains, such as *cotG*, behaved similarly to WT spores, with no significant difference for both F₃ 326 and R_{max} (p > 0.25). In contrast, spores of strains *spoVID* and *cotE* showed a marked difference in 327 328 inactivation (Fig 3), illustrated by R_{max} and F₃ values significantly different compared to the ones 329 of the WT (p < 0.05) (Fig 4). Both parameters R_{max} and F₃ were descriptors of sensitivity of spores 330 of the two WT strains and of the 15 derivative-mutant strains with defects in spore coat-331 proteins (Fig 4).

Overall, there were more derivative-mutant strains with spores showing a higher sensitivity to PL than to continuous UV-C. Spores of 10 of these strains exposed to PL showed a significantly higher sensitivity than WT strains, according to their R_{max} values while spores of only three strains exposed to continuous UV-C were more sensitive. In the same way, F₃ of spores of six strains exposed to PL were significantly lower than F₃ of WT (p < 0.05), while F₃ of spores of only one strain exposed to continuous UV-C was significantly lower than F₃ of WT. Among those strains, F₃ values and R_{max} values of spores of strains *spolVA*, *spoVID*, *safA*, *cotE*, *cotF*, and

339	spoVIA were significantly different of the ones of WT. Spores of none of the strains exposed to
340	UV-C were significantly affected for both R_{max} and F_3 when compared to the WT strains. Spores
341	of some strains, <i>cotB</i> , <i>cotD</i> , <i>cotG</i> and <i>cotH</i> , were not affected in their sensitivity to PL.
342	Surprisingly R_{max} of spores of PY79 <i>cotXYZ</i> was lower than R_{max} of spores of WT PY79 strain when
343	exposed to both PL and continuous UV-C, suggesting a higher resistance to both treatments.
344	Spores of a few strains showed higher R_{max} and/or F_3 values than the ones of WT when exposed
345	to continuous UV-C.
346	
347	3.4. Changes in coat arrangement in PL-exposed spores
348	Thin sectioning transmission electron micrographs (Fig 5) reveal differences in ultrastructure of
349	control spores and spores exposed to PL at a fluence of 7.1 J/cm ² resulting in log-reduction
350	greater than 6. A gap between lamellar inner coat and outer coat and its electron dense
351	striations appears on at least 80 % of observed PL-exposed spores.

354 **4. Discussion**

355 Previous works have clearly established that UV-C wavelengths play a major role in the killing effect of PL on micro-organisms. Filtering-out UV-C radiations dramatically decreases PL 356 efficiency (Bohrerova et al., 2008; Levy et al., 2012; Takeshita et al., 2003). Does this mean that 357 358 PL causes the same damage as continuous UV-C sources or that mechanisms implicated in 359 resistance to PL or to UV-C are identical? This question has been previously addressed and 360 protein leakage likely consecutive to membrane damage caused by PL and not observed on UV-C treated has been reported for instance on bacteria or yeast cell (Garvey et al., 2016; Kramer et 361 al., 2017; Takeshita et al., 2003). PL applies a polychromatic source of very high energy with 362 wavelengths between 200 nm and 1100 nm. Irradiance of PL sources is several orders of 363 364 magnitude higher than irradiance of continuous UV-C sources. In the present work, we 365 compared damage caused by PL on B. subtilis spores to damage caused by UV-C. PL, but not 366 continuous UV-C treatment, caused in electrophoresis gels disappearance of spore coat proteins bands. These observations were further confirmed by western-blots of specific spore coat 367 proteins, suggesting that PL can induce their elimination by direct degradation or detachment. 368 CotA and CotSA were not detected after exposure of spores to PL. Elimination of CotA and 369 370 CotSA and more generally of a large set of other proteins including CotB, CotY, YaaH, CotD, SafA, 371 and CotE was confirmed by proteomic analysis of spore coat (Fig 2). In this regard, TEM images 372 revealed unbound junction segments at many locations between inner coat and outer coat because of PL treatment (Fig 5). Remarkably some proteins believed to be mainly localized in 373 the core of the spore such as SASPs SspN and SspO (Cabrera-Hernandez et al., 1999; Cabrera-374 375 Hernandez and Setlow, 2000) as well as the 30S ribosomal protein S11 (RpsK) were also reduced

in abundance in PL-treated samples suggesting that PL might also impact internal spore coreproteins (Fig 2).

378 Subjected to damage, spore coat proteins are also deeply implicated in resistance to PL. Spores of strains defective in spore coat proteins were more sensitive to inactivation by PL than to 379 380 inactivation by UV-C (Fig 4). This includes in particular spores of strains defective in proteins 381 SpoIVA, SpoVID, SafA, and CotE contributing to morphogenesis of the multi-layered proteinaceous spore coat (McKenney et al., 2013). CotE importance was underlined in a 382 previous report (Esbelin et al., 2016) and confirmed here. Spore coat integrity was also a major 383 determinant of the resistance of *B. subtilis* spores to the diversity of Mars UV radiations 384 385 (Moeller et al., 2012), blue light (± 400 nm wavelength) (Djouiai et al., 2018) and to low-pressure plasma, which generates a range of UV wavelengths (a characteristic of the treatment shared 386 with PL) together with reactive chemical species (Raguse et al., 2016), but not to UV-C at 254 387 nm wavelength (Riesenman and Nicholson, 2000). Absorption of radiation by spore coat and/or 388 neutralization of reactive chemical species generated by process are the main hypotheses to 389 390 explain higher sensitivity of spore coat-defective mutant strains (Djouiai et al., 2018; Raguse et al., 2016). Spore coat proteins are also major determinants of the resistance of spores to 391 392 oxidative chemical biocides including peroxyacetic acid alone, or in combination with supercritical CO₂, peroxides or iodine (Leggett et al., 2015; Li et al., 2017; Setlow et al., 2016; 393 394 Setlow et al., 2014).

Which properties of PL could generate damage not observed with a continuous UV-C source?
Photochemical damage to DNA is generally reported as a major cause of cell death (Kramer et
al., 2017). Photochemical damage was not examined in the present work, but is expected

398 because of the high proportion of UV in PL. Previous work already suggested that damage may 399 depend on UV light source: systems allowing DNA repair of damage to DNA are unequally 400 important for spores treated either by PL or by continuous UV-C (Esbelin et al., 2016). 401 Inactivation of micro-organisms has been observed at diverse wavelengths in the UV-C spectrum, certainly to different extents. Spores of *B. pumilus* were 8-9 times less sensitive to a 402 medium pressure UV-source (with peak emission at several wavelengths in the UV-C range) as 403 404 wavelengths lower than 244 nm were filtered (Beck et al., 2015). In general terms, the relative action spectra of UV radiation against *B. subtilis* spores do not match DNA absorption spectra. 405 406 Wavelengths below 250 nm are emitted at a lower intensity by the PL source used in this work (Supplementary Fig 1.) but Chen et al. (2009) showed that these wavelengths are more active 407 against *B. subtilis* spores. External layers may not be the primary cause of difference in 408 409 absorption spectra of spores and DNA, as spectra of decoated spores matched pretty well 410 spectra of intact *B. subtilis* spores. PL has also shown photochemical effects on a range of 411 biological molecules. PL degrades mycotoxins made of conjugated heterocycles such as aflatoxin, zearalenone, ochratoxin, or deoxynivalenol (Moreau et al., 2013). Proteins, in 412 413 particular side chains of tryptophan, tyrosine, phenylalanine, histidine, cysteine and cysteine, are sensitive to photo-oxidation by UV-A and UV-B, also delivered by PL (Pattison and Davies, 414 415 2006). Wavelengths of absorption of peptide bonds are in the range 190 – 230 nm and light of 416 these wavelengths also emitted by PL have therefore the potential to degrade proteins. 417 Consequences of protein photo-oxidation are diverse and include unfolding, aggregation, or 418 modification of protein network organization. Analyses of UV and fluorescence spectra of milk 419 proteins specifically exposed to PL indicated protein aggregation and modification of polarity at

420	the proximity of tryptophan residues (Elmnasser et al., 2008). Additionally, photo-oxidized
421	proteins can cause secondary damage through the formation of oxidative products (Manzocco,
422	2015; Pattison and Davies, 2006). Does high energy significantly contribute to inactivation by
423	PL? Second law of photochemistry states that photochemical effect depends only on number of
424	photons absorbed and, in other words, that same inactivation can be achieved with high-
425	fluence – short time and low fluence - long-time exposures (Gomez-Lopez and Bolton, 2016).
426	For instance <i>B. subtilis</i> spore inactivation with sources emitting at ± 250 nm was only dependent
427	on fluence and independent of irradiance despite a 1: 10 ⁸ difference between sources(Rice and
428	Ewell, 2001). Demonstrating specific effects of high irradiance remains an issue.
429	In terms of application, in addition to the acceleration of decontamination processes in food
430	industry lines, the diversity of wavelengths emitted by PL multiplies cellular targets and
431	subsequently cellular damage causing injury and death. Hence, antimicrobial efficiency of PL is
432	potentially higher than antimicrobial efficiency of other UV-radiation sources, and not solely on
433	spores of bacteria. For instance, conidiospores of Aspergillus niger were, at equivalent fluence,
434	strongly inactivated by PL and were almost non-affected by a continuous UV-C source (Levy et
435	al., 2012). The spectrum emitted by xenon lamps used for PL decontamination is determined by
436	lamps themselves and by operating conditions (charging voltage, pulse duration) (Schaefer et
437	al., 2007). In other terms spectra emitted by PL could be adjusted to some extent towards
438	emission of the most efficient wavelengths. A better understanding of the relative contribution
439	of the diverse wavelengths to photochemical damage induced by PL on nucleic acids, proteins
440	and other cell components is necessary for wise evolution and design of future PL devices.

442 Acknowledgments

- 443 Antibodies were donated by Pr. Takamatsu and Pr Watabe (Setsunan University, Japan) and Dr.
- Adriano O. Henriques (ITQB, Lisbon, Portugal). Strains were received from the *Bacillus* Genetic
- 445 Stock Center (Columbus, Ohio) and from laboratory of Pr. Patrick Eichenberger (New York
- 446 University, USA). Proteomic analysis was performed in Dr. Jean Armengaud's laboratory at CEA,
- 447 Institute of Environmental Biology and Biotechnology (Marcoule, France). Dr. Joshua Adkins
- 448 from Integrative omics group at the Pacific Northwest National Laboratory kindly gave his input
- 449 on the manuscript.

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613 Figure captions

Fig 1. Western blots with antibodies directed against spore coat proteins CotA, CotSA, CotC,
CotE, CotH and CotJC after exposure of *B. subtilis* spores to a fluence of 1.8 J/cm² delivered by
PL (allowing a 2-log reduction) or a UV-C fluence of 0.15 J/cm² (allowing a 4-log reduction).
Numbers on the left-hand are molecular weights (kDa); U: untreated controls; PL: pulsed-light
treated samples; UV: UV-C treated samples.

619 Fig 2. Proteomic characterization of *B. subtilis* strain 1A1 spores subjected to a pulsed light (PL) 620 treatment. (A) Cumulative intensity of peptides for PL-treated and control samples. (B) Percentage of cumulative intensity attributed to semi-tryptic events. In (A) and (B) error bars 621 622 represent standard error and asterisks represent Student's t-test p-values (***, p < 0.001; **, 623 p<0.01, *, p<0.05). (C) Principal Component Analysis projection of untreated (orange) and PL-624 treated samples (blue). The first principal component separates out treated and untreated sample. Replicates are identified by numbers (1 to 3). (D) Heat map of proteins significantly 625 626 changing in abundance in PL treated spore coat compared to untreated spore coat. The color 627 scale represent log₂ (reduction) of protein abundance in treated samples. Asterisks represent 628 the *p*-value cutoffs (***, *p*<0.001; **, *p*<0.01, *, *p*<0.05) of the comparison with untreated 629 samples. The green box shows results validating western blot results (Fig 1). The black box around CotH indicates a possible decrease revealed by proteomic analysis, and conversely not 630 631 observed on the western-blot (Fig 1).

Fig 3. Inactivation by PL of *B. subtilis strain* 1A1 (\blacklozenge) and of a selection of derivative mutants with defect in genes *cotG* (\blacklozenge), *spoVID* (\blacktriangle) or *cotE* (\blacksquare) coding for morphogenetic and/or spore coat proteins. Symbols show mean of at least three biological replications (different spore

preparations). Error bars show standard error. Color lines represent curves that have the best fit to data points with the model of Albert and Mafart (2005). The model was otherwise used to determine fluence to 3 log-reduction (F_3) and log-reduction at maximal tested fluence (R_{max}) presented in Fig 4.

639 Fig 4. Comparison of log-reduction at maximal tested fluence (R_{max}) (A, B) and of fluence to 3 log-reduction (F₃) (C, D) between B. subtilis strain WT 1A1 or PY79 (in bold characters) and their 640 respective derivative mutants with defects in genes coding for spore coat proteins. Strains were 641 treated either with pulsed light (A, C) or with a continuous UV-C source (B, D). Histogram bars 642 represent the arithmetic difference in R_{max} values of WT strains and respective mutants. Errors 643 644 bars represent standard error ($n \ge 3$). Shaded bands surrounding vertical axes show standard error on R_{max} or F_3 values of WT strains. Negative values in R_{max} comparison graphs correspond 645 to inactivation greater for mutant strain than for WT. Values < 1.0 in F_3 comparison graphs (C, D) 646 correspond to inactivation greater for mutant strain than for WT. Blue histogram bars show a 647 significant difference in R_{max} or F₃ value at p < 0.05. The log₁₀ reduction was 1.8 at the highest 648 649 tested PL fluence with *B. subtilis strain* 1A1 and between 2 and 6 for its derivative strains. The log₁₀ reduction was between 4 and 5 at the highest tested PL fluence with *B. subtilis strain* PY79 650 651 and between 2 and 6 for its derivative strains.

Fig 5. Transmission electron microscopy pictures and magnification of spore coat section of *B. subtilis* strain 1A1 spores, control (A, C) and exposed to a PL fluence of 7.1 J/cm² (B, D).
Co= spore core; Cx = spore cortex; IC = inner spore coat, OC = outer spore coat. Red arrows
indicate position of gap between inner and outer spore coat observed in PL-exposed spores.













