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Bacillus subtilis NDmed, a model strain for biofilm genetic studies

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¹ Bacillus subtilis NDmed, a model strain for

² biofilm genetic studies

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5 Abstract

The Bacillus subtilis strain NDmed was isolated from an endoscope washer-disinfector in a 6 7 medical environment. NDmed can form complex macrocolonies with highly wrinkled 8 architectural structures on solid medium. In static liquid culture, it produces thick pellicles at the interface with air as well as remarkable highly protruding "beanstalk-like" submerged 9 biofilm structures at the solid surface. Since these mucoid submerged structures are hyper-10 11 resistant to biocides, NDmed has the ability to protect pathogens embedded in mixed-species 12 biofilms by sheltering them from the action of these agents. Additionally, this non-13 domesticated and highly biofilm forming strain has the propensity of being genetically 14 manipulated. Due to all these properties, the NDmed strain becomes a valuable model for the study of B. subtilis biofilms. This review focuses on several studies performed with NDmed 15 16 that have highlighted the sophisticated genetic dynamics at play during B. subtilis biofilm formation. Further studies in project using modern molecular tools of advanced technologies 17 18 with this strain, will allow to deepen our knowledge on the emerging properties of multicellular 19 bacterial life.

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22 Introduction

23 Along with the constant environmental fluctuations, bacteria need to evolve adaptive 24 strategies to survive, often by the formation of spatially structured assemblages encapsulated in 25 a self-produced extracellular matrix called biofilms [1,2]. Microbial communities residing in 26 these structured aggregates exhibit new emergent properties, such as resource capture by 27 sorption, enzyme retention, social interactions, increased rate of genetic exchanges, enhanced tolerance and resistance to antimicrobials, and localized gradients due to the environmental 28 29 micro-scale adaptations [3]. Such properties resulting in physiological diversification involve 30 sophisticated gene regulation networks [4], whose study is important for the development of 31 biotechnological applications using bacteria, as well as to better restrain bacterial pathogens in 32 the medical field. A wide range of knowledge at the genetic level has been acquired from the highly tractable Gram-positive model organism Bacillus subtilis. In nature, B. subtilis is a soil-33 34 dwelling, non-pathogenic, motile bacterium promoting beneficial effects on plant growth by 35 limiting the development of pathogenic species [5,6]. B. subtilis can also be found in animal 36 and human gut microbiota, thanks to its capacity to sporulate and to form biofilms, both of 37 which allow this species to pass the harsh gastric environment to reach and persist in the 38 intestine [7-9]. B. subtilis has long been considered a GRAS (Generally Recognized As Safe) 39 organism by the FDA (U.S. Food and Drug Administration) (e.g. FDA GRAS Notice GRN No. 40 562. http://wayback.archive-it.org/7993/20171031040136/https://www.fda.gov/downloads/ 41 Food/IngredientsPackagingLabeling/GRAS/NoticeInventory/UCM448213.pdf) [10,11], and is 42 commercially available as a probiotic for human health, in the agricultural industry as a 43 biocontrol agent, and in the food industry as a *natto* subspecies in traditional Japanese food from fermented soybeans [12-15]. Due to its excellent protein secretion ability, it has been 44 45 widely used as a cell factory to produce heterologous proteins [16]. Moreover, its capacity to 46 form biofilms, associated with calcinogenic properties or synthesis of antimicrobial compounds

47 find applications in the bio-remineralization of monumental stones of historical buildings or to protect ancient paintings from biodegradation [17-20]. However, the formation of biofilms can 48 49 be deleterious, generating problematic side effects in industrial pipeline clogging and 50 biofouling, as well as hazards to human health by their persistence in medical environments and devices due to their resistance to biocides [21]. In this context, and besides being 51 52 recognised as a non-pathogenic bacterium, B. subtilis can still be involved in post-surgery 53 pathogenesis, leading to anastomotic leaks due to its high collagenolytic activity [22]. For all 54 the above reasons, combined with the fact that B. subtilis is naturally competent, easy, and safe 55 to be manipulated in the laboratory, it became the model for Gram-positive bacteria in physiological studies on the genetic regulations involved in general metabolism, or in specific 56 biological processes such as sporulation [23-26]. 57

Differentiation of *B. subtilis* cells from motile to sessile ones has been observed to study 58 the structured biofilm assemblages, particularly the development of complex macrocolonies on 59 60 the air-solid interface and the formation of pellicles at the air-liquid interface. For instance, the wild-type strain NCIB3610 was able to form spatially organized wrinkled colonies and well-61 62 structured pellicles, contrary to the domesticated reference strain 168 that was only able to form smooth colonies and thin fragile pellicles [27-31]. A genetic comparison between the two 63 64 strains made it possible to identify mutations in 168 responsible for its inability to form wrinkled and robust biofilms. These mutations were probably acquired during the mutagenic 65 66 treatment of the "Marburg strain" in the late 1940s [30]. Besides, NCIB3610 possesses a large endogenous plasmid pBS32 which encodes a small protein ComI that inhibits transformation in 67 this strain [32]. This explains the very low natural genetic competence ability of this natural 68 isolate, which made it more difficult to manipulate for further genetic studies, contrary to 168, 69 which lost this plasmid. Nevertheless, this did not preclude many genetic studies to be 70 performed with NCIB3610, via SPP1 phage transduction [33], or using DK1042, a comI^{Q12L} 71

72 mutant NCIB3610 derivative strain [32]. These studies revealed various integrated regulatory pathways controlling biofilm formation, and unveiled several molecular mechanisms involved 73 [34,35]. Besides, several other natural B. subtilis strains have been isolated more or less 74 75 recently, presenting interesting biofilm phenotypes and being naturally competent, such as P9-B1 [36] or PS216 [37]. These strains have therefore also been used in many studies on different 76 biofilm models, essentially macrocolony, floating pellicle, or even plant root colonization 77 78 [38,39,40]. A submerged surface-associated biofilm model was developped with strain JH642 [41], but as being a close relative to the domesticated 168, this strain could not form robust 79 80 wrinkled colonies [34], and the submerged biofilm formed remains thin and not highly structured. So, although this model was particularly relevant for the study of B. 81 subtilis multicellular communities, practically no further studies was performed with it during 82 83 the next 10 years, until using confocal laser scanning microscopy, we showed that several 84 strains of *B. subtilis* from different origins are capable of forming such biofilms with complex structures on immersed surfaces [42,43]. 85

In this review, we will present NDmed, another wild-type *B. subtilis* strain that we have been successfully using for several years in genetic studies on biofilms (Fig.1). This strain can build highly structured biofilms in all described *B. subtilis* multicellular models (macro-colony, air/liquid pellicle and submerged), and is much more convenient for genetic manipulations than NCIB3610, which has greatly facilitated such studies.

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96 NDmed, a hyper-biofilm forming *B. subtilis* strain

In a large number of ecological, industrial and hospital settings surface-associated 97 microbial communities are the source of many problems, including public health issues such as 98 nosocomial or foodborne infections [44,45]. For instance, some studies have reported the 99 100 persistence of surface-associated bacteria on an endoscope even after cleaning and disinfecting 101 procedures have taken place [46,47]. A developed biofilm provides bacteria with a protective 102 environment and constitutes a survival strategy against stresses such as microbicide action, thus 103 potentially leading to important healthcare issues. In the course of investigations aiming at 104 unveiling resistance mechanisms behind such bacterial persistence and survival following biocide exposure in a medical environment, Martin et al. have isolated from an endoscope 105 106 washer-disinfector a *B. subtilis* strain particularly resistant to high levels of disinfectants such 107 as chlorine dioxide and hydrogen peroxide [21,48,49]. This now called NDmed strain (for non-108 domesticated strain isolated from medical environment) forms spatially architectural macrocolonies on solid agar medium and dramatically protruding "beanstalk-like" biofilm structures 109 110 (with a height up to $300 \,\mu\text{m}$) on submerged level, with the production of a notable high amount 111 of exopolymeric substances (Fig.2) [42,50]. Such complex three-dimensional structure of the 112 NDmed biofilm appears to hinder the penetration and reactivity of oxidative agents, and 113 thereby leads to hyper-resistance (Fig.3).

114 Whole genome sequencing of NDmed (4.06 Mb) revealed that this non-domesticated 115 isolate is very close to the reference laboratory strain 168, with less than 100 single-nucleotide 116 polymorphisms (SNPs) and less than 50 insertions/deletions (InDels) [52]. As in several other 117 *B. subtilis* natural isolates, e.g. the biofilm-forming transformable strain PS216 [53], the SP β 118 prophage (134.4 kb) and the conjugative element ICEBs1 (20.5 kb) are missing, whereas a 119 putative prophage (44.2 kb) is present immediately downstream of the *glnA* gene. It is 120 noteworthy that among the up to now 708 sequenced genomes of *B. subtilis* strains from

121 extremely various origins (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ genome/browse/#!/prokaryotes/665/), one of the closest genome neighbors is that of strain PS216, displaying a gapped identity of 122 123 99.9823 % with NDmed (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/neighbors/ 124 665?genome assembly id=205100). No plasmid was observed in NDmed, such as the one 125 present in NCIB3610 which encodes the ComI transformation inhibitor [32]. In both strains 168 and its "ancestor" NCIB3610, the gene spsM (formerly ypqP) is disrupted by the SP β 126 127 prophage [54-57]. This *spsM* gene is essential for adding polysaccharides to the spore envelope [58]. Thus, SP β has to be excised during the sporulation process for the reconstitution of a 128 129 functional *spsM* gene. This excision is restricted to the mother cell, whereas SPB remains in the 130 genome of the spore, and is transmitted to the next generation [59]. spsM encodes an UDP-GlcNAc 4,6-dehydratase involved in the first step of the biosynthesis of legionaminic acid from 131 132 UDP-*N*-acetyl-α-D-glucosamine during sporulation. Legionaminic acid is a constituent of the 133 crust, together with other carbohydrates and proteins, covering the spore surface. This 134 outermost layer participates in the adhesion and spreading of spores into the environment [60]. 135 In strains lacking SPB, *spsM* is functional even during vegetative growth, and could therefore 136 participate in synthesizing carbohydrates matrix components leading to the highly robust structured biofilms phenotype. Indeed, in PY79, a 168-derived laboratory strain cured of the 137 138 SP β prophage, the reestablishment of a functional *spsM* (*ypqP*) gene led to increased thickness and resistance to biocides of the associated submerged biofilms [61]. Likewise, deletion of 139 140 spsM in the NDmed strain abolished its ability to protect S. aureus in a mixed submerged 141 biofilm (Fig.5), as well as the particularly remarkable submerged biofilm or macro-colony 142 phenotype, which could be completely restored upon complementation by an ectopic wild-type 143 copy of the gene (Fig.6). Moreover, all the various B. subtilis strains containing a nondisrupted 144 spsM gene that we have tested (NDmed, NDfood, PY79, BSn5, BSP1) formed denser submerged biofilms with more protruding structures than those formed by the strains whose 145

146 spsM gene is disrupted by the SPB prophage (168, NCIB 3610, ATCC 6051) [61]. It was therefore obvious that its product was an important determinant of B. subtilis surface biofilm 147 148 architecture, through its involvement in the synthesis of matrix components participating to the 149 protection against biocides [61]. On the other hand, on hosting the SPB prophage in spsM, 150 lysogenic strains acquire a bacteriocin gene cluster carried by this prophage, encoding sublancin, a lantibiotic with a broad spectrum of bactericidal activity [62]. This indicates the 151 152 double importance of *spsM*, which depending on the environmental conditions and hosting or not SPβ, can play a defensive or offensive role, by synthesis of protective polysaccharides 153 154 "shields" or antimicrobial "weapons". Thus, the genome of NDmed provided some clues for a better understanding of *B. subtilis* social behavior in bacterial communities from natural 155 environments. Although all the genes involved in biofilm formation found defective in strain 156 168 are wild-type in NDmed as in NCIB3610, some differences found between the latter strains 157 158 (such as the SPβ prophage insertion) allowed to shed light on the specific biofilm phenotypes observed. However, as the biofilm morphology and matrix composition can be growth medium 159 160 dependent, as shown with NCIB3610 strain for exopolymeric substances (EPS) composition 161 [63], differences observed when comparing NDmed to NCIB3610 would vanish or turn around in case the growth medium or other environmental conditions were changed. Moreover NDmed 162 has been proven easily transformable [50], which greatly facilitated our biofilms genetic 163 164 studies.

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171 NDmed, a versatile tool strain for genetic and structural *B. subtilis*

172 biofilm studies

173 Studies of *B. subtilis* biofilms use different models corresponding to different types of 174 multicellular communities encountered in nature. In aerial models, cells grow on the surface of a nutrient medium, at the interface with air, and thanks to their technical simplicity, these 175 176 models allow to observe differences in the phenotypes between strains, without requiring complex tools. On a solid medium, the formation of macrocolonies with highly wrinkled 177 architectural structures indicates a high capacity for extracellular matrix production. Wrinkles 178 179 are formed by a lateral compressive force as a consequence of localized cell death, coupled with the stiffness provided by the extracellular matrix [64]. Beneath the wrinkles forms a 180 remarkable network of well-defined channels providing the biofilm with an enhanced transport 181 182 system to exchange water, nutrients, enzymes, and signals, to dispose of potentially toxic metabolites, allowing better metabolic cooperativity [65]. From a macrocolony, and in specific 183 optimized conditions of medium, humidity and temperature, B. subtilis cells can swarm by 184 organized collective movements, which include hyper-flagellated and highly motile cells, while 185 proliferating and consuming nutrients [66-70]. This exploration behavior starting from a 3-D 186 187 mother macrocolony structured biofilm to a monolayer multicellular communities can be seen as the formation of a 2-D developing biofilm. On a liquid medium, the formation of a thick 188 189 pellicle depends on the synthesis of extracellular polymeric substances, essential for the 190 complex 3D structure, as well as on amphiphilic properties of Bsla forming a hydrophobic 191 layer at the interface with air. In the submerged model, cells grow on an inert solid surface (polystyrene) and at the interface between a liquid nutritive medium. Studies of these 192 193 submerged biofilms require more customized laboratory tools, for observation and quantification of the 3D structure (thickness, roughness, and biovolume). An optimized 194 framework for this consists in growth in microplates, combined with a confocal microscopy 195

technique, allowing both spatial and temporal monitoring of the submerged biofilms down to asingle-cell scale [71].

198 B. subtilis NDmed was phenotypically compared to NCIB3610 and 168 strains in four 199 multicellular models. In this context, NDmed could form highly structured macrocolonies, 200 pellicles, as well as submerged biofilms and was able to swarm efficiently on semi-solid medium [72]. Moreover, several NDmed-derived mutants defective in genes previously 201 202 described as triggering biofilm formation in other strains were also compared through this multiculturing approach (Fig.7). This global view over different biofilm models currently used 203 204 in genetic studies on both motility and biofilm formation highlighted the value of NDmed as an undomesticated, naturally competent B. subtilis isolate to point out the involvement of several 205 genes in the formation of different structural biofilms. 206

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208 - Dynamics and structural determinants of *B. subtilis* NDmed submerged
 209 biofilms

B. subtilis submerged biofilms can be a good model representative of some Bacilli 210 211 natural habitats such as soil and plant roots surface [5,42,73]. NDmed has proven to be a good 212 tool for studying the formation dynamics of such submerged biofilms. Various photonic and 213 electronic microscopic techniques allowed us to analyze the three-dimensional biofilm 214 architecture with this strain (Fig.8) [43]. The kinetics of bacterial colonization on the surface could be followed by time-lapse confocal laser scanning microscopy, which revealed an 215 216 unexpected biphasic submerged biofilm development of NDmed. Measurements of oxygen 217 concentration and reporting the expression of genes involved in motility, matrix synthesis and 218 anaerobiosis allowed to decipher the phenomenon: cells first adhere to the surface, forming 219 elongated chains, which are suddenly fragmented, releasing free motile cells. This switching 220 coincides with an oxygen depletion, which precedes the formation of the pellicle at the liquid-

221 air interface. Residual bacteria still associated with the solid surface start then to express matrix genes under anaerobic metabolism to build the typical biofilm protruding structures (Fig.9). 222 The same behavior was also observed for all B. subtilis strains tested, notably 168 and 223 224 NCIB3610, but seems to be very particular to this species, as it was not observed with close 225 relative but different Bacilli (B. cereus, B. licheniformis and B. amyloliquefaciens) [74]. A transcriptome analysis by tiling arrays over a temporal scale confirmed these microscopic 226 227 observations. During the first hours the genes encoding basic functions essential for cellular growth are expressed at a constant rate. Upon oxygen depletion, when none of the aerobic 228 229 respiratory genes is expressed, genes required for autolysis and motility start to be upregulated, 230 leading to elongated sessile chains fragmenting into motile cells. Shortly after, upregulation of anaerobic respiration genes can be observed, followed by expression of biofilm matrix genes, 231 232 the time when the biofilms (submerged and pellicle) are in the process of formation and 233 stabilization of complex architecture. Finally, genes related to sporulation are strongly upregulated in the old biofilm (Fig.10) [74]. 234

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- Spatio-temporal heterogeneity of gene expression in *B. subtilis* surface associated multicellular assemblages

238 Bacterial cells in multicellular communities (macrocolony, pellicle, submerged biofilm, 239 swarming cells) are not only spatially localized in microenvironmental settings different from each other, but also subjected to different chemical gradients within each model [4]. For 240 241 example, in aerial biofilms, the permeability of oxygen in the biomass decreases gradually from 242 the outer top layer to the inside bottom layers, whereas the nutrient gradient is the opposite, 243 with higher concentrations near the surface (nutrient agar or liquid surface). On the other hand, 244 in the submerged biofilms the oxygen and the nutrient gradients are parallel, with gradually decreasing concentrations through the biomass from the top to the bottom inert surface. These 245

chemical gradients generate within each biofilm model local microenvironments associated with physiologically heterogeneous bacterial subpopulations that differ both spatially and temporally and not necessarily bringing into play the same genetic elements nor at the same level. Multicellular communities developing throughout different environmental culturing conditions can present some similarities, but can also display considerable differences at the structural, chemical, and gene expression heterogeneity levels [72,76].

252 A spatio-temporal correlation could take place between the phenotype and the patterns of gene expression, which can lead to subpopulations with different functions in coordination 253 254 with time. Indeed, it has been shown that B. subtilis biofilm growth is highly regulated and organized into discrete ontogenetic stages, analogous to those of eukaryotic embryos, 255 recapitulating phylogeny at the gene expression level [77]. Thus, various types of B. subtilis 256 257 cells are present at the same time in a biofilm, such as motile cells, surfactant producers, matrix 258 producers and sporulating ones [78]. These subpopulations with distributed different tasks are important for the growth and migration of cells seeking nutrients [79-82]. A whole 259 260 transcriptional analysis of the differently localized heterogeneous compartments of these 261 different biofilm models allowed us to further understand the core of the transcriptional network taking place between them during NDmed biofilms development. To unveil the spatial 262 263 transcriptional heterogeneity between the different communities, various spatio-physiological 264 populations selected from different spatially organized B. subtilis NDmed communities were 265 analyzed by RNA-seq, which led to a global characterisation of genes specifically expressed in 266 each compartmental population [83]. Following this mesoscale analysis, the patterns of expression of several selected genes were reported by fluorescent transcriptional reporter 267 268 fusions at a single-cell scale with time-lapse confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM)(Fig.11A). This also permitted to unveil spectacular mosaic expression patterns of 269 genes involved in antagonist functions within a biofilm, such as motility vs matrix synthesis 270

(Fig.11B). Especially, a particular attention on expression of oppositely regulated genes of the
carbon central metabolism allowed to identify in a same biofilm bacterium under either
glycolytic or gluconeogenic regimes, coexisting as spatially segregated populations. Altogether,
this study gave novel insights into the development and dispersal of *B. subtilis* NDmed surfaceassociated communities [83].

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278 Future contributions of advanced technologies in the study of

279 NDmed biofilms

Our exploration of the mechanisms underlying biofilm formation and architecture in the NDmed strain already provided a huge amount of data regarding the spatiotemporal expression of genes. This genetically tractable strain is now attracting considerable interest as a model biofilm-forming *Bacillus* to expand our knowledge of the gene regulatory network behind this developmental switch using advanced genetic tools.

The recent progress of the CRISPR-Cas technology, in combination with phage derived 285 lambda-red recombineering system has improved genome editing and genetic engineering in a 286 287 wide range of bacteria. The CRISPR/cas9 derived from Streptococcus pyogenes, has been already proved useful in assisting genome editing in both domesticated and undomesticated 288 289 Bacilli [84-86]. The high level of genetic identity of the NDmed strain with the laboratory B. 290 subtilis model strain 168 makes it possible to take advantage, by simple transformation, of the comprehensive collection of BKE/BKK single mutants targeting each of the non-essential 291 292 genes of this bacterium [87]. Combined with CRISPR methodology, this invaluable collection, available from the Bacillus Genetic Stock Center (BGSC, USA) could be also leveraged to 293 perform CRISPR-assisted targeted genetic engineering in other *B. subtilis* strains [88]. 294

295 The CRISPR-dCas9 gene silencing system is also a very effective loss-of-function tool to study the relationships between genotype and phenotype without requiring the alteration of 296 297 genes. Using a catalytically inactive Cas9 protein (dCas9) and single gene-targeting guide 298 RNAs (sgRNAs), CRISPR interference (CRISPRi) has emerged as a powerful genetic 299 methodology to dissect the functions of genes in various bacterial species [89-93]. Such an approach has been used to investigate 258 essential gene functions in B. subtilis 168 ([94]. This 300 301 CRISPRi system, composed of chromosomally inserted modules expressing a xylose-inducible dcas9 gene and single gRNAs, is easily transferable into other B. subtilis strains with highly 302 303 genomic similarities such as NDmed. Indeed, the Pxyl-based CRISPRi system is functional in 304 NDmed and can be successfully used to block cytokinesis by targeting essential genes involved in cell division and elongation (Fig.12). CRISPR-mediated knockdown of ftsZ encoding the 305 306 FtsZ protein involved in the formation of the Z-ring required for the constriction of the septum 307 during division, triggers extensive elongation of cells only a few hours after induction, similar 308 to a *B. subtilis ftsZ* mutant [95] (Fig.12B). The downregulation of expression of mreB or mreC, 309 involved in controlling cell morphogenesis generates expected bulged and shapeless cells 310 consequential to a defect in cell wall synthesis [96] (Fig.12B). This approach is also powerful 311 for studying the function of genes involved in the formation and development of multicellular 312 communities. As illustrated in Fig.12CD, silencing of epsC and downstream genes of the eps 313 operon, responsible for the synthesis of exopolysaccharides, leads to a smooth biofilm-deficient 314 phenotype of macrocolony, similar to that of a *AepsA-O* strain. Compared to the intricate tri-315 dimensional structure exhibited by a wild-type strain or a strain expressing the dcas9 together 316 with a neutral non-targeting gRNA, this observation shows that the CRISPRi technology can be 317 successfully applied to long-term phenotypic studies and is relevant to investigate bacterial 318 responses during the transitional switch to biofilm formation. Another interesting aspect of this approach is not only its ability to target multiple genes, but also to probe non-coding elements 319

of the bacterial genome. In all living organisms, non-coding RNAs (ncRNAs) are playing an important role in many biological processes by affecting the translation or the stability of mRNA [97]. Some ncRNAs were found involved in biofilm formation in various bacteria [98,99]. However, their potential regulatory role during biofilm development in *Bacillus* remains largely unexplored.

325 In combination with NGS sequencing technologies, CRISPRi pool (or CRISPi-seq) is now used successfully to perform large-scale functional genetic screening using genome-wide 326 327 libraries of gRNAs. These screens allow to quickly identify genes or genetic elements whose 328 repression confers an advantage or a disadvantage in a particular physiological condition [100]. CRISPRi pools enable the interrogation of the fitness of genes upon exposure to biological 329 stressors. This approach can be now timely used to investigate genes and regulatory pathways 330 331 affecting biofilm formation when subjected to chemical or physical challenges such as biocides 332 or extreme environments such as altered gravity. Based on the RNAseq data generated in our 333 previous transcriptome studies, we have already constructed in NDmed a biofilm-oriented 334 library of guide RNAs targeting a subset of genes upregulated during the early stage of biofilm formation. 335

336 We project to use NDmed as a model strain for studying microbial biofilms in 337 microgravity and hypergravity conditions. Microgravity corresponds to conditions encountered 338 in the International Space Station (ISS), in which the establishment and development of 339 biofilms on many different hardware surfaces can lead to significant problems [101,102]. Thus 340 understanding the particularities in the mechanisms involved in such conditions is a real 341 challenge toward the limitation of these problems susceptible to arise beyond the ISS in long 342 spaceship journeys and in extraterrestrial human base settlements with lower gravity (Moon, 343 Mars...).

To conclude, the *B. subtilis* strain NDmed possesses a remarkable ability to form highly structured biofilms with different morphologies such as complex macrocolonies, thick pellicles, and beanstalk-like submerged biofilm structures. It is also hyper-resistant to biocides and can protect pathogens in mixed-species biofilms. Along with its ease of genetic manipulation, NDmed stands out as a valuable bacterial model for biofilm studies using modern molecular and microscopic techniques.

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Figure 1: Macro-colony of *B. subtilis* **NDmed.** Composite image of a colony of *B. subtilis* NDmed taken in digital photography (left part) and confocal scanning laser microscopy (right part); (diameter of the colony is approximately 2 cm). This artwork picture has been presented among 10 finalists at an artistic scientific photographs concourse organized by the French Embassy in Tokyo (Japan) in Dec.2022.

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Figure 2: Comparison of architectures of biofilms formed by *B. subtilis* 168 and NDmed strains. (A) Aerial views of 168 and NDmed biofilm structure, with a virtual three-dimensional shadow projection on the right. Scale bars correspond to 50 μ m. (B) Scanning Electron Microscopy images of 24-hour biofilms. (C) Dye binding properties of 72 hours macrocolonies grown on Congo red indicator medium. (D) Iso-surface representation of a particular "beanstalk-like" structure for NDmed. (From [42,50]).

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Figure 3: Peracetic acid (PAA) activity in *B. subtilis* biofilms. Visualization of the kinetics
of membrane permeabilization (Chemchrome V6 fluorescence loss) in *B. subtilis* 168 and
NDmed biofilms during PAA treatment (0.05%). Scale bars correspond to 20 µm. (From [50]).
Besides, when grown in mixed biofilm with *Staphylococcus aureus*, the *B. subtilis* NDmed
strain demonstrated the ability to protect this pathogen from PAA action, thus enabling its
persistence in the environment (Fig.4) [50,51].

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Figure 4: Architecture of S. aureus AH478 and B. subtilis NDmed /S.aureus AH478 mixed

biofilm. (A) 3D reconstruction of *S.aureus* AH478 biofilm. (B) 3D reconstruction of mixed
species biofilm of *B. subtilis* NDmed (green)/*S.aureus* AH478 (red). Scale bars correspond to
20 µm. (From [50]).

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Figure 5: Three-dimensional organization of *B. subtilis* NDmed and *S. aureus* mixed
biofilms. Mixed biofilms of *S. aureus* mCherry (red) and *B. subtilis* GFP (green) strains were
grown for 48 h. Representative 3D reconstruction images of *S. aureus* and *B. subtilis* NDmed
Wild-Type (A) or *spsM* mutant (B) mixed biofilms are presented. The scale bars represent 50
µm. (From [61])

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Figure 6: Visualization of the effect of ypqP (*spsM*) disruption on submerged-biofilm structure and complex colony morphology in *B. subtilis* NDmed. (A) Colonies of the NDmed Wild-Type, ypqP mutant, and ypqP-complemented strains were grown on TSB agar for 3 days. (B and C) Biofilms of the three strains were grown for 48 h and stained with SYTO9. For each strain, representative images of the adherent cells in contact with the surface (B) and the 3D reconstruction using IMARIS software (C) are presented. The scale bars represent 50 µm. (From [61])

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743 Figure 7: Comparative phenotype for *B. subtilis* strains and NDmed mutants on different

multicellular culture assays. Macrocolonies were grown on 1.5% agar TSA for 6 days at 30
°C. For swarming, 0.7% agar B-medium plates were inoculated on the middle and incubated
for 24 hrs at 30 °C. Pellicles were obtained after 24 hrs of culture at 30 °C of bacteria in TSB in
a 24-well plate. Macrocolony, swarming, and pellicle images are representative of the majority

of the phenotype from at least three replicates for each strain revealing the effect of mutations
on the biofilm formation. In a microplate system, immersed biofilms are labeled by SYTO 9
after 24 hrs of incubation at 30 °C. The shadow on the right represents the vertical projection of
the submerged biofilm (scale bars represent 40 μm). (From [72])

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Figure 8: 3D architecture of *B. subtilis* NDmed biofilm. (A) Three-dimensional
reconstruction of biofilm from Confocal Laser Scanning Microscopy (CLSM) stack images.
(C) Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM) micrograph of biofilm. (B and D)
Environmental Scanning Electron Microscopy (ESEM) micrographs of biofilm at pressure in a
microscope chamber of 4 and 5 Torr, respectively. (From [43]).

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759 Figure 9: The biphasic process of submerged biofilm formation by B. subtilis NDmed. Left 760 panel: A) 4D-CLSM of B. subtilis NDmed GFP on submerged surfaces. Imaris Easy 3D reconstructions (top) and sections views as an XZ projection (bottom) at specific time points of 761 762 a representative experiment of three independent experiments. The shadow on the right represents a vertical (YZ) projection of the submerged biofilm (scale bars represent 20 µm). B) 763 Space-time kymograph generated with BiofilmO from 4D-CLSM series showing the brutal 764 apparition of free cells in all the wells 3h after biofilm initiation and the late initiation of 765 766 submerged biofilm after 7h. dz represents the distance to the surface in µm and Ich1 the GFP 767 fluorescence intensity in relative arbitrary units. Representative of n = 3 independent biofilms. 768 C) Individual cell length coordinately and brutally drops during chain fragmentation 2–3 h after biofilm initiation. Chains fragmentation is correlated with an increased number of detected 769 770 individual objects in the medium. Mean cell length \pm SD calculated from n = 3 experiments. 771 Right panel: Space-time kymographs for reporters D) hag (motility), E) tapA (matrix), F) fnr (anaerobiosis) transcription during submerged biofilm formation of B. subtilis NDmed. 772

773 Representative of n = 3 independent biofilms for each reporter. Kymographs were constructed with BiofilmO visualization toolbox from 4D-CLSM image sequences with fluorescent 774 transcriptional fusions (NDmed547 [amyE::Phag-gfp sacA::PtapA-mKate2] and GM3361 775 776 [*Pfnr-gfpmut3*]). dz represents the distance to the surface in µm and Ich1 the fluorescent 777 reporter intensity in relative arbitrary units. G) graph representing the oxygen concentration measured in two wells with a microelectrode showing a sharp decrease of oxygen concentration 778 779 that drops from around 185 ppm at t = 0 below the probe detection limit after less than 5 h. (From [74]). 780

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Figure 10: Temporal tiling array transcriptome of Bacillus subtilis NDmed colonizing 782 microplate wells. All the biomass from the wells was collected for the transcriptome analysis 783 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 24, and 48h after inoculation. A log2 fold change (log2FC) of expression was 784 785 calculated for the genes from the ratio of expression over the average of expression across all 786 temporal samples. The heatmap displays data for 48 genes selected from Subtiwiki categories, 787 as representatives for the different functional categories [75]. The yellow and the blue represent respectively an upregulation or a downregulation of a gene compared to its average expression 788 789 over the time course, with a scale adjusted to a log2FC of +/-2.8. (From [74]).

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Figure 11: CLSM of NDmed 547 reporting in green the expression of *hag* (motility) and in red the expression of *tapA* (matrix synthesis). A) 4D-CLSM of the biphasic submerged biofilm formation process. The scale bars represent 50 μ m. B) CLSM visualization of the wells colonization after 24h, both on the surface (with a zoom on submerged biofilm on the bottom right with a scale bar of 30 μ m) and at the liquid-air interface (with a zoom on a floating pellicle on the up right with a scale bar of 30 μ m) (From [74]).

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Figure 12: Gene silencing by CRISPRi in B. subtilis NDmed. (A) Schematic view of 798 799 CRISPRi-mediated silencing of gene expression. (B) Phase contrast images of NDmed_Pxyl-800 dcas9 cells expressing gRNAs targeting the mreB, mreC or ftsZ genes. Cells were cultivated in 801 the presence of xylose1% for 5 hours prior to observation. Control cells do not contain 802 targeting gRNA sequences. Scale bars represent 10 μ m. (C and D) Biofilm macrocolony assay. 803 NDmed_P_{xyl}-dcas9 cells expressing gRNAs targeting the *epsC* gene or a negative control guide 804 were inoculated at the center of a MSgg agar plate containing 1% xylose and grown at 30°C for 805 40 hours (C) or 60 hours (D). The macrocolony phenotype resulting from the CRISPRimediated gene silencing of epsC was compared to those of the NDmed Wild-Type and $\Delta epsA$ -806 *O* mutant. The macrocolony images are representative of three replicates. 807





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Declaration of interests

☑ The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

□ The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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